



BI Norwegian Business School - campus Oslo

# GRA 19703

Master Thesis

Thesis Master of Science

How do Empowering Leadership Relate to Task Adaptivity and Task Proactivity? Examining the Role of Change-Related Self-Efficacy, Felt Responsibility, Emotional Engagement, and Proactive Personality

Navn: Christoffer Hermann, Tina Riste Helmersen

Start: 15.01.2020 09.00

Finish: 01.09.2020 12.00

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We will first and foremost like to thank our thesis advisor, Associate Professor Elizabeth Solberg, who works in the Department of Leadership and Organizational Behavior at BI Norwegian Business School. Associate Professor Solberg was always available and answered every question we had in the process whether it concerned theoretical questions, design of survey, or writing matters. She has been very engaged in the process, encouraged and guided us in the right direction when needed. We are grateful for the support, insight and constructive comments we received along the way. She is extremely skilled in her field of research and it has been an honor to have her as a supervisor.

We will also like to thank all our respondents for their time and contribution to our study. Our network has helped us to share the survey to a great number of participants and we appreciate their help, considering the difficult situation with regards to COVID-19. Without every participant's valuable contribution, the study could not be possible to conduct; we are therefore very thankful, and without them we would not have been able to successfully realize this master thesis.

Next, we will like to thank our family, friends and colleagues that have supported us throughout this journey. They have contributed with unfailing support, interest, love, and exciting conversations. The continuous encouragement through our years of study have been overwhelming. Additionally, the support given in frustrating and challenging times has been fantastic. Ultimately, the accomplishment of our master's would not been possible without our important network of support.

Lastly, we will like to thank each other for the good teamwork, support and unyielding effort during the process. It has been a journey of both good and bad times, with hard work, long days, tears, laughter and joy, but the days have always consisted of mutual support. It has been a great experience and it has contributed with a feeling of mastery along the way.

Thank you for this and have good read!

Authors,  
Hermann & Helmersen

## Table of Content

<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>1.0 Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>2.0 Literature Review</b> .....	<b>4</b>
<b>2.1 Work Role Performance</b> .....	<b>4</b>
2.1.1 <i>Task Adaptivity</i> .....	5
2.1.2 <i>Task Proactivity</i> .....	5
<b>2.2 Empowering Leadership</b> .....	<b>6</b>
<b>2.3 Change-Oriented Motivational States</b> .....	<b>7</b>
2.3.1 <i>“Can Do” Motivation (Change-Related Self-Efficacy)</i> .....	8
2.3.2 <i>“Reason to” Motivation (Felt Responsibility for Change)</i> .....	9
2.3.3 <i>“Energized to” Motivation (Emotional Engagement)</i> .....	10
<b>2.4 Proactive Personality</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>2.5 Social Leader-Member Exchange</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>2.6 Summary of Literature Review</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>3.0 Theory and Hypotheses</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>3.1 Empowering Leadership and Task Adaptivity/Proactivity</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>3.2 Mediator 1: “Can Do” Motivation (Change-Related Self-Efficacy)</b> .....	<b>15</b>
3.2.1 <i>Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy</i> .....	15
3.2.2 <i>Change-Related Self-Efficacy and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity</i> .....	15
<b>3.3 Mediator 2: “Reason to” Motivation (Felt Responsibility for Change)</b> .....	<b>17</b>
3.3.1 <i>Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change</i> .....	17
3.3.2 <i>Felt Responsibility for Change and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity</i> .....	17
<b>3.4 Mediator 3: “Energized to” Motivation (Emotional Engagement)</b> .....	<b>19</b>
3.4.1 <i>Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement</i> .....	19
3.4.2 <i>Emotional Engagement and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity</i> .....	19
<b>3.5 Moderator 1: “Proactive Personality”</b> .....	<b>21</b>
3.5.1 <i>Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy</i> .....	21
3.5.2 <i>Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change</i> .....	22
3.5.3 <i>Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement</i> .....	23
<b>3.6 Moderator 2: “Social Leader-Member Exchange”</b> .....	<b>24</b>
3.6.1 <i>SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy</i> ....	24
3.6.2 <i>SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change</i> ..	25
3.6.3 <i>SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement</i> .....	25
<b>4.0 Methodology</b> .....	<b>27</b>
<b>4.1 Procedure</b> .....	<b>28</b>
<b>4.2 Sample</b> .....	<b>28</b>
<b>4.3 Participants</b> .....	<b>29</b>

---

<b>4.4 Measures</b> .....	<b>30</b>
4.4.1 <i>Types of Organizational Change</i> .....	31
4.4.2 <i>Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership</i> .....	31
4.4.3 <i>Moderator Variables</i> .....	31
4.4.4 <i>Mediator Variables</i> .....	31
4.4.5 <i>Dependent Variables: Task Adaptivity and Task Proactivity</i> .....	31
<b>4.5 Pre-test of Measurement Items</b> .....	<b>32</b>
<b>4.6 Data Preparations and Data Cleaning</b> .....	<b>32</b>
<b>5.0 Analysis</b> .....	<b>33</b>
<b>5.1 Principal Component Analysis</b> .....	<b>33</b>
<b>6.0 Results</b> .....	<b>34</b>
<b>6.1 Principal Component Analysis and Cronbach’s Alpha</b> .....	<b>34</b>
<b>6.2 Hypotheses Testing</b> .....	<b>36</b>
6.2.1 <i>Mediation Analysis using PROCESS</i> .....	36
6.2.2 <i>Moderated Mediation using PROCESS</i> .....	38
<b>7.0 Discussion</b> .....	<b>41</b>
7.1 <b>Mediator 1: “Can do” Motivation (Change-Related Self-Efficacy)</b> .....	<b>42</b>
7.2 <b>Mediator 2: “Reason to” Motivation (Felt Responsibility for Change)</b> .....	<b>43</b>
7.3 <b>Mediator 3: “Energized to” Motivation (Emotional Engagement)</b> .....	<b>45</b>
<b>8.0 Practical Implications</b> .....	<b>46</b>
<b>9.0 Limitations and Future Research</b> .....	<b>48</b>
<b>10.0 Conclusion</b> .....	<b>50</b>
<b>11.0 References</b> .....	<b>52</b>
 <b>Appendices</b>	
Appendix 1: Survey Questionnaire	
Appendix 2: Adapted Measures and Items	
Appendix 3: Principal Component Analysis with Promax Rotation	

## Abstract

In this thesis, we intended to contribute to the literature by looking at the importance of leader behavior on performance variables. Particularly, the paper investigated how empowering leadership influences employees' task adaptivity and task creativity through different change-oriented motivational states. We aimed to look at whether change-related self-efficacy, felt responsibility for change and emotional engagement would influence the relationship between the mentioned variables. Finally, we tried to understand how proactive personality moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and the mediating variables.

Our study examined 307 participants in total. Their change-oriented motivational states towards changes, concerning the concept of empowering leadership and task adaptivity and task proactivity were looked into. "PROCESS" was used to review the data that we were able to gather from people within our network. Our findings suggest that empowering leadership is important for employees to feel a "reason to" be committed to conduct changes at work, and accordingly, be more task adaptive and task proactive. Further, empowering leadership was positively influencing employees' change-related self-efficacy and their task adaptivity/proactivity. However, the findings need to be interpreted with caution, as the internal consistency in the mediating variable was somewhat below limits. We also found that employees who was emotionally engaged at work, was more task adaptive and task proactive. However, this is not a result of empowering leadership, due to a non-significant relationship in our results. Furthermore, our research indicates that employees who are high on proactive personality, demonstrates a higher sense of felt responsibility for change. However, empowering leadership was not the reason for the latter relationship.

Finally, practical implications, limitations and directions for future research are discussed.

## 1.0 Introduction

Routine and stability can rarely be used to describe the present-day workplace (Baard, Rench, & Kozlowski, 2014). For this reason, people are required to respond to changing situations. However, no one would forecast a pandemic to impact and change the way we work, as much as it did when it occurred in the middle of March. When COVID-19 was identified as a pandemic, the society changed (Ghebreyesus, 2020). For instance, restrictions such as lockdown of schools, kindergartens, and companies, enforced many employees of working from home (Helsedirektoratet, 2020a). The restrictions were made to stop the spread of COVID-19 and contribute to the maintenance of health and care services (Helsedirektoratet, 2020b). For instance, leaders had to manage their employees through the use of digital platforms, while employees had to complete their tasks from home offices. Someone had to learn new technology, while others had to find a new way of balancing work and life, due to the lockdown of schools and kindergartens. However, the situation affected everyone differently and people had to make considerable changes in their everyday life.

*“It is not the strongest animals that survive, nor the most intelligent, but the ones most adaptive to change” - Darwin, 1859*

As the environment becomes more turbulent, employees' capacity to handle emergencies, learn quickly, and solve new problems become required abilities (Charbonnier-Voirin & Roussel, 2012). COVID-19 placed extraordinary demands on organizations, leaders, and employees. In unpredictable and challenging situations, the behavior of leaders is important for how the employees handle and get through the changes (D'Auria & De Smet, 2020). Particularly, a need for employees to be task adaptive and task proactive, to adapt to the changes made by COVID-19 is crucial. Task adaptivity is about adapting and coping with changes, while task proactivity concerns how we initiate change (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). A changing environment requires an interplay of employees' adaptivity and proactivity to cope effectively and efficiently (Ghitulescu, 2013). Therefore, this paper intends to understand how certain factors affect the variables of task adaptivity and task proactivity. Parker, Bindl, and Strauss (2010) suggested a conceptual model of proactive motivation with distal antecedents, including individual differences, contextual factors in leadership, and interpersonal climate. We believe that the model of proactive motivation and the change-oriented motivational states are important to exhibit task adaptivity and task proactivity. In particular, “can do” motivation (change-related self-efficacy), “reason to” motivation (felt

responsibility for change), and “energized to” motivation (emotional engagement) will be investigated. Thus, the model of Parker et al. (2010) will be used as a framework for this paper. Additionally, leadership behavior is regarded as important for how employees handle changes (Parker et al., 2010). Therefore, empowering leadership will be explored as the antecedent of the change-oriented motivational states and task adaptivity/proactivity. Ultimately, social leader-member exchange (SLMX) has been found to positively relate to work performance and employee behavior (Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Haerem, 2012). In comparison, proactive personality describes people who can identify and act on opportunities, show initiative, and engage in changes (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Thus, we find SLMX and proactive personality to be interesting variables and moderators to examine in relation to empowering leadership and change-oriented motivational states.

Researchers have extensively examined the antecedents and processes underlying adaptivity and proactivity (Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; Ployhart & Bliese, 2006; Pulakos et al., 2000, 2002). However, significant knowledge gaps remain. For instance, previous research has mainly focused on individual differences as predictors of adaptive performance (Baard et al., 2014; Jundt, Shoss, & Huang, 2015). Limited research attention has been directed at examining the contextual factors that impact task adaptivity and task proactivity. One of the most notable gaps identified with regards to contextual factors is research that investigates how the behavior of leaders influences employee outcomes (Charbonnier-Voirin & El Akremi, 2011; Han & Williams, 2008; Jundt et al., 2015; Ryan, 2017). This is surprising, as leaders are known for having a significant influence on employees and their performance at work (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016; Wang, Zhang, Thomas, Yu, & Spitzmueller, 2011). Even though adaptive behaviors have been differentiated from proactive behaviors, several studies have included both adaptivity and proactivity as outcome variables (e.g. Ghitulescu, 2013; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Marques-Quinteiro & Cural, 2012). However, the relationship between the two constructs and the change-oriented motivational states needs to be investigated.

We firstly review relevant literature in order to look into earlier research so that we can build up relevant theory before development of our hypotheses. We look into task adaptivity and task proactivity from the model developed by Griffin et al. (2007), before we discuss the concept of empowering leadership, focusing on different leadership behaviors that we compare with other types of leadership. Furthermore, we use the model of proactive motivation (Parker et al., 2010) to investigate the change-oriented motivational states prior to a review of proactive personality and social leader-member exchange. Moreover, specific

theories and arguments are being presented and the relationships in our research model are discussed, before defining our hypotheses. Our hypotheses will be tested using PROCESS developed by Andrew Hayes ([www.afhayes.com](http://www.afhayes.com)) and the results will be presented. Then, a discussion will follow related to our main findings and results prior to the implications, limitations, and future research.

As Griffin et al. (2010, p.180) stated, “simply adding ‘adapt well to change’ to a job description is unlikely to promote greater adaptivity”. Thus, this master thesis would like to contribute to the literature by providing an increased understanding of how task adaptivity/proactivity is influenced by the intersection between change-oriented motivational states and individual characteristics during a time of rapid changes and new ways of working due to COVID-19. Our study also contributes to the literature by providing a deeper understanding of how change-oriented motivational states mediate and influences the outcome variables, which was not deeply investigated in existing research (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001; Parker & Turner, 2002). We also offer a model of leader behavior, individual characteristics, and employee behavior which aims to understand the interaction of the environment, the individual, and the behavior, that aligns with Parker et al.’s (2010) model of proactive motivation. For leaders, this study will provide an in-depth understanding of the importance of how certain leadership behaviors (i.e. empowering leadership) may impact their subordinates’ ability to be both task adaptive and task proactive during demanding organizational changes. Accordingly, an understanding of how change-related motivational states influence the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity will be provided. This study will in turn allow managers and organizations to get a deeper understanding of which leadership behaviors that promotes task adaptivity and task proactivity among their employees. In addition, the study provides an understanding of how change-oriented motivational states relate to individual performance variables during abnormal circumstances. As leaders are regarded as an important factor for influencing employee behavior, an understanding of how different types of behaviors are perceived by employees will be of value to understand.



## 2.0 Literature Review

### 2.1 Work Role Performance

Arguably, performance is one of the most important outcomes in organizational psychology (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012). Assessing and measuring performance are of high interest to leaders, shareholders, and researchers due to its relevance to effectiveness (Richard, Devinney, Yip, & Johnson, 2009). However, the definition of work performance has changed over the last four decades. One of the reasons for the changes is that tasks were generally more standardized and fixed before, and therefore, effectiveness could more easily be defined. How we conduct work, has changed throughout the latest four decades. This transformation has challenged the view of individual work performance (Griffin et al., 2007). One view is discussed by Howard (1995) which stated that increased interdependence and uncertainty at work are more relevant to the new way of working. Therefore, it can be debated how previous research does not concern all types of behaviors that contribute to organizational effectiveness. As a result, research on citizenship performance, adaptive performance, and proactivity have been introduced (Griffin et al., 2007).

The relevance of change-oriented behavior made Griffin et al. (2007), developed a model which suggests that context shapes employee behavior which will be valued in an organization. The model emphasizes positive work role performance, which in addition to work role proficiency (to what degree an employee meets role expectations and requirements), includes change-oriented behavior at the task, the team, and the organizational level. Furthermore, adaptivity reflects the extent to which employees adapt to or copes with changes in tasks, work roles, and organizational environment. Proactivity, on the other hand, reflects the extent to which employees initiate productive changes in their tasks, roles, or within the organization as a whole.

After studying previous research on performance by using Griffin et al.'s (2007) model, it can be argued that this measure will capture the effects of empowering leadership on specific and distinct forms of change-oriented performance. While adaptivity is supported to theoretically differ from proactivity, there is growing evidence that adaptivity and proactivity are closely related (Strauss, Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2015). Therefore, the scope of our thesis will only consider task adaptivity and task proactivity, due to its relatedness to change-oriented behavior and employee performance. However, the paper will delimit toward the variable of task proficiency, due to the fact that it is not related to performance and change-

oriented variables. Furthermore, our paper will look at the dimensions from an individual task level perspective, and hence, exclude the view from the team and organizational level. The reason is to reduce the complexity of the paper and to contribute to the research within individual change-oriented performance literature.

### *2.1.1 Task Adaptivity*

More dynamic, unpredictable, fast-changing markets and technologies initiate new work requirements. To ensure efficiency in a such context, individuals need to adapt and cope with changes to their role and environment. “Task adaptivity refers to the degree to which individuals cope with, respond to, and/or support changes that affect their roles as individuals” (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 331). In particular, this can be an adjustment to new equipment, processes, or procedures in core tasks. For example, a person who accepts and copes well with a new procedure for taking a new digital sale system into life demonstrates individual task adaptivity. Task adaptivity is important in light of several factors such as the introduction of new technology, work redesign, and changes in strategy, which in total can require individuals to adjust their workplace behaviors (Griffin et al., 2007).

### *2.1.2 Task Proactivity*

In a work environment that is regarded as highly uncertain and unpredictable, must the individuals not only react and adapt to changes. They must also look for, and act upon, the external environment in self-directed ways to achieve effective outcomes (Aragón-Correa, 1998). Griffin and colleagues (2007) defined task proactivity as the extent to which individuals engage in self-starting, future-oriented behavior to change their work situations, their work roles, or themselves. For instance, a carpenter that has created a safer way of laying roof tiles or scanned the environment to identify opportunities for increased efficiency of isolating roofs and walls.

Griffin et al. (2007) state that there are several related constructs to task proactivity such as “proactive behavior” (Crant, 2000), “taking charge” (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), “personal initiative” (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996), and “innovator role behavior” (Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998). However, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000), stated that proactivity is distinct from individual initiative and conscientious initiative because they emphasize effort and persistence, rather than self-initiated and change-focused actions. These actions are regarded as more important for employee performance, and therefore can be viewed as a result of empowering leadership behavior.

## 2.2 Empowering Leadership

Several researchers have demonstrated that when employees feel empowered at work, their job performance, job satisfaction, and commitment to work will increase (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Empowering leadership is defined as the process by which leaders share power with employees by providing decision-making authority, additional responsibility for work and resources, as well as the support needed to handle the additional responsibility effectively (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). The study by Ahearne et al. (2005), identified four primary behaviors that comprise empowering leadership. These concerns (a) enhancing the meaningfulness of work, (b) fostering participation in decision making, (c) expressing confidence in high performance, and (d) providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints.

Firstly, the relationship between enhancing the meaningfulness at work and empowerment can be examined in the context of work design. Hackman and Oldham (1976) demonstrated that certain work attributes such as skill variety, task identity, and task significance have a significant effect on enhancing the level of meaningfulness among employees (Gagné, Senécal, & Koestner, 1997). A more recent investigation by Arciniega and Menon (2013) conceptualized meaningfulness and empowerment in terms of task identity and task significance. According to the authors, the extent to which employees can identify with the work and how much their work influences their colleagues and the organization as a whole impact their sense of perceived meaningfulness. In addition, task identity has also been found to enhance the meaningfulness of employees as it ensures an opportunity for the employees to understand their tasks (Kanter, 1983).

Secondly, fostering participation in decision making is regarded as important for empowering leadership. Knoop (1995) defined the term as leaders who share decision-making with their subordinates to achieve organizational objectives. Similarly, the meaning of empowerment is focused on the level of employee participation. Participation can offer employees various levels of influence in the decision-making process. Furthermore, Spreitzer (1996) demonstrated that in a participative climate, the acknowledgment, creations, liberation of employees are valued.

Thirdly, leaders expressing confidence in the employees' high performance is regarded as an important dimension of empowering leadership (Ahearne et al., 2005). This is in line with Hui (1994) who found that by expressing confidence in high performance, leaders foster confidence in employees and display their belief in employees' abilities. This is related to the employees' self-efficacy beliefs which is the belief in how to execute actions and

behaviors that are necessary to produce specific accomplishments (Bandura, 1986). Leaders can influence employees' levels of self-efficacy through positive emotional support, words of encouragement, and positive persuasion (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000; Bandura, 1986; Conger, 1989). This is supported by Seibert et al. (2011), which suggests that leaders who act as role models and provide employees with feedback, can increase self-efficacy.

Finally, the last dimension of empowering leadership is providing employees with autonomy and less focus on rules and restrictions (Ahearne et al., 2005). This is related to leaders who provide autonomy through flexibility and freedom at work. Research has found that employees that experience autonomy will benefit from higher job commitment and satisfaction and better decision-making (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Empowering leadership is related to the concept of delegation. However, delegation generally refers to employee ownership of more specific tasks, whereas empowerment is an ongoing philosophy of sharing broader responsibilities (Mills & Ungson, 2003). Further, empowerment in terms of leadership tends to emphasize a broader range of behaviors, such as assisting in building employee capabilities and expressing confidence (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2004). In theory, empowering leadership also differs from participative leadership, where the participative leadership involves that the leader makes the decisions together with the employees. In contrast, this is viewed as only one dimension of empowering leadership (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Finally, we also distinguish empowering leadership from transformational leadership. Transformational leadership emphasizes leader charisma, vision, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration of followers (Bass, 1985). Also, transformational leadership may not include empowering behaviors, as charismatic leaders still can operate without using the tools of empowerment (Bass, 1997).

### **2.3 Change-Oriented Motivational States**

Parker et al. (2010) described change-oriented motivational states as: "can do", "reason to", and "energized to" motivation. First, "can do" motivation includes self-efficacy perceptions, control appraisals and attributions, and the perceived cost of action (Parker et al., 2010). Second, "reason to" motivation refers to how well a task relates to future goals and one's determination to reach the goals (Eccles et al., 1983). Third, "energized to" is defined by how emotions may function as an approach or avoidance of energizers in motivational systems and activate positive emotions towards behavior (Parker et al., 2010). In particular,

having a positive attitude towards the change, having responsibility for making the change, and personal interest for the change itself can bring on a “ready to change” mindset. In addition, Way et al. (2015) argued that “can do” motivation is the same as “will do” motivation in relation to adaptive performance, accordingly, how employees are willing and motivated to perform work activities (Mager & Pipe, 1970). With this evidence in mind, motivational states (Parker et al., 2010) may apply to a broader range of change-oriented capabilities and not just proactive performance. Therefore, the term “change-oriented” motivational states are used further in the paper.

### 2.3.1 “Can Do” Motivation (*Change-Related Self-Efficacy*)

The “can do” state of mind, is drawn from theories focused on expectancies such as self-efficacy theory and self-regulation theory, in which the main question is, “Can I do this?” or “How feasible is it?” (Parker et al., 2010). “Can do” motivation includes self-efficacy perceptions (Can I do it?), control appraisals and attributions (How feasible is it?), and the perceived cost of action (How risky is it?) (Parker et al., 2010, p. 834). Parker et al. (2010) argued, in connection to “can do” motivation, that on the basis of risks and uncertainty that proactive action can incur – employees must have a strong belief that they can bring about change, as well as deal with any consequences arising from that change. For example, employees with low self-efficacy, doubt that they can do what is necessary to succeed. In comparison, high self-efficacy may help the employee to sustain motivational efforts over time, even in light of adverse conditions and uncertain outcomes. Therefore, according to the self-efficacy-as-motivation argument, what people say they “*can do*” is a proxy for motivation for being proactive and adaptive towards the organizational changes.

Self-efficacy has also been shown to increase persistence and employee willingness to overcome obstacles (Bandura, 1997). For example, empowering leadership does most likely play a more important role because emotional support, words of encouragement, positive persuasion will increase the perceived self-efficacy and, therefore, see fewer cognitive costs of being adaptive and proactive (Bandura, 1986). By this, we believe that the model of “can do” motivation developed by Parker et al. (2010) is an important tool to understand and explain how self-efficacy is an important asset when conducting organizational changes.

Wanberg and Banas (2000) explain that change-related self-efficacy affects how individuals perceive their ability to handle change in a particular situation and how well they are functioning on the job despite the demands of change. Alternatively, Conner (1992) explained the importance of change-specific self-efficacy and suggest that individuals will not

perform well in change climates when they are not confident about their abilities. Moreover, individuals will avoid activities that they believe exceed their capabilities. However, they will undertake and perform those they judge themselves to be capable of (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993). Bandura (1977) argue that domain-specific self-efficacy depends on the specifics of a situation and can be increased through organizational interventions that increase mastery of the situation.

### 2.3.2 “Reason to” Motivation (*Felt Responsibility for Change*)

“Reason to” motivation refers to utility judgment in expectancy theory and is related to why and how people select and continue with specific goals, based on valence (Hirschi, Lee, Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2013; Parker et al., 2010; Vroom, 1964). The term can be based on theories related to why people engage in behavior or valence, such as “Do I want to do this?” or “Why should I act?” (Parker et al., 2010). Parker and colleagues (2010) investigated how the motivational state “reason to” can influence goals in their proactive motivational model. People who are more intrinsically motivated and find the task enjoyable and interesting will likely be more autonomous in their behavior. As a result, they are more likely to set and strive for organizational goals. “Reason to” motivation springs out from self-determination theory where an individual's proactive behavior is self-initiated and autonomous instead of externally regulated (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Similar to “reason to” motivation, is the concept of “felt responsibility for change”, which is defined as the belief of being personally committed to conducting constructive changes (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 407). Felt responsibility for change has been discussed as an important variable in research on employee behavior that entails risks (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996). This is in accordance with research by Graham (1986) who argued that the decision to respond to a problem is heavily dependent on the perceived responsibility. In comparison, Frese with colleagues (1996) discussed that felt responsibility relates to individual proactivity. It is important to state that their work is not precise about linking initiative-taking to felt responsibility. However, Morrison and Phelps (1999) argued that this effect is mediated both by judgments about likely outcomes and by judgments about likely success. From another point of view, the extent employees who have a sense of personal responsibility regarding the change will attach positive valence due to a sense of personal satisfaction and accomplishment (Frese et al., 1996; Graham, 1986). Employees with high felt responsibility may attach negative valence for not taking action when an opportunity arises (Graham, 1986).

### 2.3.3 “Energized to” Motivation (*Emotional Engagement*)

Parker et al. (2010) argue that an employee might introduce new work to conduct a task, because he or she enjoys his or her work so much, that improving its effectiveness is a part of “who he or she is”. The authors expect this “energized to” – pathway to be more general so that activated positive affect increases the striving towards being task adaptive and task proactive, regardless of the envisioned future state. Likewise, empowering leadership has been suggested to be important for emotional engagement, providing a clear “reason to” be both task adaptive and task proactive (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). This is supported by Grant and Ashford (2008), who argue that proactivity is an in-built emotional process represented by positive affect. An individual's positive affect is defined as: “Feelings of pleasure and of activation or deactivation, which are primitive, universal, and irreducible on the mental plane” (Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2010, p. 424). This includes emotions such as being excited, active, and enthusiastic, in contrast to deactivated positive affect which involves feelings such as being calm, relaxed, and content (Seo et al., 2010). As a result, emotional engagement will be an appropriate construct to reflect energized to motivation.

Empirically, Kahn (1990) described engagement as a unique and important motivational concept that refers to an employee’s full self in terms of physical, cognitive, and emotional energies to work-role performances. It is not just about the relationship between engagement and job performance, but in connection with the employee’s agentic self, and thus, engagement may provide a more detailed explanation of job performance. Emotional engagement reflects how intensely and persistently employees emotionally invest themselves in their roles (Kahn, 1990). It directly underlies the feeling and “connection” employees have towards their work and the people with whom they interact (Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). Even though job engagement also involves cognitive and physical components (Kahn, 1990), we focus on emotional engagement due to its relevance and capturing the affective experiential state (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). We will now present the three preconditions for emotional engagement identified by Kahn (1990):

The first precondition for emotional engagement is meaningfulness, which is the sense that one’s efforts are directed towards fruitful endeavors and likely to reap high returns (Kahn, 1990). The second precondition for emotional engagement is “feeling able to show and employ one’s self without fear of negative consequences” (Kahn, 1990, p. 708), which emanates from interpersonal interactions that make individuals feel supported, trusted and allowed to fail without any reprimand. The third precondition for emotional engagement is the

availability of resources. The energy and resources employees need to emotionally engage are available when they are not distracted by frustration, excessive demands, or insecurity, which generally arise from poor interpersonal interactions (Kahn, 1990). With that in mind, creating an environment where autonomy is provided by the leader, will probably foster a sense of emotional engagement at work (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012).

## **2.4 Proactive Personality**

Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 96) claimed that: “It remains an open question on how to best construct and measure individual differences in motivational readiness to work”. However, later research such as job characteristics theory suggests that proactive personality is probably to moderate the effectiveness of some work design characteristics (Parker et al., 2001; Parker & Turner, 2002). With this in mind, employees can purposely and directly change their current situation, including their social environments (Buss, 1987). Individual differences exist in people's tendency to take action for influencing their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). In this connection, Crant (2000) defined proactive personality as a behavioral tendency to identify opportunities to enact change and manipulate the environment to act on such changes. In comparison, Bateman and Crant (1993, p. 105) defined proactive personality as: “An individual that is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change. For example, employees that are identified to be proactive carry on until they bring out change (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). On this basis, “they take it upon themselves to have an impact upon the environment around them” (Seibert et al., 1999, p. 417). In contrast, employees who are not proactive tend to be passive and therefore will rather adapt to the work-situation instead of changing it (Crant, 2000, p. 439).

In research, proactive personality literature includes the trait component of personal initiative (Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004). It contains several characteristics such as: having a long-term focus, being consistent with the mission, focusing on goals, self-starting, proactive, and being persistent towards barriers (Frese et al., 1996). Due to this research, several findings shows that proactive personality initiates positive outcomes such as job performance (Thompson, 2005), career success (Seibert et al., 2001), and charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000). Proactive people tend to be more self-initiated and future-oriented in their actions, and therefore, aim to change and improve the situation or themselves (Parker et al., 2006). Grant and Ashford (2008) emphasized that productivity is not just a set of behaviors, but also a process which involves anticipating, planning, and striving to have an impact on the particular task.



Due to the importance of understanding the performance dimension of proactive personality, an exploration of moderators of employee empowerment has been searched for by many scholars (Spreitzer, 1995). However, later research shows that individual characteristics claims to influence the relationship between social structural factors and empowerment. For instance, Spreitzer (1995) suggested that empowerment manifests a proactive orientation towards the job. Employees who have a strong tendency to act upon the environment will be expected to interpret a social structure that provides this opportunity as empowering. Additionally, researchers have argued that people with proactive personalities tend to perform better than those who are passive (Crant, 1995). Thus, we believe that proactive personality fundamentally reflects a personal willingness and responsibility for constructive change.

## **2.5 Social Leader-Member Exchange**

According to the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, supervisors develop a distinctive exchange relationship with their followers (Liden & Graen, 1980). These relations are assumed to fit on a scale from low to high, focusing on the strength of the relationship. Economic leader-member exchange (ELMX) is the first dimension and is used to denote low-quality relationships (Kuvaas et al., 2012). The theory applies qualities such as economic, transactional, contractual, out-group and instrumental and is often used to point to low-quality relationships where both the supervisor and the subordinate expect direct reciprocity characterized by a short-term economic exchange of behaviors (Goodwin, Bowler, & Whittington, 2009; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). For instance, a subordinate can go beyond the call of duty, but not unless he or she knows exactly what to get in an immediate return (Kuvaas et al., 2012). ELMX-relationships is regarded as little beneficial for employee performance due to its short-term perspective (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016).

On the other hand, social leader-member exchange (SLMX) is the opposite dimension. This theory uses social-, relational-, and in-group qualities associated with high-quality relationships where long-term reciprocity is recognized as the norm (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). An easier explanation is that: the exchanges between managers and followers are based on feelings of diffuse commitments, and not a need for immediate “pay off” (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). SLMX-relationships has been found to positively correlate with job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and lower turnover intentions (Buch, 2015; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Ilies, Nahrgang, &

Morgeson, 2007; Kuvaas et al., 2012; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). It is regarded as more beneficial to performance, as the reciprocity exchange, influence members to go beyond their line of work (Buch, 2015; Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2011).

Despite the extensive literature on LMX, researchers have argued that previous research on LMX has not taken into account that social and economic exchanges have different qualities (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). As a result of this statement, Kuvaas et al. (2012) ran an exploratory study where they conceptualized LMX relationships as relationships with different qualities, instead of having different levels of quality. By looking at the two constructs separately, rather than as opposite ends of a continuum, one may be able to capture more of the essential characteristics as well as their relationship with other variables.

Due to the description above, this paper will exclude the variable of ELMX due to its poor accomplishment on work performance. Instead, the paper will focus on the construct of a high-quality exchange relationship. We argue that SLMX provides a logical influence between managerial actions such as empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy, felt responsibility for change and emotional engagement.

## **2.6 Summary of Literature Review**

Given the gaps in research and our literature review, the purpose of this paper is to deeply understand how leaders foster or hinder adaptive performance through empowering behavior. Based on the previous studies, we assume that the concept of empowering leadership developed by Ahearne et al. (2015) is related to Griffin et al's. (2007) task adaptivity and task proactivity variables. Empowering leadership is also assumed to influence the employees' change-oriented motivational states. As a result, we believe that the change-oriented motivational states will mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. While previous researchers have extensively examined the antecedents and processes underlying adaptivity and proactivity (B. S. Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; Ployhart & Bliese, 2006; Pulakos et al., 2000, 2002), no study to our knowledge has yet considered how proactive personality and SLMX have moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and the change-oriented motivational states. In order to further understand the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity, the following research question has been formulated:

*What is the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity, and in which way can change related self-efficacy, felt responsibility*

*for change, and emotional engagement mediate the relationship? Moreover, how will proactive personality and social leader-member exchange moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and the three mediators?*

### **3.0 Theory and Hypotheses**

#### **3.1 Empowering Leadership and Task Adaptivity/Proactivity**

According to Burke et al. (2006), it is crucial to take adaptive and proactive behaviors into account in leadership, particularly regarding performance indicators faced by employees. Focusing on the current situation and how they make changes in attitudes and behavior may increase their credibility. Researchers have emphasized the importance of the relationship between leadership style and adaptive and proactive behaviors. Howell and Shamir (2005) investigated and discovered that leadership behavior influences an employees' adaptive performance in how they create an empowering environment, where the leader foster proactivity and adaptivity. However, if the leadership style does not contribute to adaptive and proactive behavior, people can experience contrasting challenges and problems in their achievement of goals and objectives (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015).

Empowered subordinates can choose suitable approaches to handle the changing situations around producing new products, as they have control over their work (Wall, Cordery, & Clegg, 2002). For instance, Moon et al. (2004) discussed how team members could adapt their roles to align with their environment when they had a clear understanding of goals and visions. Leadership empowerment will also provide employees to take action that is self-governing to adjust and deal with unforeseeable situations efficiently. Further, it will shift their focus when necessary, despite inherent uncertainty and ambiguity in the situation (Han & Williams, 2008). Another study by Ahearne et al. (2005), found that empowerment behavior from leaders increased the adaptability for those who had little experience and knowledge. This is confirmed by Al-Asoufi and Akhorshaideh (2017), who found that organizations that have empowering leaders also had employees that were more prone to accepting and adapting to changes. Furthermore, they found that the empowerment of employees also reduces resistance to change and help them accept the participation of new initiatives carried out.

In line with the adaptivity and proactivity approach, empowering leadership is also important for employee task proactivity in changing work situations (De Jong, Jong, De Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2004). This is related to Crant's (2000) research, who revealed that the

more employees perceive autonomy, the more they are proactive in work situations. Employees that feel a sense of empowerment have been found to regularly take actions and solving problems by proactively change the way work is performed (Wellins, 1991). In comparison, empowered employees have been found to take charge when they sense a personal responsibility for bringing out a change (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Moreover, proactive behavior arises from situational factors such as work-climate, structure and policies (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). It showed that a supportive climate and an environment that consists of high levels of self-management were related to employee proactivity.

Based on the discussion above, leadership empowerment can be considered as a construct that stimulates subordinates to go beyond their formal work roles by fostering task adaptivity and task proactivity (Xue, Bradley, & Liang, 2011).

### **3.2 Mediator 1: “Can Do” Motivation (Change-Related Self-Efficacy)**

#### *3.2.1 Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy*

Arnold and colleagues (2000) found that empowering leadership enables the employees to feel a higher level of self-efficacy and control. In particular, the employees may feel more power and ability to influence the organization, and as a result, have more freedom to be flexible (Arnold et al., 2000). A higher level of self-efficacy has been found to increase the possibility to engage and remain in task-related behavior (Bandura, 1977; Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Bandura (1986) identified that one can increase self-efficacy through positive emotional support, words of encouragement, positive persuasion, models of success with whom people identify and the experience of mastering a task. Consequently, when leaders engage in such empowering behavior, the employees can feel more successful in their job, as it results in higher levels of self-efficacy (Cheong, Spain, Yammarino, & Yun, 2016). Building on this research, a higher level of self-efficacy may lead to increased work role performance such as task proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity (Murphy & Jackson, 1999). Having clear work roles, being adaptive, and proactive has been found to contribute to effectiveness in facing, coping, and engaging in changes (Griffin et al., 2007).

#### *3.2.2 Change-Related Self-Efficacy and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity*

Changing a demanding situation proactively at work will probably cause an increase in psychological risk (Parker et al., 2010). Therefore, employees need to feel that they have the ability to initiate the change and then deal with the consequences. Task proactivity concerns using one’s initiative and taking charge to improve tasks, which can often be met by

resistance and skepticism from others (Parker et al., 2010). In contrast, task adaptivity refers to how employees deal with task changes that are initiated by external factors (Griffin et al., 2007). A belief that one can be successful in performing a task, is most likely to be important for being both task adaptive and task proactive at work. Individuals need to feel confident, that they can both initiate proactive goals and adapt to the situation at hand (Parker et al., 2010). Therefore, we argue that change-related self-efficacy is positively related to task adaptivity and task proactivity.

Empirically, this is supported by Strauss et al. (2015) who argued that adaptivity provides employees with the critical resources needed to be proactive during organizational changes. How an individual perceives to successfully cope with changes can encourage them to initiate the change itself. Furthermore, self-efficacy will provide the employee with a perceived ability to perform a task (Bandura, 1986). There is also evidence that being able to adapt to changes increases an individual's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In particular, it is an important antecedent of proactivity (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Parker et al., 2006). Strauss et al. (2015) suggested that adaptivity enhances employees' change-related self-efficacy which further contributes to proactivity (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, & Lawrence, 2001). Employees with higher change-related self-efficacy tend to be more ready towards changes and contributes more than the opposite (Cunningham et al., 2002). Similarly, Neves (2009) found that self-efficacy can be explained as a "ready for change" state. This, in turn, leads individuals working towards the change which further contributes to organizational success.

From research, we know that individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to engage more in their tasks, show proactive behavior, and persist obstacles (Chebat & Kollias, 2000). Researchers have found that empowered employees tend to have more flexibility, be more open towards change, and are more willing to adapt (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Based on the theory, individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to be more open and ready for changes that can relate to task adaptivity and task proactivity. Therefore, we assume that change-related self-efficacy positively influence the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity, and task proactivity. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1.** Change-related self-efficacy mediates a positive relationship between empowering leadership and a) task adaptivity and b) task proactivity.

### **3.3 Mediator 2: “Reason to” Motivation (Felt Responsibility for Change)**

#### *3.3.1 Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change*

Felt responsibility for change reflects in what degree an individual feels personally responsible for generating improvement towards the change (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Parker et al., 2006). Concerning empowering leadership, providing autonomy will likely increase the feeling of responsibility and, provide the employee with the motivation of taking charge (Carless, 2004; Hsieh & Chao, 2004). This is discussed by Morrison and Phelps (1999) who argued that employees take charge when they sense a personal responsibility for bringing out a change. Researchers have also suggested that the way the job is designed may enhance the level of effort towards a task (Parker & Turner, 2002). Also, more job autonomy may increase the level of performance due to the increased feeling of responsibility (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

When leaders empower the employees, it can lead to several positive outcomes. However, if the employee sense role ambiguity, uncertainty in their organizational fit, and lack of information about their role and responsibilities, it may not enhance their felt responsibility towards the change (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). In this case, the empowerment of employees with role ambiguity may have the opposite effect (Fuller et al., 2006).

However, when employees feel empowered and included in the organizational decisions, they might feel important. As a result, employees are more likely to have an increased level of felt responsibility, due to their role acceptance (Cummings & Anton, 1990) or role responsibility (Gibson & Schroeder, 2003); therefore, employees will feel an increased responsibility to act in ways that enhance the organizational performance (Gibson & Schroeder, 2003; Hamilton, 1978).

#### *3.3.2 Felt Responsibility for Change and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity*

Proactivity and adaptivity can be defined as separate forms of behavior – but they may also be interrelated. In particular, how one initiates or creates change (proactivity) can be shaped by responses to a change (adaptivity) (Berg, Wrzensniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Griffin et al., 2007). Proactive behaviors may require more or less adaptive efforts as well. Thus, proactive behavior can benefit from attending the adaptive actions that are required for proactive actions to happen (Berg et al., 2010). People need to understand the value of being both proactive and adaptive to improve work methods and achieve a different future (Parker et al., 2010). For example, when goals are being placed on employees by others, there is

already a “reason to” accomplish the goal. However, for self-initiated goals, the achievement is uncertain, and reaching the goal is not related to the reward itself (Griffin et al., 2007). In such situations, individuals need to have a stronger internal force that drives them towards proactive and adaptive behavior. It is therefore suggested that the desire to reach future goals is stronger than how feasible it is (Lieberman & Trope, 1998). Thus, “reason to” motivation is important in relation to proactive behaviors, especially for a long-term perspective.

Fuller et al. (2006) also suggest a similar concept, felt responsibility, to reflect individuals’ values that are relevant to change, accordingly, predict proactive behavior. Autonomous motivation, which includes intrinsic, integrated, and identified forms contributes a reason to engage in changes that could make the future different. Intrinsic motivation was found to be the most powerful motivational form, due to its performance when tasks are regarded as interesting. However, when the tasks are not interesting, autonomous extrinsic motivation has been found to give better performance (Koestner & Losier, 2002). Several researchers (e.g. Frese et al., 1996; Graham, 1986; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) have suggested that proactive behavior is a result of a strong sense of responsibility. According to Morrison and Phelps (1999), people who feel responsible for change will also likely engage in proactive behavior as they view it as feasible and attractive, thus, provide a feeling of accomplishment and personal satisfaction. Fuller et al. (2006) suggested that people who feel more responsible towards changes are more motivated to analyze work-related information. On these grounds, research proposes that individuals who are accountable for their decisions and attitudes tend to be able to develop a deeper understanding of their adaptive and proactive responsibilities during changes (McAllister, Mitchell, & Beach, 1979; Tetlock, 1983). According to Isen and Reeve (2005), positive employees that are engaged in their work exhibit more in responsible behavior. Felt responsibility for change has been found to predict taking charge behavior, which makes it likely to predict proactive behavior (Zhang, Law, & Lin, 2016). An individual’s felt responsibility may vary and be unpredictable as a result of a changing environment with a lot of uncertainty. Therefore, individuals also are required to show adaptivity, to be able to react (Griffin et al., 2007; Pulakos et al., 2000).

In accordance with the research, felt responsibility can positively increase the possibility to be responsible towards tasks, behavior, and future, and thereby, exhibit more task proactivity and task adaptivity. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 2.** Felt responsibility for change mediates a positive relationship between empowering leadership and a) task adaptivity and b) task proactivity.

### **3.4 Mediator 3: “Energized to” Motivation (Emotional Engagement)**

#### *3.4.1 Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement*

The term “emotional engagement” is not deeply investigated, especially in relation to empowerment and task adaptivity/task proactivity. Hence, emotional engagement is based on a job engagement theory, originally developed by Kahn (1990) (Rich et al., 2010). According to Tuckey et al. (2012), empowering leadership can stimulate work engagement as they help employees to meet the basic needs for self-determination or control (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Empowering leadership behaviors can influence the employees’ engagement by shaping the work environment by optimizing their conditions in relation to job demands and job resources (Burke et al., 2006; Tuckey et al., 2012). The research conducted by Tuckey and colleagues (2012) found empowering leadership to directly inspire work engagement in employees. Leaders who empower employees by delegation, encourage independent actions, and support their self-development, received an increased engagement among the employees.

Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron, and Hom (2018) argue that the use of inspirational appeals contributes to employee loyalty through increased emotional engagement. Inspirational appeals refer to employees’ values, goals, and aspirations (Reina et al., 2018, p. 7). Similarly, empowering leadership focuses on supporting, leading by example, informing and showing concern (Arnold et al., 2000). When leaders use inspirational appeals towards the employees, they are more likely to sense the stronger meaningfulness of their work. As a result, the employees can understand the benefit of investing time and energy to the task and then be encouraged to reach the desired goals (Bass, 1985). In this way, leaders promote greater emotional engagement among the employees as they emotionally invest themselves in performing meaningful tasks and achieve valuable goals (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

#### *3.4.2 Emotional Engagement and Task Adaptivity / Task Proactivity*

Parker et al. (2010) focus on how positive affect can affect the setting of, and striving for, the completion of tasks. In particular, they discuss how “energized to”, or in this case, emotional engagement shall enhance the probability that individuals are desired for setting and completing goals. In comparison, evidence from behavioral studies shows that positive affect influences a broad range of cognitive processes. For instance, positive affect increases flexibility helps to overcome cognitive fixedness, improves the ability to solving problems, and increases variety-seeking among safe alternatives (Dreisbach, 2006). Together, these theories support the assumption that emotional engagement increases cognitive flexibility. On



these grounds, we identify emotional engagement as the key to influencing the employees' ability to be both task adaptive and task proactive.

Parker et al. (2010) also describe how cognitive broadening and flexibility, that comes with emotional engagement, will create better ways of dealing with upcoming problems for the employee. Such problems can be that an employee needs to adapt to organizational changes or need to proactively find new ways to conduct work tasks. Likewise, Carnevale and Isen (1986) discuss that employees will pursue win-win outcomes to problem-solving because they are more capable to seek new possibilities, to think innovatively, and to have a flexible mind concerning trade-offs. Viewed from another perspective, Eldor and Harpaz (2016) found that employees who engage in positive emotions, such as enthusiasm and inspiration, are more likely to become more innovative and adaptive in their work. Moreover, engaged employees experience positive emotions that broaden their thoughts and actions, compared to the unengaged ones (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Studies shows that positive emotions increase employees' openness to new experiences at work (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). For instance, inspiration promotes the urge to be more sensitive to opportunities at work (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001), while enthusiasm increases the willingness to explore and absorb new information and experiences (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005).

Similarly, Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) found that it is a positive relationship between work engagement and self-reported personal initiative, connected to managers. Likewise, work engagement was found to increase innovative work behaviors (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2006). This was confirmed by Hartog and Belschak (2007), who found increased levels of a personal initiative at work, if they were in a positive-emotional engagement. As a result, we argue that emotionally engaged employees are more likely than others to be both task adaptive and task proactive during workplace changes.

According to Kahn (1990), engagement reflects the investment of cognitive, emotional, and physical energies that is present in the full performance of a role. On this basis, we expect that giving the employees more autonomy, support, and authority through empowering leadership will result in an increase in perceived meaningfulness among them. Therefore, this will result in increased motivation and emotional engagement in their work. Accordingly, we hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 3.** Emotional engagement mediates a positive relationship between empowering leadership and a) task adaptivity and b) task proactivity.

### **3.5 Moderator 1: “Proactive Personality”**

#### *3.5.1 Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy*

Research on workplace behavior has consistently revealed that proactive personality is both stable and closely connected to self-efficacy (Lin, Lu, Chen, & Chen, 2014; Parker et al., 2010). According to social cognitive theory, self-efficacy refers to an individual’s belief or judgment in terms of their capability to succeed at, or to carry out, particular activities or tasks (Bandura, 1986). In the setting of organizational change, change-related self-efficacy is described as an individual’s perceived ability to function well in their work role, even with the demands of a changing work environment (Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

Crant (2002) state that a proactive personality is a stable trait across activities and situations. As a result, proactive personality could be understood from several situations and is unrelated to context. However, the existence of research on proactive personality and change-related situations is limited (Lin et al., 2014). Apart from a direct relationship between change-related self-efficacy and proactive personality, empirical research shows that proactive personality has an impact on various motivational states. In particular, empirical evidence shows an increase in self-efficacy (Bindl & Parker, 2011), role-breadth self-efficacy, flexible role orientation (Parker et al., 2006), and job-search self-efficacy (Brown, Cober, Kane, & Shalhoop, 2006). The model of proactive motivation developed by Parker (2010) also shows that proactive personality positively affects self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2010). This is in line with Lent, Brown, and Gore Jr.'s (1997) research, who discussed how personality traits affect the establishment of self-efficacy beliefs. In particular, individuals with high proactive personalities are relatively unconstrained by situational forces and have a higher amount of self-efficacy concerning changes at work.

On these grounds, we predict an individual’s proactive personality to positively moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 4.** Proactive personality positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy, such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when proactive personality is high.

### *3.5.2 Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change*

Proactive personality is the most well-known individual-difference variable discussed in the organizational behavior literature (Goller, 2017). The most well-known theory used to understand felt responsibility is job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). However, the theory is implausible to provide a sufficient explanation of felt responsibility for change (Fuller et al., 2006). This is because the theory by Hackman and Oldham only focuses on motivating the employee to ‘work harder,’ rather than motivating for proactive engagement in the role (Parker & Turner, 2002). However, a proactive mentality and the tendency to go beyond what is formally required was linked to felt responsibility for change early on (Frese et al., 1996). Employees with high proactive personality are described as individuals that are “relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who affect environmental change and take it upon themselves to have an impact on the world around them” (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 104). Morrison and Phelps (1999) regarded this statement as fundamental for operationalizing the construct of felt responsibility for constructive change. As a result of this operationalization, Fuller et al. (2006) argued that proactive personality is a necessary antecedent for felt responsibility for change. Particularly, their research showed that proactive individuals were more likely to achieve a state of felt responsibility at work. Fuller et al.’s (2006) statement is supported by Parker and Collins (2010). They found that there is a relationship between proactive personality and felt responsibility for change. Parker and Collins (2006) are further nuanced by Tornau and Frese (2013), which states that employees which had the mindset of taking charge of their work tasks also had a felt responsibility for changing their work in the same path. Consequently, this indicates that proactive personality relates to “reason to” motivation.

Therefore, we predict that proactive personality will positively moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 5.** Proactive personality positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when proactive personality is high.

### *3.5.3 Proactive Personality and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement*

“Energized to” motivation is identified to be an important factor for proactive behavior. The emotions may function as an approach or avoidance of energizers in motivational systems and activate positive emotions towards proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2010). In this connection, proactive individuals are likely to achieve positive outcomes at work through their emotional engagement. Emotional engagement is defined as a motivational state considering how intensely and persistently employees emotionally invest themselves in their roles (Kahn, 1990). Empirically, the construct is regarded as an important factor for performance (Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Parker et al., 2010).

We argue that proactive personality relates to emotional engagement due to the fact that proactive individuals create resources through proactive behaviors and thus are more likely to be emotionally engaged at work. This fits with research from Cooper-Thomas, Paterson, Stadler, and Saks (2014), who stated that proactive behaviors are associated with increased employee engagement. Similarly, Li, Fay, Frese, Harms, and Gao (2014) found that a proactive mindset increases job control and supervisory support. As a result, proactive personality is likely to foster emotional engagement through proactively seeking new ways to do the work tasks (Wang, Zhang, Thomas, Yu, & Spitzmueller, 2017). This is supported by Bakker et al. (2012) who argued that proactive personality was an important predictor of work behavior through its influence on employee engagement. Accordingly, we state that proactive personality moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional engagement. Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 6.** Proactive personality positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional engagement such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when proactive personality is high.

### **3.6 Moderator 2: “Social Leader-Member Exchange”**

#### *3.6.1 SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Related Self-Efficacy*

Unlike leader behavior which focusing on increase perceived self-efficacy (Natanovich & Eden, 2001), does leader-member exchange (LMX) as a leadership construct, especially focusing on high-quality LMX. By looking at the research from Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), a high amount of leader-member exchange includes support for the individual subordinate. In consideration of the self-efficacy theory, this means that a leader who has established a high amount of leader-member exchange will be able to increase the employees' change-related self-efficacy by supporting and encouraging them towards the change (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Schyns, 2001). To look at this from another perspective, Portoghese, Galletta, Battistelli, and Leiter (2015) investigated the moderating effect of leader-member exchange on the relationship between job characteristics, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Specifically, they found that high-quality LMX increased the effects of autonomy, task variety, task significance, and task identity on job satisfaction (Portoghese et al., 2015). By looking at the construct of job satisfaction, Leithwood and Jantzi (2005), found that employees who feel satisfied at work tend to have higher self-efficacy compared to the unsatisfied ones. Similarly, research from Schyns and Von Collani (2002) found that high satisfaction with the superior increase the employee self-efficacy through encouragement and support. This is in accordance with the research conducted by Akomolafe and Ogunmakin (2014), who found a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and self-efficacy.

To look at change-related self-efficacy from another perspective: it is assumed that members working in teams that have high consensus get help from each other and feel supported by their manager are related to the construct of high-quality LMX (Tyler & Blader, 2001). Studies shows that support and high consensus between the organizational members, also leads to higher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Thus, we expect that social leader-member exchange enhances the change-related self-efficacy perceived by employees. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 7.** Social LMX positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when social LMX is high.

### *3.6.2 SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Felt Responsibility for Change*

In high LMX relationships the exchanges are more social, involving mutual respect, affection, support, loyalty, and felt obligation (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). The favorable treatment the follower receives from the leader leads to feelings of obligation to 'payback' by working hard. In addition, the positive social exchanges between the leader and follower increase feelings of affection towards the leader, which further motivates followers to want to meet a leader's work demands (Martin et al., 2016). Therefore, we believe that the construct of SLMX will increase the felt responsibility for change when the leader is empowering their employees.

Empirically, Portoghese et al. (2015) found that high-quality LMX increased the effects of autonomy. By looking at the enhanced effect of autonomy, Hackman and Oldham (1980) stated that as job autonomy increases, employees increasingly believe that their work product is a function of their own decisions and effort, and as a result feel an increased personal responsibility for their work outcomes. This could be related to those employees who feel that they are responsible for the particular change. This was investigated by Parker et al. (1997) which found that high job autonomy was positively related to the extent that employees feel responsible for problems and goals beyond their immediate individual tasks. Based on the information gathered, we claim that felt responsibility for change will increase if the leader-member exchange is perceived as high. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 8.** Social LMX positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when social LMX is high.

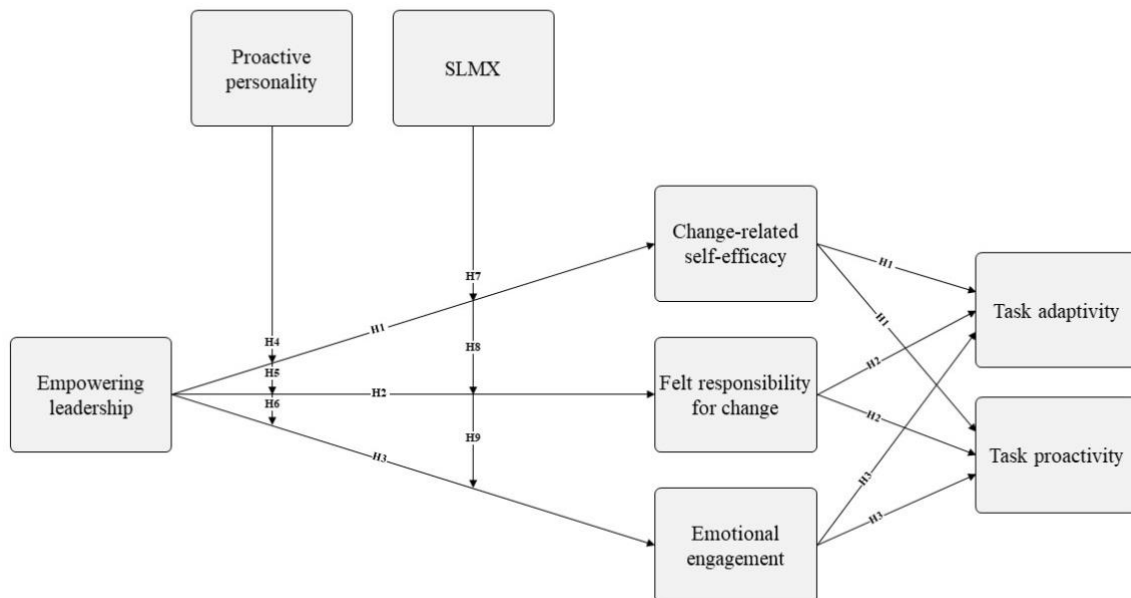
### *3.6.3 SLMX and the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Emotional Engagement*

Finally, by taking the variable of emotional engagement, LMX theory assumes that leaders build sustainable social and interactive relationships with members that promote engagement at work (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Moreover, other researchers have suggested that supervisors are more willing to give timely feedback and appropriate rewards to those members that they have developed an interactive and social relationship with (Liden et al.,

1997). Consequently, it inspires and motivates employees which improves their work engagement (Jordan & Troth, 2011).

However, a high-quality LMX environment, employees are inspired by their good relationship with leaders, which increases their inspiration and engagement towards work. Walumbwa, Cropanzano, and Hartnell (2009) suggested that a high-quality LMX environment promotes trust, loyalty, and respect between leaders and members, which again increases the employees' motivation and work involvement. Several researchers have built their research on social exchange theory for examining the causal effect of LMX on emotional engagement (Saks, 2006). For example, Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, and McNamara (2005) found that when a leader provides growth opportunities and treats all the employees fairly at work, they reciprocate with a high level of work commitment and citizenship behavior. Thus, we assume that an environment that consists of SLMX will increase the emotional engagement among their employees. Accordingly, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 9.** Social LMX positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and emotional engagement such that the positive, mediated relationship between these variables and a) task adaptivity/b) task proactivity is stronger when social LMX is high.



**Figure 1.** Research Model

## 4.0 Methodology

To test our research model and the relationships specified, we executed a quantitative data analysis. Quantitative methods are objective measurements or statistics, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collection that are collected through surveys, polls, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data. It focuses on gathering numerical data and generalizing it across different groups of people or explain a phenomenon. In the quantitative method, one tends to determine a relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable within a population (Babbie, 2010). In general, it can be characterized as a linear, deductive process where we move from theory to findings and conclusions. With the quantitative method, we can collect a large amount of data, and as a result, we can measure and compare the different variables with different analyses. We saw the quantitative method as the most appropriate method for answering our research question and the following hypotheses. We wanted to collect a greater amount of data to be able to see the variation. As a result, the quantitative method was more appropriate to use, compared to the qualitative method (Bell, Brymann, & Harley, 2011). Qualitative methods emphasize the qualities of entities and on processes and meanings which are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, or frequency. It stresses the social aspect of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is being studied, and what situational factors that shape inquiry. In qualitative methods, one searches for answers on how social experience is created and gives meaning (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). For our data collection, we used a cross-sectional research design, which refers to the use of data collected at a single point in time with two or more variables (Bell et al., 2011). This allowed us to investigate numerous characteristics and relationships among different variables. However, due to the paper's time frame and that COVID-19 had its outbreak during the development of the literature review, we had to perform a cross-sectional study. It describes how things happen in the present moment, and not over time like longitudinal studies which require investigations over an extended period. Some advantages of cross-sectional studies are that you collect a lot of information quickly, see differences in gender, age, educational level, and income, in addition, to inspire towards future research. However, a challenge with this type of study is that other variables may affect the relationship between the inferred cause and outcomes (Cherry, 2019).



## 4.1 Procedure

When we developed the survey, COVID-19 had its breakout. We were concerned if we were able to reach a sufficient number of the respondents and collect enough data. Based on the COVID-19 situation that affected the entire population, we did not know what the consequences would be to our data collection. First, we planned to collect data in two phases and collect the respondents' email addresses to match the data. If this was the case, we had to register our survey within the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) due to the protection of personal data and get approval before we distributed the survey. Due to time constraints to collect data, we were stressed over a possible long processing time at NSD, as we wanted to get our survey out as soon as possible. In order to save time and avoid possible problems with our data collection, we designed the survey without collecting any personal data that could be traced. We ensured to select "anonymize response" in the survey options so that Qualtrics did not collect any IP addresses. In addition, we did not ask for any personal information such as e-mail addresses, names, or geographical locations, etc.

Finally, the data was collected electronically through a survey administered in Qualtrics (see Appendix 1). The survey was standardized as all the participants received the same questions and information. The participants were informed about our confidential treatment of their responses and that participation was voluntary. To analyze our data in a good way, we collected some background information from the respondents. This information was for instance: gender, age, level of education, industry, job position, seniority, and length with the closest leader (see appendix 1 for all measures). Collecting this information would help us create a better picture of our respondents, draw different conclusions, and see different correlations and relationships. Gender, level of education, industry, and job position are measured in categorical variables. While age, seniority, and length with the closest leader are measured in years using an interval scale. Finally, the items concerning the industry of works are slightly adapted from the Standard Industrial Classification developed by SSB (Ahilathasan, 2009).

## 4.2 Sample

Since we were not able to ask every employee in Norway due to our timeframe and resources, we had to select the respondents from a sample. A sample survey is defined as "a study involving a subset (or sample) of individuals selected from a larger population" (Levy & Lemeshow, 2008, p. 3). Due to the COVID-19 situation, we found it most appropriate to collect data through snowball sampling (Goodman, 1961). This was done by sharing the

survey with our network, where people further shared it with their network. According to Evans and Mathur (2005), some advantages and disadvantages follow with snowball sampling. The advantages could be that it is very time-efficient, and the participants may answer it at a convenient time. It has low costs due to their self-administration and can reach a great number of participants in a short amount of time. On the other hand, disadvantages could be selection bias, due to the fact that we may only reach a limited amount or group of people within a population. In addition, as the survey is voluntary, we might only attract proactive participants. Some respondents may also lack digital experience, and thus, have difficulties with understanding the instructions. A result could then be that the answers and findings are unclear (Evans & Mathur, 2005). These limitations may challenge the validation and quality of our data. However, we were able to spread the survey, collect data effectively, and reach a sufficient number of respondents, despite the challenges with COVID-19. For the reason that snowball sampling is about selecting and sharing the survey with accessible people, everyone might not have the same and equal opportunity to participate. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized to a greater population of Norwegian employees (Mackey & Gass, 2015). To reduce such sample bias and common method bias, collecting data over several waves could solve that problem. However, as the sample size increases, the statistical power could also increase (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016).

### **4.3 Participants**

We received 430 responses to the Qualtrics survey developed for the study. However, after some data cleaning which we will elaborate on later, we were left with 307 responses. Among the 307 participants, our final dataset consisted of 170 (55,4%) women and 137 (44,6%) men. Most of them are under the age of 29 years old (N=106, 34,5%) or between the age of 50-59 (N=91, 29,6%). Otherwise, 40-49 years follows (N=54, 17,6%), then 30-39 years (N= 44, 14,3%), and lastly 60-69 years (N=12, 3,9%). These are the expected numbers in relation to our sampling method. Our friends and family are both in the categories under 29 years old or 50-59 years old. With regards to education, 97 (31,6%) had completed high school, 145 (47,2%) had achieved a bachelor's degree, while 63 (20,5%) had achieved a master's degree. Interestingly enough, most of our respondents had worked in their organizations for more than 10 years (N=88, 28,7%), followed by those who had worked in their organization for less than a year (N=60, 19,5%). Most of our respondents had worked less than a year (N=112, 36,5%) or 1-2 years (N=92, 30%) with their closest leader, while 47 (15,3%) answered 3-5 years, 28 (9,1%) answered more than 10 years, and 26 (8,5%)

answered 6-10 years. Finally, we tried to identify the position they held and which industry they worked in. We found that most of them had worked as a manager/project manager (N=80, 26,1%) or as a consultant/advisor (N=67, 21,8%), followed by sales/customer service (N=41, 13,4%). However, there was 19,5% (N=60) that had answered “Other” which may indicate that our options did not cover all positions. We can see the same issue in the industry, where most of the respondents answered “Other” (N=68, 22,1%). Otherwise, 41 (13,4%) worked in retail, and 32 (10,4%) worked in business services. Furthermore, we identified types of changes respondents had gone through in the context of COVID-19 (See appendix 1 of all items). Among 14 options we highlight three of the most important for our paper. Of our 307 respondents in total, 236 answered that they had home office, 183 answered that they had found new ways of collaborating with other colleagues, and 127 had used new technology to perform their work tasks. This provided us with an explanation that COVID-19 temporarily changed the way we worked.

#### **4.4 Measures**

Earlier research and already established measures and items on our concepts are used in this study. It was selected on relevance and accuracy in relation to our hypotheses. The items had already been tested and had a known quality of reliability and validity. The findings were therefore easier to compare (Bryman & Bell, 2011). However, there was an exception regarding the questions concerning the background. All the scale items were rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). We used strongly-disagree and strongly-agree on all the measures besides task adaptivity and task proactivity, where we used scale points ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). This was due to the fact that the last two measures were measuring how often the respondents engaged in the behavior in the past three months. By having the scale from 1-5, we were able to find a possible variation in our data. We also had this scale, so that the respondents could be neutral to questions by having three as the middle number. All the items and scales are presented in appendix 2.

#### *4.4.1 Types of Organizational Change*

As the survey was developed in general terms and not customized into a specific organization, we developed a variable concerning different types of organizational change. The items were adapted from Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2018) research about crafting change. The intention of this question was to identify types of changes to make our explanation of our sample and findings more comprehensive.

#### *4.4.2 Independent Variable: Empowering Leadership*

To measure empowering leadership, we used four multi-item subscales from Ahearne et al. (2005) which addressed the enhancing meaningfulness of work, fostering participation in decision making, expressing confidence in high performance, and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints. These scales were originally developed by the conceptual work of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and the empirical work of Hui (1994) and Thomas and Tymon (1994).

#### *4.4.3 Moderator Variables*

Proactive Personality was measured by a ten-item measure from Seibert et al. (1999). These items were a shortened version of Bateman and Crant's 17-item Proactive Personality Scale. Social LMX was measured by a four-item scale, adapted from Kuvaas et al. (2012). Kuvaas et al. (2012) developed and adapted their measures from a 16-item scale that was originally developed by Shore et al. (2006).

#### *4.4.4 Mediator Variables*

Change-related self-efficacy was measured by a four-item measure from Wanberg and Banas (2000). Two of the items are reverse scored due to their negative wording. This was considered as a context-specific variable which was originally developed by Ashford (1988). Felt responsibility for change was measured by using five items adapted from Morrison and Phelps (1999). It also includes one item that is reverse-scored. Next, emotional engagement was measured with four items adapted from Rich and colleagues' (2010) measure of job engagement. This study was based on the conceptualization of job engagement that was developed by Kahn (1990).

#### *4.4.5 Dependent Variables: Task Adaptivity and Task Proactivity*

Our dependent variables task adaptivity and task proactivity were measured by a five and four item-scale that was slightly adapted from Griffin et al. (2007).

#### **4.5 Pre-test of Measurement Items**

Before the execution of data collection, we performed a pre-test of the measurement items to see if any questions were vague or confusing. We investigated whether the questions gave us the value we expected. The goal of the pre-testing was to improve construct validity and reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2011). We pre-tested the survey on five individuals, and the result was that all of them thought that the survey was easy to understand and well designed. We also verified that the data in Qualtrics gave us an indication that the survey worked as supposed. As a result, the survey was distributed to our target-respondents. Their responses will not be included in the final dataset.

#### **4.6 Data Preparations and Data Cleaning**

We had to do some preparations and data cleaning in SPSS before we started doing the analysis. Initially, we started out with 430 responses that were exported from Qualtrics. Then, we looked into whether our respondents were careless or careful respondents. First, we looked into the respondent's duration time. We identified several careless participants who had used an abnormally long or improbable short amount of time. Based on experience, we used approximately five minutes (240 seconds) on average to complete the survey. We assume that some respondents are faster, while others are slower. Therefore, we decided to set four minutes as a minimum amount of time needed to read the items, choose the appropriate response option, and complete the survey. The trustworthiness of the responders who have used less than four minutes on the whole survey may be doubted, and thus, removed from the survey (Huang et al., 2012). At the other end of the scale, some had used over an hour and even several days to complete the survey. Their trustworthiness was doubted, and we decided to remove seven respondents that had used an abnormal amount of time. All in all, we ended up removing 94 respondents.

Secondly, we wanted to include the respondents who contributed to the whole survey, and not only parts of it. We, therefore, looked into the progression status, where we identified another 20 careless respondents who had not completed the whole survey. As a result, we removed additionally 20 respondents from the data.

Thirdly, after a deep dive into the dataset, we identified several careless respondents where for instance "strongly agree" was used abnormally many times through the survey. We expected careful respondents to choose more different options for different items. No response variability may indicate lack of effort put into the survey. If a respondent had used the same answers for several items, their responses could be questionable and influence the

reliability of the data (DeSimone, Harms, & DeSimone, 2015). Based on this information, we identified four careless respondents who had repeated the same option too many times which were removed from the final dataset.

Fourthly, before we sent out the final survey, we did a pre-test on five respondents, which also were removed from the final dataset. In sum, we ended up with 307 recorded responses in our final dataset.

Fifthly, we also had some items that were reverse-scored that also needed to be recoded. This applied to our second and third items in change-related self-efficacy (CRSE\_2 and CRSE\_3), and the fourth item in felt responsibility (FR\_4). According to Smith et al. (1986), recoding is needed so that all items appear to measure the same characteristics in the same direction. We recoded our three reverse-scored items into “same variables” where we changed old values to new values on a 5-point scale (1=5, 2=4, 4=2, 5=1). In this way, we could reassign the values of existing values into new values and be sure that the items had the same scales.

Finally, we identified 29 missing values. This could bring deviations to our analysis and influence conclusions. To end up with a complete dataset for further analysis we coded the missing values into -99 in the dataset. With this done, we were happy with the dataset and could start performing our analysis.

## **5.0 Analysis**

### **5.1 Principal Component Analysis**

First, we executed an exploratory principal component analysis (PCA) with Promax rotation to evaluate factor structure and ensure the convergent and discriminant validity of all study items (Farrell, 2010). When we ran the PCA and looked into the factor loadings in the pattern matrix, two rules of thumb were followed when deciding which items that should remain in our computed variables. These were items with loading of less than .50 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2007), and items with a cross-loading of more than .35 (Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003). Further, we assessed the items from the PCA by reliability analysis to evaluate their internal consistency. Cronbach’s Alpha was used to assess the reliability of each variable (Cronbach, 1951). Here, we related to the rule of thumb that says one should remove variables that are lower than .70. When all variables and items were tested, we computed new variables to our final dataset.

As a final step, our hypotheses were tested using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 26) and PROCESS macro (version 3.5) created by Andrew Hayes ([www.afhayes.com](http://www.afhayes.com)). With

PROCESS macro we were able to test our hypotheses simultaneous and assess the mediation model and bootstrapping techniques that estimate indirect effects that are preferred over causal steps and Sobel test strategies (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). PROCESS macro also allows us to test our moderating mediating model and assess the presence, strength, and significance of the relationships (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). The tests were conducted with a 95% confidence interval and with the use of bootstrapping with 10000 re-samplings. Bootstrapping refers to the number of repeated data, and in this case, the data was repeated 10000 times. This will estimate the construct confidence interval for the indirect effect. Changing it to a higher value of repeated times will ensure the confidence interval is more accurate (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Our model included both mediators and a moderator, this means we had to test our hypotheses using two different PROCESS models created by Hayes. First, our mediation models correspond to Process Model 4 (simple mediation model), which we used to test our first three hypotheses (Hayes, 2013). We wanted to investigate if empowering leadership is a predictor of task adaptivity and task proactivity, and whether change-oriented motivational states (change-related self-efficacy, felt responsibility, and emotional engagement) mediates that relationship. We also included proactive personality in the model as a moderator and we investigated a moderated mediation model that corresponds to Process Model 7 (Hayes, 2013). We wanted to investigate if our independent variable, empowering leadership, predicted our mediators and if this relationship is moderated by proactive personality.

## **6.0 Results**

### **6.1 Principal Component Analysis and Cronbach's Alpha**

Based on our findings in the principal component analysis, we had to look into the factor loadings and take a decision, with the two rules of thumb in mind, on which items to retain for further analysis. Items in SLMX had cross-loadings with the items in empowering leadership. This means that SLMX was very similar to empowering leadership and we could not discover any clear distinction between them. Thus, we excluded SLMX from our analysis which means that hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 will not be tested any further. Then, we decided to remove two items of task adaptivity (TA\_4 and (TA\_5) as it loaded on the same factor as task proactivity. However, the three items that are left in task adaptivity was the items used by Griffin et al. (2007), so the remaining items should be enough. Furthermore, we removed one item of change-related self-efficacy (CRSE\_4), one item of felt responsibility (FR\_4), and one

item of empowering leadership (EL\_5). Interestingly, the item we removed from empowering leadership stood out with a negative weak factor loading. It appears from the item that “My manager often includes me in strategic decisions”. We can assume that due to the COVID-19 situation and employees being in home offices, the new workday concerns digital platforms. This can lead to less communication and lower sharing of information internally, which may cause challenges. Employees can feel that they are not being seen or heard, or receive the necessary information, which can explain the weak and negative factor loading. The items in both proactive personality and empowering leadership loads on two different factors each. However, even though the questions load on two factors, it is at least two unique factors. Therefore, we cannot see any problems with keeping these items. To summaries, we ended up removing nine items due to their factor loadings and the rules of thumb (See appendix 3 for principal component analysis).

With these adjustments, the factor structure in our PCA confirms our items were not associated with two constructs and we were comfortable to calculate the scale reliabilities using Cronbach’s Alpha to measure their internal consistency. The aim of Cronbach’s Alpha is to measure the correlation between the items that hopefully are higher than .70 which is regarded as the acceptable level (Cronbach, 1951). The three items reflecting change-related self-efficacy had a Cronbach’s Alpha of only .49. Following the rule of thumb, this is lower than preferred and the accepted level, however, it is close to .50. We tested to include the fourth item in the variable and Cronbach’s Alpha increased to .53. Nevertheless, including this item again was muddling the PCA, so the fourth item will still be excluded, and we will include change-related self-efficacy further in the analysis. The low level of Cronbach’s Alpha can be affected by the two out of three reversed scored items that remain (CRSE\_2, CRSE\_3). In addition, it can be in line with the measure adapted from Wanberg and Banas (2000), where their original four-item scale ( $\alpha = .44$ ) was found to be under the accepted level as well. Since the original measure had low levels of Cronbach’s Alpha initially, it may indicate that it was not a good measure, to begin with. However, other studies have found higher levels of Cronbach’s alpha when measuring change-related self-efficacy (e.g. Jimmieson, Terry, & Callan, 2004 found  $\alpha = .76$ ; Puspitasari & Mangundjaya, 2019 found  $\alpha = .70$ ). This means that our items adapted from Wanberg and Banas (2000), measuring change-related self-efficacy may be influenced by reverse-scored items. Due to our low results of Cronbach’s Alpha, the findings have to be interpreted with caution as the correlation between items is not that strong. The three-item scale in felt responsibility had a Cronbach’s Alpha of only .69. We checked if Cronbach’s Alpha did increase when including all four items, but it



turned out to be even lower  $\alpha = .59$ . Based on this, we decided to keep only three items as it had higher values of Cronbach's Alpha. Even though it is below the preferred level, it is very close to being accepted, thus, we decided to include this as a study variable as well.

Moreover, emotional engagement included a four-item scale ( $\alpha = .85$ ), a ten-item scale for proactive personality ( $\alpha = .83$ ), an eleven-item scale for empowering leadership ( $\alpha = .89$ ), a three-item scale for task adaptivity ( $\alpha = .78$ ) and a four-item scale for task proactivity ( $\alpha = .77$ ) (See appendix 2 for all the adapted measures). Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, correlations, and reliability coefficients on all the study variables.

**Table 1.** Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliability Coefficients:

	Variables	Mean	S.D.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1.	CRSE	3.83	.78	(.49)						
2.	FR	4.30	.57	.193**	(.69)					
3.	EE	3.40	.81	.260**	.345**	(.85)				
4.	PP	3.82	.48	.138*	.215**	.196**	(.83)			
5.	EL	3.81	.62	.203**	.199**	.062	.139*	(.89)		
6.	TA	4.11	.54	.301**	.376**	.476**	.278**	.181**	(.78)	
7.	TP	3.52	.65	.207**	.264**	.411**	.396**	.147**	.511**	(.77)

*Variables: 1. CRSE = Change-Related Self-Efficacy, 2. FR = Felt Responsibility, 3. EE = Emotional Engagement, 4. PP = Proactive Personality, 5. EL = Empowering Leadership, 6. TA = Task Adaptivity, 7. TP = Task Proactivity.*

*N = 307*

*\*\* =  $p < .01$*

*\* =  $p < .05$*

*Cronbach's Alpha in Parentheses indicating scale reliability.*

## 6.2 Hypotheses Testing

### 6.2.1 Mediation Analysis using PROCESS

Hypothesis 1 predicted that change-related self-efficacy would mediate a positive relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. Our findings indicated that change-related self-efficacy was positively predicted by empowering leadership ( $B = .25$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $p < .00$ ) as anticipated. Subsequently, task adaptivity ( $B = .19$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $p < .00$ ) and task proactivity ( $B = .15$ ,  $SE = .04$ ,  $p > .00$ ) was also positively related to change-related self-efficacy. See figure 3 for a summary of all the results.

The indirect effect of EL on TA/TP through CRSE was positive and significant ( $B = .05, SE = .02, 95\% = [.02, .08]$ ) / ( $B = .04, SE = .02, 95\% = [.01, .07]$ ), as indicated by the bootstrapped interval that did not include zero. The total effect of EL on TA/TP through CRSE was positive and significant ( $B = .16, SE = .05, 95\% = [.06, .25]$ ) / ( $B = .15, SE = .06, 95\% = [.04, .26]$ ). We calculated the effect size by dividing the indirect effects on total effects. In our first mediation model with CRSE as a mediator the proportion of the total effect of CRSE and TA/TP that operated indirectly was 31%/27% which means that 69%/73% of the relationship operated directly. Hypothesis 1 was supported; however, we have to be cautious with these findings as the results can be questionable due to the low internal consistency in the variable.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that felt responsibility for change mediated the positive relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. The results of our mediation analysis indicated a positive significant relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change ( $B = .18, SE = .05, p < .00$ ) as we anticipated. Then, task adaptivity ( $B = .34, SE = .05, p < .00$ ) and task proactivity ( $B = .29, SE = .06, p > .00$ ) was also positively and significant related to felt responsibility for change.

The indirect effect of EL on TA/TP through FR was positive and significant ( $B = .06, SE = .02, 95\% = [.02, .11]$ ) / ( $B = .05, SE = .02, 95\% = [.02, .10]$ ), as the bootstrapped interval did not include zero. The total effect of EL on TA/TP through FR was positive and significant ( $B = .16, SE = .05, 95\% = [.06, .25]$ ) / ( $B = .15, SE = .06, 95\% = [.04, .26]$ ). Our second mediation model with FR as a mediator found the total effect of FR and TA/TP that operated indirectly to be 37,5%/33%. This means that 62,5%/67% operated directly. With these findings, hypothesis 2 was also supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that emotional engagement mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. Our findings indicated that emotional engagement was positively and significantly in relation to task adaptivity/proactivity ( $B = .31, SE = .03, p < .00$ ) / ( $B = .31, SE = .04, p < .00$ ). However, looking into the direct effect between empowering leadership and emotional engagement it was not significant ( $B = .08, SE = .07, p > .28$ ). Meaning that empowering leadership was not responsible for emotional engagement, and thus, our third mediated model had no significant mediated relationship to discuss. This can be confirmed by looking at the indirect effect of EL and TA/TP, where the bootstrap confidence interval was not significant ( $B = .02, SE = .03, 95\% = [-.02, .08]$ ) / ( $B = .03, SE = .03, 95\% = [-.03, .08]$ ), as the confidence interval included zero. As a result, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Finally, we ran the mediation model with all the mediators. It showed that there still was a positive significant relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy ( $B = .25, SE = .07, p < .00$ ). Further, the indirect effect was positive and significant when task adaptivity was the outcome variable ( $B = .03, SE = .01, 95\% CI = [.01, .05]$ ), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did not include zero. However, this was not the case when task proactivity was the outcome variable ( $B = .02, SE = .01, 95\% CI = [-.01, .04]$ ), as the bootstrapped interval did include zero. This means that change-related self-efficacy had no indirect mediating effect on task proactivity. Change-related self-efficacy was only found to significantly mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity.

Also, it was still a positive significant relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility ( $B = .18, SE = .05, p < .00$ ). Further, the indirect effect was also positive and significant on both outcome variables, task adaptivity/proactivity ( $B = .04, SE = .02, 95\% CI = [.01, .07]$ ) / ( $B = .03, SE = .01, 95\% CI = [.01, .06]$ ), as the bootstrapped intervals did not include zero. Based on these results, we could conclude that felt responsibility has a significant mediating effect in our model.

As anticipated, there was still a non-significant relationship between empowering leadership and emotional engagement ( $B = .08, SE = .07, p < .28$ ). This could further be confirmed looking at the indirect effects on task adaptivity/proactivity ( $B = .02, SE = .02, 95\% CI = [-.02, .06]$ ) / ( $B = .02, SE = .02, 95\% CI = [-.02, .07]$ ), as the bootstrapped interval did include zero. This confirms again that emotional engagement had no mediating effect.

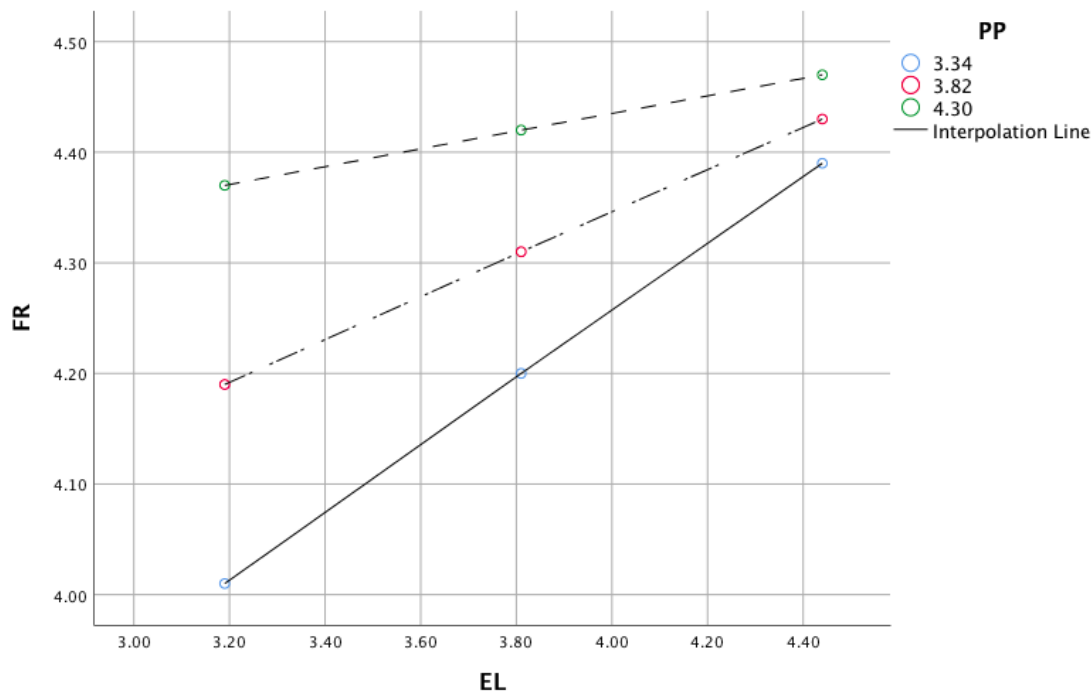
Based on these results, we found felt responsibility to be a positive significant mediator which may indicate felt responsibility to have unique paths in our model. Again, change-related self-efficacy has to be interpreted with caution and was only found as a significant mediator on task adaptivity, not task proactivity.

### 6.2.2 Moderated Mediation using PROCESS

Hypothesis 4 predicted that proactive personality positively moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy. When we tested for the mediating moderating effect, our findings indicated that the interaction effect between empowering leadership and proactive personality was not statistically significant with change-related self-efficacy ( $B = .09, SE = .14, p > .54$ ). To investigate it further, we looked further down in the output on the conditional indirect effects of empowering leadership, change-related self-efficacy, and task adaptivity/proactivity at low, mean or high levels of proactive

personality. At low levels (-1SD) of proactive personality, the indirect effect was positive but not significant as the indicated bootstrapped confidence interval included zero ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $-1SD = .03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [-.01, .09]$ ) / ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $-1SD = .03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [-.01, .08]$ ). At the mean levels of proactive personality, the effect of empowering leadership was positive and significant ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $mean = .04$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [.01, .08]$ ) / ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $mean = .03$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [.01, .07]$ ), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did not include zero. At high (+1SD) levels of proactive personality, empowering leadership was a significant positive predictor ( $PP = .4.30$ ,  $+1SD = .05$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [.01, .09]$ ) / ( $PP = 4.30$ ,  $+1SD = .04$ ,  $SE = .02$ ,  $95\% CI = [.01, .08]$ ). However, based on these results, we concluded that there was no such moderated mediated relationship, when change-related self-efficacy was the mediator. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was not supported.

In testing hypothesis 5, we found a statistically significant interaction effect between empowering leadership and proactive personality that was negative ( $B = -.23$ ,  $SE = .10$ ,  $p < .03$ ). As the interaction effect was significant, we plotted the data in a scatter plot below to get a better visual overview of the data (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Scatter plot of the moderation effect of proactive personality on the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change.

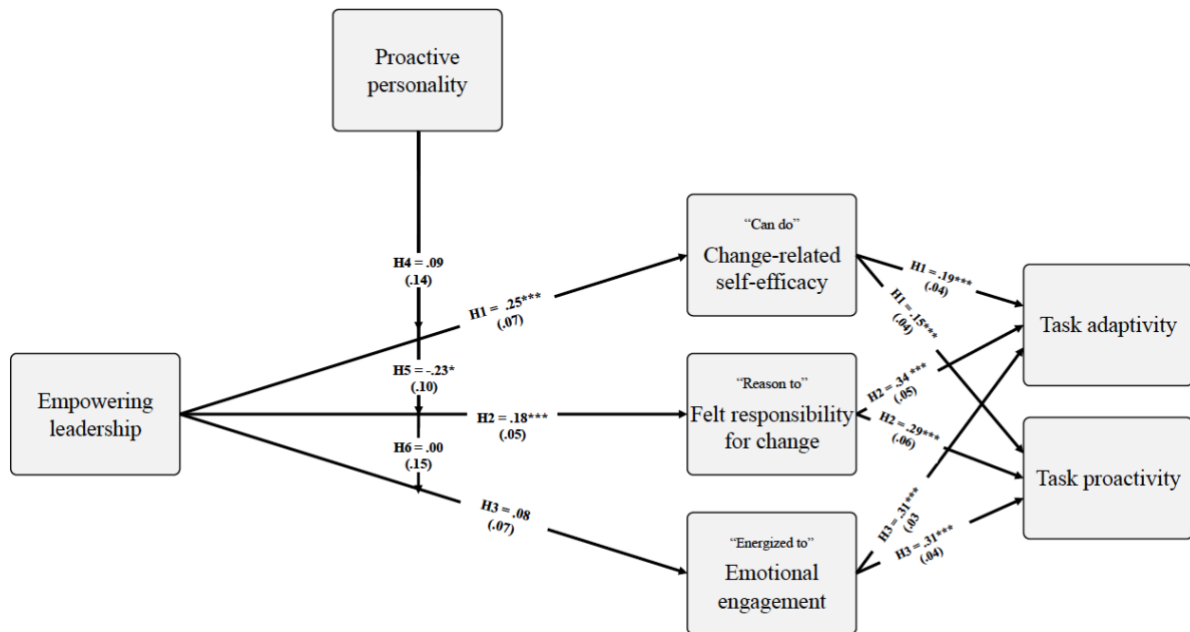
Then, we looked into the indirect effects of empowering leadership on task adaptivity/proactivity of the moderator, proactive personality, in a model with felt responsibility for change as a mediator (EL → FR → TA/TP). At -1SD on proactive personality, the effect was positive and significant ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $B = .30$ ,  $SE = .08$ , 95% CI = [.14, .47]) / ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $B = .30$ ,  $SE = .08$ , 95% CI = [.14, .47]), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did not include zero. At the mean of proactive personality, the effect of empowering leadership was positive and significant ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $B = .19$ ,  $SE = .05$ , 95% CI = [.09, .30]) / ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $B = .19$ ,  $SE = .05$ , 95% CI = [.09, .30]), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did not include zero. At +1SD of proactive personality, empowering leadership was not a significant predictor ( $PP = 4.30$ ,  $B = .08$ ,  $SE = .06$ , 95% CI = [-.04, .20]) / ( $PP = 4.30$ ,  $B = .08$ ,  $SE = .06$ , 95% CI = [-.04, .20]), as the indicated bootstrapped confidence interval included zero.

Looking at the slopes in the scatter plot we can see that the relationship empowering leadership and felt responsibility is positive and significant when proactive personality is low or at mean levels. When proactive personality is high, the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility is non-significant. This implies that empowering leadership is particularly important for felt responsibility for change when employees have low proactive personality. However, when proactive personality is high, empowering leadership is not required to elicit felt responsibility for change. So, the findings are not in line with our hypothesis 5, but interesting nonetheless and will be discussed later in the thesis.

Thirdly, we investigated the moderating mediating model with emotional engagement as a mediator. The findings suggested that there was a non-significant negative interaction in the relationship of empowering leadership and proactive personality ( $B = .00$ ,  $SE = .15$ ,  $p > .99$ ). Accordingly, hypothesis 6 is not supported.

Finally, we investigated the indirect effects of empowering leadership on task adaptivity/proactivity, of the moderator proactive personality, with emotional engagement as a mediator. At -1SD on proactive personality, the effect was non-significant ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI = [-.06, .09]) / ( $PP = 3.34$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .03$ , 95% CI = [-.03, .07]), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did include zero. At the mean of proactive personality, the effect of empowering leadership was non-significant ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .02$ , 95% CI = [-.03, .07]) / ( $PP = 3.82$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .03$ , 95% CI = [-.03, .07]), as the bootstrapped confidence interval did include zero. At +1SD of proactive personality, empowering leadership was not a significant predictor ( $PP = 4.30$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI = [-.04, .09]) / ( $PP = 4.30$ ,  $B = .01$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI = [-.05, .10]), as the indicated bootstrapped

confidence interval included zero. In total, none of these conditional values of indirect effects were found to be significant. Further elaboration will follow in the discussion.



**Figure 3.** Final research model with findings. Unstandardized coefficients and standardized errors (in parentheses).  $p > .05$ ; \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

## 7.0 Discussion

This study aimed to contribute to a better understanding of how task adaptivity/proactivity is influenced by the intersection between motivational states and individual characteristics during times of rapid changes and new ways of working due to the outbreak of COVID-19. Empowering leadership suggests that sharing power will lead to an increase in work role performance. Particularly, providing authority, responsibility, and support will provide the employee with an increase in task adaptivity and task proactivity (Ahearne et al., 2005; Hollander, 2009). With the context of COVID-19 in mind, we focused on if and how empowering leadership would influence employees' change-oriented motivational states during rapid changes in ways of working. When we investigated these relationships, proactive personality was used as a moderator to see how it influence the strength of the relationships. Further, we wanted to understand whether the change-oriented motivational states would positively mediate the employees' task adaptivity and task proactivity during the pandemic.

Based on this reasoning, we hypothesized and subsequently found that change-related self-efficacy and felt responsibility for change positively mediated the relationship between

empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. However, emotional engagement did not. Furthermore, a negative interaction effect between empowering leadership and proactive personality was found when felt responsibility was used as the mediation variable. However, this was not in line with our predictions. We believed that proactive personality would positively moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change. In spite of this finding, a non-significant relationship was found when change-related self-efficacy and emotional engagement were the mediating variables.

Our study addressed suggestions made in other research to explore how empowering leadership relates to task adaptivity and task proactivity through change-oriented motivational states (Charbonnier-Voirin & El Akremi, 2011; Han & Williams, 2008; Jundt et al., 2015; Ryan, 2017). Particularly, we wanted to understand these gaps, by adapting our study to the pandemic situation, as it would be interesting to see how leaders and employees behave during extraordinary situations. Our findings and relationships will further be discussed in the following section.

### **7.1 Mediator 1: “Can do” Motivation (Change-Related Self-Efficacy)**

Our findings suggest that empowering leadership increases the change-related self-efficacy beliefs for employees, due to their feeling of power and ability to influence the organization. We believe this can be explained through what Parker (2010) refers to as the individual belief of bringing out the change, which has been referred to as the most important dimension of change-related self-efficacy. Many of our respondents had home offices in this period. We assume that the respondents' feeling of power and ability to influence their individual work is stronger due to the home office situation. Particularly, employees are responsible for performing their tasks with less interference from fellow employees and managers. As home offices provide employees with more freedom, flexibility, and decision-making authority, we assume that this could be the reason for the increase in change-related self-efficacy beliefs among our respondents. This is in line with Arnold et al. (2000) who found that empowering behavior such as removing conditions of bureaucracy, providing freedom, and building trust, will increase the feeling of change-related self-efficacy.

Building on the mediating relationship as described above, proactive personality as a moderator was investigated. However, there was an overall non-significant moderated mediating relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy.

However, when we investigated the relationship at different levels of proactive personality significant results were found. Specifically, when proactive personality was high or at mean levels, the effect of empowering leadership was positive and significant. This makes sense in the way that employees that are regarded as proactive during these changes have a stronger belief in their ability to handle new demands with regards to COVID-19. For instance, proactive employees would make the situation with home office work, due to a flexible mindset and problem-solving attitude. This fits with Lent et al. (1997) research who found that employees with high proactive personality have a higher amount of self-efficacy concerning changes at work. However, we cannot conclude that there is a moderated mediated relationship, as the overall interaction effect was non-significant.

Moreover, with our hypothesized relationship between empowering leadership and change-related self-efficacy, our study found a significant and positive relationship to task adaptivity. We believe that this relationship can be explained by the perceived ability to adapt to changes and overcome obstacles during extraordinary changes. Specifically, this means that employees have an increased sense of self-belief when they approach the question: “Can I do it?” (Parker et al., 2010).

Furthermore, we also acquired supported results for the relation to task proactivity. This is in line with Chebat and Kollias’s (2000) research, who found that employees with higher change-related self-efficacy tend to engage more in their tasks, show proactive behavior, and persist obstacles. We assume that employees with a belief of embracing the outbreak of COVID-19 would be more task proactive in their behavior of reaching organizational goals. Nevertheless, our findings and results have to be interpreted with caution as the internal validity was questionable in our analysis.

## **7.2 Mediator 2: “Reason to” Motivation (Felt Responsibility for Change)**

Our findings supported our assumptions of a positive relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change. Particularly, this means that empowering leadership increases employees’ feelings of responsibility for a particular change, and hence, has a personal “reason to” motivation for continuously conducting changes. We can assume empowering leadership during the outbreak of COVID-19, make the employee feel a responsibility for handling the new and demanding situation. For instance, employees may feel a greater responsibility for their organization. A possible explanation is that the employee is afraid of losing their job, being laid-off, or that the organization and fellow employees will suffer from the virus. Morrison and Phelps (1999) argued for a similar



explanation and said that employees are more likely to take charge and responsibility if they feel that they are personally responsible to carry out a change. This is in line with other researchers (McAllister et al., 1979; Tetlock, 1983), who has suggested that employees who are accountable for decisions and attitudes tend to be more task adaptive and task proactive in facing changes.

By looking at our results, felt responsibility for change was found to positively mediate empowering leadership and task adaptivity. An explanation for this result could be that, as employees are left to themselves both by being empowered and having home offices, an increase in felt responsibility for their role occurs. We believe that you will be better at adapting during abnormal situations when you feel a greater responsibility for roles and tasks. This fits with Griffin et al. (2007), who argued that employees who feels responsible for their role, also feel responsible for meeting changing demands. According to Kim, Liu, and Diefendroff (2015), employees who are empowered at work are more likely to be motivated to utilize the opportunities to bring constructive and functional change to the job. Thus, we believe that employees who are facing this pandemic, perceive that they get more power to make decisions, and take charge of their actions. As a result, they will feel more responsibility towards changes which further makes a foundation to be more task adaptive.

Moreover, a significant positive relationship was found in relation to task proactivity. Meaning that having empowering leaders during challenging and fast-changing times, increases employees' feelings of responsibility towards creating or initiating changes. This is supported by Parker et al. (2010), who argued that "reason to" motivation is about engaging behavior to reach specific goals. In addition, personal beliefs to bring out the change is a crucial predictor of being task proactive (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Building on this, employees who are personally and intrinsically motivated to get the company through the pandemic, can be more proactive in their behavior as they find the tasks more enjoyable and interesting. We argue that employees regarded as high performers will eager to reach higher goals and outperform other competitors although facing an extraordinary situation. Hence, they could feel a stronger "reason to" motivation for being responsible for facing changes, and as a result, be more task proactive.

Interestingly, our research found proactive personality to positively moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and felt responsibility for change when proactive personality was low. This may mean that empowering leadership substitutes the relationship when proactive personality to an employee is low. In other words, employees that have low

proactive personality, have a greater need for empowering leadership to feel a greater responsibility towards changes in demanding situations.

However, this was not the case when proactive personality was high, due to the non-significant result. An explanation could be that employees with a higher proactive personality demonstrate higher levels of felt responsibility, and therefore, a need for empowering leadership is reduced. Based on our findings, we suggest that empowering leadership may compensate for not having the specific personality that makes an employee proactive during changes. Thus, employees with low proactive personalities need higher levels of empowering leadership to be at the same level of felt responsibility for change, in comparison with those with high proactive personalities. Finally, proactive personality may amplify how contextual factors will relate to empowering leadership. Earlier research has shown that leaders have influential roles in how they may influence employee proactivity (Parker et al., 2006).

All in all, felt responsibility for change was found to be the strongest mediation variable in our model. This indicates that having an individual “reason to” motivation regarding organizational changes appears to be an important predictor of task adaptivity/proactivity when being empowered.

### **7.3 Mediator 3: “Energized to” Motivation (Emotional Engagement)**

Investigating the mediating effect of emotional engagement between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity, both significant and non-significant results were found. First, due to the non-significant relationship, we cannot say that empowering leadership is an antecedent of emotional engagement. Several explanations may be the reason for this result. The outbreak of COVID-19 can be one explanation. Particularly, the use of new digital tools, home office, home school, or omission of duties can explain the result. Specifically, it can be challenging to manage employees through digital platforms and changing environments. As a result, it can be difficult for leaders to increase emotional engagement through empowering leadership. For instance, employees may feel that they get overlooked or they perceive information barriers due to physical distance between leader and subordinate when having home offices or are laid off from work. Another explanation to this argument can for instance be that employees do not feel emotions such as excitement and enthusiasm when going through uncertain and frightening times (Seo et al., 2010). As a result, employees lack a feeling of an “energized to” motivation due to a difficult and confusing situation.

However, a positive and significant relationship between emotional engagement and task adaptivity/proactivity was found. This means that people who are excited, active, and enthusiastic during the pandemic are regarded as employees who are more open to changes, and hence, more task adaptive and task proactive (Seo et al., 2010). We, therefore, assume that emotional engagement provides a logical explanation for an increase in task adaptivity/proactivity with the situation at hand.

Based on our findings, empowering leadership was not found to be an antecedent for emotional engagement. Furthermore, by looking into a proactive personality as a moderator between empowering leadership and emotional engagement, no moderated mediated relationship was found.

## **8.0 Practical Implications**

Despite some limitations in this study, our findings can provide leaders, employees, and organizations with implications for practice. Particularly, this might be of practical interest for stakeholders that wish to select, train, and develop those who can perform well during changes. Although we did not get support for our whole research model, we will highlight some practical implications, due to the fact that empowering leadership has a great potential to influence and increase employees' task adaptivity and task proactivity when facing changes during challenging times.

With this study, leaders can see the importance of implementing empowering leadership such as share power with their employees, reduce the level of control, and provide them with decision-making authority during demanding and challenging changes. Since many of our respondents had home office, managers have to trust the employees in how they perform their tasks and work toward achieving goals. Instead of controlling and micromanaging the employees, leaders should provide autonomy and flexibility by giving authority down the chain of command. For instance, having regular follow-up meetings to discuss goals and visions, instead of giving tasks may provide stronger feelings of responsibility and self-efficacy. Leaders may then create a "can do" motivation with these follow-up meetings, so that the employee has a sense of direction instead of a feeling of being controlled. Further, this could make a foundation for the employees' ability to be task adaptive and task proactive in uncertain and complex workdays. Research has shown that employees who become more confident in their ability to conduct changes, also become more proactive and persistent (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). If leaders during pandemic outbreaks are

able to increase self-efficacy beliefs by providing support, words of encouragement, and positive persuasion, employees are likely to increase their work effort (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994). In accordance with our results, highly change-related self-efficacious employees may be better to handle the difficulties in their jobs, thereby leading to greater task adaptivity and task proactivity. However, change-related self-efficacy had low internal consistency ( $\alpha = .49$ ), which may be a weakness with the construct and the results have to be interpreted with caution. Future research should adapt their items concerning change-related self-efficacy from other researchers that reached higher levels of Cronbach's alpha (e.g. Jimmieson et al., 2004; Puspitasari & Mangundjaya, 2019).

Moreover, regarding felt responsibility for change to increase task adaptivity and task proactivity, HR people and managers should be aware of the relevance in identifying employees who seem to experience role ambiguity, uncertainty, ambiguous responsibilities, and powerlessness during demanding times (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). From our research, we saw this to harm the beliefs of felt responsibility for change. In this sense, managers should let the employees feel empowered and included in organizational tasks and decisions, even though they are physically separated from each other. Leaders have to include the employees by having regular status meetings so that the employee feels that they are included in the organizational work. This will make them feel important, and as a result, he or she is more likely to have an increased level of felt responsibility for change, due to their role acceptance (Cummings & Anton, 1990) or role responsibility (Gibson & Schroeder, 2003).

In sum, our variables can be of equally great value for individuals and organizations, to improve employees' task adaptivity and task proactivity. By creating and facilitating the right conditions and resources, employees can experience freedom for adapting to constantly changing and demanding situations. This can in turn stimulate them to do more than what is required and to experience greater levels of engagement and satisfaction in their roles. Experiencing empowering leadership through felt responsibility for change and change related self-efficacy at work can lead to a better performance that goes beyond work descriptions, but also to confident employees who can take on challenges on their own initiative so that the organization will get through the pandemic situation in a desirable way. Nowadays, it can be even more important to help employees functioning with home offices and adapting to new ways of working. An experiment conducted by JPMorgan on 250.000-plus employees showed that people were satisfied with working from home. They were relieved that they did not have to endure long and stressful commutes. They also found that working from home could be more efficient, due to the disappearance of unnecessary

meetings and gossipy colleagues. The future may seem to be a combination of working from home and being on-site (Kelly, 2020). Therefore, we assume that our research could be of great value for managers in the future, as it is for the past.

## **9.0 Limitations and Future Research**

Several limitations and fruitful directions for future research are identified. We will present our limitations which should be taken into account for future research. First of all, we used snowball sampling to collect data (Goodman, 1961). Even though snowball sampling, in theory, is randomly chosen, this can be difficult to perform in practice. When sharing a survey within internal networks, the sample can likely be biased towards more cooperative individuals. Therefore, external validity could be questioned as we cannot generalize our findings. However, snowball sampling is commonly used when the participants of the study can be hard to reach, which was the case for our research, due to the pandemic outbreak (Baltar & Brunet, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2011; Evans & Mathur, 2005). Future research should aim to investigate this study based on a different sample. One suggestion may be to perform a longitudinal study and collect data over time in several waves. What could be interesting is to look at this topic from different industries such as automotive, banking, consumer goods, insurance, or software.

Furthermore, we cannot control the common method bias, as we only collected data once, and not over time. With this in mind, one could add a temporal separation when measuring our independent and dependent variables. By adding time between two waves of data collection, one could reduce the possibility of using previous answers to upcoming questions (Podsakoff et al., 2000). As the data was not collected over time, we cannot draw inferences of causality or possible reverse causality. This is due to our cross-sectional design which cannot support casualty claims such as “A is a cause of B”. However, causality could be improved if the data were collected more than one time and from multiple sources.

A third limitation in our study was the self-reported measure bias. The survey was based on people’s self-reports which could question the external validity. Research by Hoffman, Nathan, and Holden (1991) found that self-ratings had lower validity than supervisor ratings. One suggestion for future research can be to investigate both self-ratings and supervisor-ratings. An argument for this suggestion is that individuals tend to be biased towards judging their behavior to meet higher standards than others (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988).

Another limitation to the study could be careless respondents which may lead to a decrease in data quality (Buchanan, 2000; Johnson, 2005). When we collected data through an electronic survey, physical distance and lack of control may influence the quality (Johnson, 2005). The participants' response time (e.g. average response time per item) and consistency indices (e.g. personal reliability or psychometric synonyms) have been found to be effective in detecting careless respondents (DeSimone & Harms, 2018; Huang, Curran, Keeney, Poposki, & DeShon, 2012).

Future research should aim to include specific factors that can reveal careless respondents. For instance, ask for their response effort during the survey, include instructed items, where they should choose a specific option, using infrequency or bogus items would be possible solutions (DeSimone et al., 2015). In this way, one is able to identify which respondents who are unmotivated to respond accurately or who not pay attention to the items or survey instructions (Huang et al., 2012; McGrath, Mitchell, Kim, & Hough, 2010; Meade & Craig, 2012). If one can identify the careless respondents in future research, it is possible to enhance the credibility of findings (Goldammer et al., 2020).

Moreover, due to the outbreak of COVID-19, possible response bias is also found to be a limitation. COVID-19 has brought many challenges in several ways, and even though we adapted our survey to the situation, our responses and results may have been highly affected. An assumption is that people who are in the risk group, anxious of being infected, or laid off from work, could have strong negative attitudes in general. When having strong attitudes or opinions towards the situation, everyone may not be neutral in their responses but be influenced by their state of mind. This fits with Raphael and Cloitre (1994) who stated that mood affects reporting results. This may indicate that our survey could be influenced by personal attitudes to the pandemic. For instance, respondents who were afraid to lose their job was probably answering the questions with a negative state of mind and as a result, was exposed to reporting bias. Based on this limitation, future research should measure our developed research model in a normal situation without too much noise.

Furthermore, our study should be replicated within other industries and organizations, to further examine the generalizability of our results. This is due to the fact that our survey was not perfectly adapted for all people. In particular, people working in the army, with transport, in warehouses or the health sector did not fit many of our questions. This is due to the referring of home offices in our items.

Ultimately, our model is not exhaustive in considering all of the possible antecedents for task adaptivity and task proactivity. Future research may further expand the scope of

potential antecedents such as individual differences (e.g., emotional stability and mastery goal orientation), training techniques (e.g., adaptive guidance and exploratory learning), or cognitive processes (e.g., adaptive experience and declarative experience). Further, our findings focused on the role of empowering leadership. Whether this construct is one of the most important factors for improving task adaptivity and task proactivity is an open question and should be reviewed. Finally, any additional research that helps to understand which factors who increase task adaptivity and task proactivity is of interest. In particular, research has not considered individual differences, which might provide a more nuanced view of how individual differences are relevant predictors of task adaptivity and task proactivity (Jundt et al., 2015).

## **10.0 Conclusion**

In the middle of March, a pandemic occurred and disrupted the way we perform work. Restrictions such as lockdowns and strict quarantine rules enforced employees and organizations to experience increased pressure to change on every level of the organization. The urge to find efficient ways to manage employees through the pandemic was more important than ever before. For instance, leading through digital platforms, manage new work tasks, and handle new technologies were just some things that affected us. However, the situation affected everyone differently and people had to make considerable changes in their everyday life.

In this master's thesis, we extended the literature by examining the relationship between empowering leadership and task adaptivity/proactivity. We investigated the relationship by looking into change-related self-efficacy, felt responsibility for change and emotional engagement as potential mediators. Additionally, we looked at how proactive personality moderated the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented motivational states. All of these relationships were investigated by using the pandemic situation to understand how the demanding situation influenced the different variables. With this in mind, our findings suggest that empowering leadership during the last couple of months is important for employees to feel a "reason to" be committed to conduct changes, and hence, be more task adaptive and task proactive.

Moreover, our findings suggest that employees who are emotionally engaged during demanding situations, are more task adaptive and task proactive. However, this is not a result of empowering leadership, due to a non-significant relationship in our results. Moreover, our

research indicates that employees who are high on proactive personality demonstrate a higher sense of felt responsibility for change. However, empowering leadership was not the reason for the latter relationship. On that basis, we assumed that empowering leadership compensates for not having proactive personality, and hence, is more important for those. However, further research is needed as we did not get any support on the hypotheses concerning proactive personality.

Ultimately, our findings show that empowering leadership is important for task adaptivity and task proactivity at work and that several change-oriented motivational states will influence the direction and strength of the relationship. In other words, this thesis shows that empowering leadership is important for task adaptivity and task proactivity during fast and demanding environmental changes such as pandemics.



---

## 11.0 References

- Ahearne, M., Mathieu, J., & Rapp, A. (2005). To Empower or Not to Empower Your Sales Force? An Empirical Examination of the Influence of Leadership Empowerment Behavior on Customer Satisfaction and Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(5), 945–955. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.945>
- Ahilathasan, T. (2009). *Classification of Standard Industrial Classification—Statistics Norway*. <https://www.ssb.no/en/klass/klassifikasjoner/6>
- Akomolafe, M. J., & Ogunmakin, A. O. (2014). Job Satisfaction among Secondary School Teachers: Emotional Intelligence, Occupational Stress and Self-Efficacy as Predictors. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 4*(3), 487.
- Al-Asoufi, B. B., & Akhorshaideh, A. O. (2017). The Impact of Employee Empowerment on the Success of Organizational Change: A Study in Privatized Enterprises in Jordan. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance, 7*(1), 87–101. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jpag.v7i1.10849>
- Amabile, T. M., Schatzel, E. A., Moneta, G. B., & Kramer, S. J. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(1), 5–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.003>
- Aragón-Correa, J. A. (1998). Strategic Proactivity and Firm Approach to the Natural Environment. *The Academy of Management Journal, 41*(5), 556–567. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256942>
- Arciniega, L. M., & Menon, S. T. (2013). The power of goal internalization: Studying psychological empowerment in a Venezuelan plant. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(15), 2948–2967. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.763846>
- Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1993). Creating Readiness for Organizational Change. *Human Relations, 46*(6), 681–703. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679304600601>
- Arnold, J. A., Arad, S., Rhoades, J. A., & Drasgow, F. (2000). The Empowering Leadership Questionnaire: The Construction and Validation of a New Scale for Measuring Leader Behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(3), 249–269. JSTOR.
- Ashford, S. J. (1988). Individual Strategies for Coping with Stress during Organizational Transitions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 24*(1), 19–36.
- Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of Social Research* (12th ed.). CA: Wadsworth Cengage.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International, 13*(3), 209–223. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430810870476>
- Bakker, A. B., Tims, M., & Derks, D. (2012). Proactive personality and job performance: The role of job crafting and work engagement. *Human Relations, 65*(10), 1359–1378. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726712453471>
- Baltar, F., & Brunet, I. (2012). Social research 2.0: Virtual snowball sampling method using Facebook. *Internet Research, 22*(1), 57–74. <https://doi.org/10.1108/10662241211199960>

- 
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). The Explanatory and Predictive Scope of Self-Efficacy Theory. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 4(3), 359–373.  
<https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.1986.4.3.359>
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Freeman.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries. *American Psychologist*, 130–139.
- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The Proactive Component of Organizational Behavior: A Measure and Correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103–118.  
JSTOR.
- Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (2008). Active learning: Effects of core training design elements on self-regulatory processes, learning, and adaptability. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 296–316. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.2.296>
- Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2011). *Business research model*. Oxford University Press.
- Berg, J. M., Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2010). Perceiving and responding to challenges in job crafting at different ranks: When proactivity requires adaptivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(2–3), 158–186.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.645>
- Bindl, U. K., & Parker, S. K. (2011). Proactive work behavior: Forward-thinking and change-oriented action in organizations. I In *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol 2: Selecting and developing members for the organization* (s. 567–598). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/12170-019>
- Brown, D. J., Cober, R. T., Kane, K., Levy, P. E., & Shalhoop, J. (2006). Proactive personality and the successful job search: A field investigation with college graduates. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 717–726. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.717>
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business Research Methods* (3rd edition). Oxford University Press.
- Buch, R. (2015). Leader–member exchange as a moderator of the relationship between employee–organization exchange and affective commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(1), 59–79.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.934897>
- Buchanan, T. (2000). Potential of the Internet for personality research. In M. H. Birnbaum (Ed.). *Psychological experiments on the Internet*, 121–140. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Klein, C., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Halpin, S. M. (2006). What type of leadership behaviors are functional in teams? A meta-analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(3), 288–307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.02.007>
- Buss, D. M. (1987). Selection, Evocation, and Manipulation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 53(6), 1214–1221.
-

- 
- Baard, S. K., Rench, T. A., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. (2014). Performance Adaptation: A Theoretical Integration and Review. *Journal of Management*, *40*(1), 48–99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313488210>
- Carless, S. A. (2004). Does Psychological Empowerment Mediate the Relationship Between Psychological Climate and Job Satisfaction? *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *18*(4), 405–425.
- Carnevale, P. J. D., & Isen, A. M. (1986). The influence of positive affect and visual access on the discovery of integrative solutions in bilateral negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *37*(1), 1–13. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(86\)90041-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(86)90041-5)
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., & El Akremi, A. (2011). The Effect of Empowerment on Employees' Adaptive Performance. *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations*, *66*(1).
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., & Roussel, P. (2012). Adaptive performance: A new scale to measure individual performance in organizations. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, *29*(3), 280–293.
- Chebat, J. C., & Kollias, P. (2000). The Impact of Empowerment on Customer Contact Employees' Roles in Service Organizations. *Journal of Service Research*, *3*(1), 66–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/109467050031005>
- Cheong, M., Spain, S. M., Yammarino, F. J., & Yun, S. (2016). Two faces of empowering leadership: Enabling and burdening. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*(4), 602–616. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.01.006>
- Cherry, K. (2019). *What Is a Cross-Sectional Study?* Verywell Mind. <https://www.verywellmind.com/what-is-a-cross-sectional-study-2794978>
- Conger, J. A. (1989). Leadership: The Art of Empowering Others. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *3*(1), 17–24. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1989.4277145>
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The Empowerment Process: Integrating Theory and Practice. *The Academy of Management Review*, *13*(3), 471–482. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258093>
- Conner, D. R. (1992). *Managing at the speed of change: How resilient managers succeed and prosper where others fail*. Villard Books.
- Cooper-Thomas, H. D., Paterson, N. L., Stadler, M. J., & Saks, A. M. (2014). The relative importance of proactive behaviors and outcomes for predicting newcomer learning, well-being, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*(3), 318–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.02.007>
- Crant, J. M. (1995). The Proactive Personality Scale and objective job performance among real estate agents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *80*(4), 532–537. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.4.532>
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive Behavior in Organizations. *Journal of Management*, *26*(3), 435–462. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600304>
- Crant, J. M., & Bateman, T. S. (2000). Charismatic leadership viewed from above: The impact of proactive personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(1), 63–75.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, *16*(3), 297–334.
-

- 
- Cropanzano, R., & Wright, T. (2001). When a “Happy” Worker Is Really a “Productive” Worker: A Review and Further Refinement of the Happy–Productive Worker Thesis. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(3), 182–199.
- Cummings, L. L., & Anton, R. J. (1990). *The logical and appreciative dimensions of accountability*. Jossey-Bass.
- Cunningham, C. E., Woodward, C. A., Shannon, H. S., MacIntosh, J., Lendrum, B., Rosenbloom, D., & Brown, J. (2002). Readiness for organizational change: A longitudinal study of workplace, psychological and behavioural correlates. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75(4), 377–392.  
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317902321119637>
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13(1), 46–78.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(75\)90005-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(75)90005-7)
- Darwin, C. (1859). *The origin of species*. Murray.
- D’Auria, G., & De Smet, A. (2020). *Leadership in a crisis: Responding to coronavirus*. McKinsey & Company. <https://www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/organization/our-insights/leadership-in-a-crisis-responding-to-the-coronavirus-outbreak-and-future-challenges>
- De Jong, A., De Ruyter, K., & Lemmink, J. (2004). Antecedents and Consequences of the Service Climate in Boundary-Spanning Self-Managing Service Teams. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(2), 18–35. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.68.2.18.27790>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The «What» and «Why» of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227–268. JSTOR.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd edition.). Sage.
- DeSimone, J. A., & Harms, P. D. (2018). Dirty Data: The Effects of Screening Respondents Who Provide Low-Quality Data in Survey Research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 33(5), 559–577. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-017-9514-9>
- DeSimone, J. A., Harms, P. D., & DeSimone, A. J. (2015). Best practice recommendations for data screening. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(2), 171–181.
- Dreisbach, G. (2006). How positive affect modulates cognitive control: The costs and benefits of reduced maintenance capability. *Brain and Cognition*, 60(1), 11–19.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandc.2005.08.003>
- Dutton, J. E., Ashford, S. J., O’Neill, R. M., & Lawrence, K. A. (2001). Moves that matter: Issue selling and organizational change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(4), 716–736. <https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/3069412>
- Eccles, J. S., Adler, T. F., Futterman, R., Goff, S. B., Kaczala, C. M., Meece, J. L., & Midgley, C. (1983). Expectancies, values, and academic behaviors. *Achievement and achievement motivation*, 75–146.
- Eldor, L., & Harpaz, I. (2016). Retracted: The Indirect Relationship Between Learning Climate and Employees’ Creativity and Adaptivity: The Role of Employee
-

- Engagement. *Personnel Psychology*, 69(3), E1–E44.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12149>
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics*, 5(1), 1–4.
- Evans, J., & Mathur, A. (2005). The value of online surveys. *Internet Research*, 15(2), 195–219.
- Farrell, A. M. (2010). Insufficient discriminant validity: A comment on Bove, Pervan, Beatty, and Shiu (2009). *Journal of Business Research*, 63(3), 324–327.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.05.003>
- Fredrickson, B. L., & Branigan, C. (2005). Positive emotions broaden the scope of attention and thought-action repertoires. *Cognition and Emotion*, 19(3), 313–332.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930441000238>
- Frese, M., Kring, W., Soose, A., & Zempel, J. (1996). Personal Initiative At Work: Differences Between East and West Germany. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1), 37–63.
- Fuller, J. B., Marler, L. E., & Hester, K. (2006). Promoting felt responsibility for constructive change and proactive behavior: Exploring aspects of an elaborated model of work design. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(8), 1089–1120.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.408>
- Gagné, M., Senécal, C. B., & Koestner, R. (1997). Proximal Job Characteristics, Feelings of Empowerment, and Intrinsic Motivation: A Multidimensional Model. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27(14), 1222–1240. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1997.tb01803.x>
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827–844. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827>
- Ghebreyesus, T. A. (2020). *WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the media briefing on COVID-19—11 March 2020*. World Health Organization.  
<https://www.who.int/dg/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-media-briefing-on-covid-19---11-march-2020>
- Ghitulescu, B. (2013). Making Change Happen: The Impact of Work Context on Adaptive and Proactive Behaviors. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 49(2), 206–245.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886312469254>
- Gibson, D. E., & Schroeder, S. J. (2003). We ought to be blamed? The effect of organizational roles on blame and credit attributions. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(2), 95–117. <https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022893>
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-Efficacy: A Theoretical Analysis of Its Determinants and Malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(2), 183–211.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1992.4279530>
- Goldammer, P., Annen, H., Stöckli, P. L., & Jonas, K. (2020). Careless responding in questionnaire measures: Detection, impact, and remedies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 101384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2020.101384>
- Goller, M. (2017). *Human Agency at Work: An Active Approach towards Expertise Development*. Springer.

- 
- Goodman, L. A. (1961). Snowball Sampling. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 32(1), 148–170. JSTOR.
- Goodwin, V., Bowler, W., & Whittington, J. L. (2009). A Social Network Perspective on LMX Relationships: Accounting for the Instrumental Value of Leader and Follower Networks. *Journal of Management*, 35, 954–980. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308321555>
- Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 9, 175–208.
- Graen, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership: Development of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory of Leadership over 25 Years: Applying a Multi-Level Multi-Domain Perspective. *Management Department Faculty Publications*. <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/managementfacpub/57>
- Graham, J. W. (1986). Principled organizational dissent: A theoretical essay. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 8, 1–52.
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28(1), 3–34.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A New Model of Work Role Performance: Positive Behavior in Uncertain and Interdependent Contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(2), 327–347. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.24634438>
- Griffin, M. A., Parker, S. K., & Mason, C. M. (2010). Leader vision and the development of adaptive and proactive performance: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95, 174–182. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017263>
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 16(2), 250–279.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Addison-Wesley.
- Hamilton, V. L. (1978). Who is Responsible? Toward a Social Psychology of Responsibility Attribution. *Social Psychology*, 41(4), 316. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3033584>
- Han, T. Y., & Williams, K. J. (2008). Multilevel Investigation of Adaptive Performance: Individual- and Team-Level Relationships. *Group & Organization Management*, 33(6), 657–684. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601108326799>
- Harris, M. M., & Schaubroeck, J. (1988). A meta-analysis of self-supervisor, self-peer, and peer-supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(1), 43–62.
- Hartline, M. D., & Ferrell, O. C. (1996). The Management of Customer-Contact Service Employees: An Empirical Investigation. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(4), 52–70.
- Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2007). Personal initiative, commitment and affect at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(4), 601–622. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317906X171442>
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford Press.
- Helsedirektoratet. (2020a). *Anbefaler tiltak for å redusere antall reisende i rush-tiden—Helsedirektoratet*. <https://www.helsedirektoratet.no/nyheter/anbefaler-tiltak-for-a-reducere-antall-reisende-i-rush-tiden>
-

- 
- Helsedirektoratet. (2020b). *Helsedirektoratet stenger alle barnehager og skoler—Helsedirektoratet*. Helsedirektoratet.  
<https://www.helsedirektoratet.no/nyheter/helsedirektoratet-stenger-alle-barnehager-og-skoler>
- Hirschi, A., Lee, B., Porfeli, E. J., & Vondracek, F. W. (2013). Proactive motivation and engagement in career behaviors: Investigating direct, mediated, and moderated effects. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(1), 31–40.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.02.003>
- Hoffman, C. C., Nathan, B. R., & Holden, L. M. (1991). A comparison of validation criteria: Objective versus subjective performance measures and self-versus supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(3), 601–618.
- Hollander, E. P. (2009). *Inclusive leadership: The essential leader–follower relationship*. Routledge.
- Howard, A. (1995). *The changing nature of work*. Jossey-Bass.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The Role of Followers in the Charismatic Leadership Process: Relationships and Their Consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(1), 96–112. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2005.15281435>
- Hsieh, A. T., & Chao, H. Y. (2004). A reassessment of the relationship between job specialization, job rotation and job burnout: Example of Taiwan’s high-technology industry. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15, 1108–1123.
- Huang, J. L., Curran, P. G., Keeney, J., Poposki, E. M., & DeShon, R. P. (2012). Detecting and Deterring Insufficient Effort Responding to Surveys. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 27(1), 99–114.
- Hui, C. (1994). *Effects of leadership empowerment behaviors and followers’ personal control, voice, and self-efficacy on in-role and extra-role performance: An extension and empirical test of Conger and Kanungo’s empowerment process model*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University Bloomington.
- Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 269–277. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.269>
- Isen, A. M., & Reeve, J. (2005). The Influence of Positive Affect on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: Facilitating Enjoyment of Play, Responsible Work Behavior, and Self-Control. *Motivation and Emotion*, 29(4), 295–323. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-006-9019-8>
- Jimmieson, N. L., Terry, D. J., & Callan, V. J. (2004). A Longitudinal Study of Employee Adaptation to Organizational Change: The Role of Change-Related Information and Change-Related Self-Efficacy. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 9(1), 11–27. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.9.1.11>
- Johnson, J. A. (2005). Ascertaining the validity of individual protocols from Web-based personality inventories. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 39(1), 103–129.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2004.09.009>
- Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange: The relationship with employee turnover intentions and job satisfaction. *Leadership &*
-

- Organization Development Journal*, 32(3), 260–280.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/01437731111123915>
- Judge, T. A., Weiss, H. M., Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., & Hulin, C. L. (2017). Job attitudes, job satisfaction, and job affect: A century of continuity and of change. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), 356–374. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000181>
- Jundt, D. K., Shoss, M. K., & Huang, J. L. (2015). Individual adaptive performance in organizations: A review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1), 53–71.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological Conditions of Personal Engagement and Disengagement at Work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4), 692–724.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/256287>
- Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The change masters: Innovation for productivity in the American corporation*. Simon and Schuster.
- Kark, R., Shamir, B., & Chen, G. (2003). The Two Faces of Transformational Leadership: Empowerment and Dependency. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 246–255.
- Kelly, J. (2020). *The Massive Work-From-Home COVID-19 Test Was A Great Success And Will Be The New Norm*. Forbes.  
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2020/05/11/the-massive-work-from-home-covid-19-test-was-a-great-success-and-will-be-the-new-norm/>
- Kiffin-Petersen, S., & Cordery, J. (2003). Trust, individualism and job characteristics as predictors of employee preference for teamwork. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 93–116. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190210158538>
- Kim, T. Y., Liu, Z. Q., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2015). Leader-member exchange and job performance: The effects of taking charge and organizational tenure. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(2), 216–231. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1971>
- Knoop, R. (1995). Relationships Among Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment for Nurses. *The Journal of Psychology*, 129(6), 643–649.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1995.9914935>
- Koestner, R., & Losier, G. F. (2002). Distinguishing three ways of being highly motivated: A closer look at introjection, identification, and intrinsic motivation. I *Handbook of self-determination research* (s. 101–121). University of Rochester Press.
- Kuvaas, B., Buch, R., Dysvik, A., & Haerem, T. (2012). Economic and social leader–member exchange relationships and follower performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 756–765. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.12.013>
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2005). A Review of Transformational School Leadership Research 1996–2005. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4(3), 177–199.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15700760500244769>
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Gore Jr., P. A. (1997). Discriminant and predictive validity of academic self-concept, academic self-efficacy, and mathematics-specific self-efficacy. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 44(3), 307–315. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.44.3.307>
- Levy, P. S., & Lemeshow, S. (2008). *Sampling of Populations: Methods and Applications* (4th ed., Wiley series in survey methodology). Wiley. <https://www-dawsonera-com.ezproxy.library.bi.no/readonline/9780470374580>



- 
- Li, W., Fay, D., Frese, M., Harms, P., & Gao, X. (2014). Reciprocal Relationship Between Proactive Personality and Work Characteristics: A Latent Change Score Approach. *P. D. Harms Publications*, 99(5). <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/pdharms/3>
- Lieberman, N., & Trope, Y. (1998). The Role of Feasibility and Desirability Considerations in Near and Distant Future Decisions: A Test of Temporal Construal Theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 5–18.
- Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model of Leadership. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), 451–465. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/255511>
- Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. I *Research in personnel and human resources management*, Vol. 15 (s. 47–119). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Lin, S., Lu, W., Chen, M., & Chen, L. (2014). Association Between Proactive Personality and Academic Self-Efficacy. *Current Psychology*, 33. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-014-9231-8>
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.
- Mager, R. F., & Pipe, P. (1970). *Analyzing Performance Problems; o*.
- Marques-Quinteiro, P., & Curral, L. A. (2012). Goal Orientation and Work Role Performance: Predicting Adaptive and Proactive Work Role Performance Through Self-Leadership Strategies. *The Journal of Psychology*, 146(6), 559–577. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2012.656157>
- Martin, R., Guillaume, Y., Thomas, G., Lee, A., & Epitropaki, O. (2016). Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) and Performance: A Meta-Analytic Review. *Personnel Psychology*, 69(1), 67–121. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12100>
- Martin, R., Thomas, G., Charles, K., Epitropaki, O., & McNamara, R. (2005). The role of leader-member exchanges in mediating the relationship between locus of control and work reactions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(1), 141–147. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317904X23763>
- McAllister, D. W., Mitchell, T. R., & Beach, L. R. (1979). The contingency model for the selection of decision strategies: An empirical test of the effects of significance, accountability, and reversibility. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 24, 228–224.
- McGrath, R. E., Mitchell, M., Kim, B. H., & Hough, L. (2010). Evidence for response bias as a source of error variance in applied assessment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 136(3), 450–470. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019216>
- Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological methods*, 17(3), 437–455.
- Mills, P. K., & Ungson, G. R. (2003). Reassessing the Limits of Structural Empowerment: Organizational Constitution and Trust as Controls. *The Academy of Management Review*, 28(1), 143–153. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/30040694>
- Moon, H., Hollenbeck, J. R., Humphrey, S. E., Ilgen, D. R., West, B., Ellis, A. P. J., & Porter, C. O. L. H. (2004). Asymmetric adaptability: Dynamic team structures as one-way streets. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47, 681–695.
-

- 
- Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking Charge at Work: Extrarole Efforts to Initiate Workplace Change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(4), 403–419.  
<https://doi.org/10.5465/257011>
- Murphy, P. R., & Jackson, S. E. (1999). Managing work-role performance: Challenges for 21st century organizations and followers. In D.R. Ilgen, & Pulakos (Eds.). *The changing nature of work performance*, 325–365.
- Murphy, S. E., & Ensher, E. A. (1999). The Effects of Leader and Subordinate Characteristics in the Development of Leader–Member Exchange Quality<sup>1</sup>. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(7), 1371–1394. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb00144.x>
- Natanovich, G., & Eden, D. (2001, april). *Pygmalion effects among outreach supervisors and tutors: Extending gender and ethnic generalizability*. 16th annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego.
- Neves, P. (2009). Readiness for Change: Contributions for Employee’s Level of Individual Change and Turnover Intentions. *Journal of Change Management*, 9(2), 215–231.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14697010902879178>
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (2007). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd edition). McGraw-Hill.
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making Things Happen: A Model of Proactive Motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827–856.
- Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking Stock: Integrating and Differentiating Multiple Proactive Behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 36(3), 633–662.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308321554>
- Parker, S. K., & Turner, N. (2002). Work design and individual work performance: Research findings and an agenda for future inquiry. *Psychological management of individual performance*, 69–93.
- Parker, S. K., Wall, T. D., & Cordery, J. L. (2001). Future work design research and practice: Towards an elaborated model of work design. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74(4), 413–440.  
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317901167460>
- Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 636–652.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.636>
- Petrou, P., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2018). Crafting the Change: The Role of Employee Job Crafting Behaviors for Successful Organizational Change. *Journal of Management*, 44(5), 1766–1792. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315624961>
- Ployhart, R. E., & Bliese, P. D. (2006). Individual Adaptability (I-ADAPT) Theory: Conceptualizing the Antecedents, Consequences, and Measurement of Individual Differences in Adaptability. *Understanding Adaptability: A Prerequisite for Effective Performance within Complex Environments* (Bd. 6, s. 3–39). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3601\(05\)06001-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1479-3601(05)06001-7)
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 513–563.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(00\)00047-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(00)00047-7)
-

- 
- Portoghese, I., Galletta, M., Battistelli, A., & Leiter, M. P. (2015). *A multilevel investigation on nursing turnover intention: The cross-level role of leader-member exchange*. 23(6), 754–764. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12205>
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879–891.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing Moderated Mediation Hypotheses: Theory, Methods, and Prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42(1), 185–227. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00273170701341316>
- Pulakos, E. D., Arad, S., Donovan, M. A., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(4), 612–624. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.4.612>
- Pulakos, E. D., Schmitt, N., Dorsey, D. W., Arad, S., Borman, W. C., & Hedge, J. W. (2002). Predicting Adaptive Performance: Further Tests of a Model of Adaptability. *Human Performance*, 15(4), 299–323. [https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1504\\_01](https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327043HUP1504_01)
- Puspitasari, D. A., & Mangundjaya, W. L. (2019). Leader–Member Exchange and Affective Commitment to Change: Mediating Role of Change Self-Efficacy. *Education and Humanities Research*, 431.
- Rank, J., Pace, V. L., & Frese, M. (2004). Three Avenues for Future Research on Creativity, Innovation, and Initiative. *Applied Psychology*, 53(4), 518–528. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2004.00185.x>
- Raphael, K. G., & Cloitre, M. (1994). Does mood-congruence or causal search govern recall bias? A test of life event recall. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 47(5), 555–564. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-4356\(94\)90302-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-4356(94)90302-6)
- Reina, C. S., Rogers, K. M., Peterson, S. J., Byron, K., & Hom, P. W. (2018). Quitting the Boss? The Role of Manager Influence Tactics and Employee Emotional Engagement in Voluntary Turnover. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 25(1), 5–18.
- Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job Engagement: Antecedents and Effects on Job performance. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 53(3), 617–635. JSTOR.
- Richard, P. J., Devinney, T. M., Yip, G. S., & Johnson, G. (2009). Measuring Organizational Performance: Towards Methodological Best Practice. *Journal of Management*, 35(3), 718–804. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308330560>
- Ryan, L. (2017). *Empowering Adaptive Performance through Trait Activation: A Leader's Impact* [Doctoral dissertation, Saint Louis University]. <http://search.proquest.com/openview/e271cac16a0705c7160eaa5cb4cbae3f/1?cbl=18750&diss=y&pq-origsite=gscholar>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54–67. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1020>
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600–619. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940610690169>
- Salanova, M., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). A cross-national study of work engagement as a mediator between job resources and proactive behaviour. *The International Journal of*
-

- 
- Human Resource Management*, 19(1), 116–131.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190701763982>
- Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., & Bakker, A. B. (2006). Dr Jekyll or Mr Hyde? On the differences between work engagement and workaholism. I *Research companion to working time and work addiction* (s. 193–217). Edward Elgar Publishing.  
<https://doi.org/10.4337/9781847202833.00018>
- Schriesheim, C. A., Neider, L. L., & Scandura, T. A. (1998). Delegation and Leader-Member Exchange: Main Effects, Moderators, and Measurement Issues. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 41(3), 298–318.
- Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. (1987). Organizational strategy and organization level as determinants of human resource management practices. *Human Resource Planning*, 10(3), 125–141.
- Schyns, B. (2001). The relationship between employees' self-monitoring and occupational self-efficacy and transformational leadership. *Current research in social psychology*., 7(3), 30–42.
- Schyns, B., & Von Collani, G. (2002). A new occupational self-efficacy scale and its relation to personality constructs and organizational variables. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11(2), 219–241.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320244000148>
- Scott, S., & Bruce, R. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 580–628.
- Seibert, S. E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of applied psychology*, 84(3), 416–427.
- Seibert, S. E., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. H. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(5), 981–1003. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022676>
- Seo, M. G., Bartunek, J. M., & Barrett, L. F. (2010). The role of affective experience in work motivation: Test of a conceptual model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(7), 951–968. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.655>
- Shore, L. M., Tetrick, L. E., Lynch, P., & Barksdale, K. (2006). Social and Economic Exchange: Construct Development and Validation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36(4), 837–867. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00046.x>
- Sparrowe, R. T., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Process and structure in leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review*, 22(2).  
<https://search.proquest.com/openview/83ebb9083fdbfe50d786a559602895d3/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=37198>
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). An empirical test of a comprehensive model of intrapersonal empowerment in the workplace. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 23(5), 601–629. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02506984>
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1996). Social Structural Characteristics of Psychological Empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(2), 483–504. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256789>
-

- Strauss, K., Griffin, M. A., Parker, S. K., & Mason, C. M. (2015). Building and Sustaining Proactive Behaviors: The Role of Adaptivity and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 30*, 63–72.
- Sujan, H., Weitz, B. A., & Kumar, N. (1994). Learning Orientation, Working Smart, and Effective Selling. *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3), 39–52.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299405800303>
- Tetlock, P. E. (1983). Accountability and complexity of thought. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*, 74–83.
- Thomas, K., & Tymon, W. (1994). Does empowerment always work? Understanding the role of intrinsic motivation and personal interpretation. *Journal of Management Systems, 6*(1), 1–13.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive Elements of Empowerment: An «Interpretive» Model of Intrinsic Task Motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 15*(4), 666–681.
- Thompson, J. A. (2005). Proactive Personality and Job Performance: A Social Capital Perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(5), 1011–1017.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.1011>
- Tornau, K., & Frese, M. (2013). Construct Clean-Up in Proactivity Research: A Meta-Analysis on the Nomological Net of Work-Related Proactivity Concepts and their Incremental Validities. *Applied Psychology, 62*(1), 44–96.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2012.00514.x>
- Tuckey, M. R., Bakker, A. B., & Dollard, M. F. (2012). Empowering Leaders Optimize Working Conditions for Engagement: A Multilevel Study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*(1), 15–27.
- Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2001). Identity and cooperative behavior in groups. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 4*(3), 207–226.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Maslyn, J. M. (2003). Reciprocity in Manager-Subordinate Relationships: Components, Configurations, and Outcomes. *Journal of Management, 29*(4), 511–532. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(03\)00023-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(03)00023-0)
- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(4), 765–802.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. John Wiley.
- Wall, T. D., Cordery, J. L., & Clegg, C. W. (2002). Empowerment, Performance, and Operational Uncertainty: A Theoretical Integration. *Applied Psychology, 51*(1), 146–169. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00083>
- Walumbwa, F. O., Cropanzano, R., & Hartnell, C. A. (2009). Organizational justice, voluntary learning behavior, and job performance: A test of the mediating effects of identification and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30*(8), 1103–1126. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.611>
- Walumbwa, F. O., Mayer, D. M., Wang, P., Wang, H., Workman, K., & Christensen, A. L. (2011). Linking ethical leadership to employee performance: The roles of leader-member exchange, self-efficacy, and organizational identification. *Organizational*

- Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 115(2), 204–213.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.11.002>
- Wanberg, C. R., & Banas, J. T. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of openness to changes in a reorganizing workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(1), 132–142.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.1.132>
- Wang, G., Oh, I. S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & organization management*, 36(2), 223–270.
- Wang, H. J., Lu, C. Q., & Siu, O. L. (2015). Job insecurity and job performance: The moderating role of organizational justice and the mediating role of work engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(4), 1249–1258. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038330>
- Wang, Z., Zhang, J., Thomas, C. L., Yu, J., & Spitzmueller, C. (2017). Explaining benefits of employee proactive personality: The role of engagement, team proactivity composition and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 101, 90–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.04.002>
- Way, S. A., Tracey, J. B., Fay, C. H., Wright, P. M., Snell, S. A., Chang, S., & Gong, Y. (2015). Validation of a Multidimensional HR Flexibility Measure. *Journal of Management*, 41(4), 1098–1131. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312463940>
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived Organizational Support and Leader-Member Exchange: A Social Exchange Perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82–111. <https://doi.org/10.5465/257021>
- Welbourne, T. M., Johnson, D. E., & Erez, A. (1998). The Role-Based Performance Scale: Validity Analysis of a Theory-Based Measure. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5), 540–555. JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/256941>
- Wellins, R. S. (1991). *Empowered Teams: Creating Self-Directed Work Groups That Improve Quality, Productivity, and Participation. First Edition*. Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Williams, H. M., Parker, S. K., & Turner, N. (2010). Proactively performing teams: The role of work design, transformational leadership, and team composition. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 301–324.  
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317910X502494>
- Xue, Y., Bradley, J., & Liang, H. (2011). Team climate, empowering leadership, and knowledge sharing. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 15(2), 299–312.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/13673271111119709>
- Yukl, G., & Lepsinger, R. (2004). *Flexible Leadership: Creating Value by Balancing Multiple Challenges and Choices* (Bd. 223). John Wiley & Sons.
- Yukl, G., & Tracey, J. B. (1992). Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(4), 525–535.  
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.4.525>
- Zhang, M. J., Law, K. S., & Lin, B. (2016). You think you are big fish in a small pond? Perceived overqualification, goal orientations, and proactivity at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(1), 61–84. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2024>
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(1), 107–128.

## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Survey Questionnaire

#### Spørreundersøkelse til vår masteroppgave

Hei,

Som følge av COVID-19, også kjent som koronavirus, har en stor del arbeidstakere måtte endre sin måte å arbeide på. Dette har implikasjoner og utfordringer knyttet til hvordan arbeid blir utført og koordinert mellom ansatte. Blant annet er hjemmekontor, virtuelle møter og multitasking mellom private og profesjonelle arbeidsoppgaver noe som preger arbeidshverdagen til mange.

Hensikten med denne undersøkelsen er å samle inn data til vår masteroppgave i Ledelse og Organisasjonspsykologi. I denne undersøkelsen er vi interessert i å se på forholdet mellom ledelse og ansattes reaksjon og respons på dagens endringer. Kort oppsummert undersøker vi hvordan ledere som gir sine ansatte ansvar og myndighet ("*empowerment*") under endringer henger sammen med ansattes tilpasningsdyktighet.

I undersøkelsen blir du bedt om å svare på flere spørsmål ved hjelp av faste svaralternativer. Det er ingen riktige eller feil svar. Oppgi det svaralternativet du mener passer best. Vennligst svar på alle spørsmålene.

Svarene dine er anonyme og vil bli behandlet med streng konfidensialitet, og ingen svar vil kunne spores tilbake til deg. Svarene vil kun bli benyttet til vår masteroppgave, ikke andre formål og er kun tilgjengelig for oss og vår veileder. Det vil ta omtrent 5 min å gjennomføre undersøkelsen.

Deltakelsen er helt frivillig!

Tusen takk for at du deltar i undersøkelsen!

For å kunne analysere svarene på en god måte trenger vi først noe **generell bakgrunnsinformasjon**.

Din kjønnsidentitet:

- Kvinne
- Mann
- Annen

Din alder:

- Under 29 år
- 30-39 år
- 40-49 år
- 50-59 år
- 60-69 år
- 70 år eller eldre

Din høyeste fullførte utdanning (grad):

- Videregående skole
- Bachelorgrad
- Mastergrad/hovedfag eller høyere

Hvilken bransje jobber du i?

- Jordbruk, skogbruk og fiske
- Industri
- Bygge- og anleggsvirksomhet
- Varehandel
- Transport og lagring
- Overnattings- og serveringsvirksomhet
- Informasjon og kommunikasjon
- Finansierings- og forsikringsvirksomhet
- Omsetning og drift av fast eiendom
- Faglig, vitenskapelig og teknisk tjenesteyting
- Forretningsmessig tjenesteyting
- Offentlig administrasjon og forsvar
- Undervisning
- Helse- og sosialtjenester
- Kulturell virksomhet, underholdning og fritidsaktiviteter
- Annet

Hvilken stilling har du?

- Håndverker
- Ingeniør
- Selger/Kundeservice
- Helsepersonell
- Resepsjon/Sekretær/Sentralbord
- Økonomi/Regnskap/Revisjon/Controller/Lønn
- Konsulent/Rådgiver
- Leder/Prosjektleder
- Selvstendig næringsdrivende
- Annet



Hvor lenge har du jobbet i organisasjonen din?

- Under ett år
- 1-2 år
- 3-5 år
- 6-10 år
- Mer enn 10 år

Hvor lenge har du jobbet med din nærmeste leder?

- Under ett år
- 1-2 år
- 3-5 år
- 6-10 år
- Mer enn 10 år

Til tross for omstendighetene knyttet til COVID-19, hvilke(n) type endring(er) har du stått overfor?  
Du kan krysse av for flere.

- Hjemmekontor
- Tatt i bruk ny teknologi
- Fått nye arbeidsoppgaver
- Fått færre arbeidsoppgaver
- Benyttet meg av nye metoder for å gjennomføre eksisterende oppgaver
- Lært meg noe nytt knyttet til jobben
- Fått ny leder å forholde meg til
- Endret rollefordeling i avdelingen
- Nye måter å samarbeide med kolleger/kunder på
- Fått mer ansvar
- Fått mindre ansvar
- Arbeidet med nye produkter eller tjenester
- Endret arbeidstid
- Andre endringer

Med den **nye måten å jobbe på** sett i lys av COVID-19. I hvilken grad du er enig følgende påstander:

	Hverken enig				
	Svært uenig	Uenig	eller uenig	Enig	Svært enig
Uansett hva endringen betyr for meg, er jeg sikker på at jeg kan takle det	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg er usikker på om jeg kan få til alt som kreves av meg under de nye omstendighetene	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har grunn til å tro at jeg ikke vil gjøre jobben min like bra under de nye omstendighetene	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Selv om jeg trenger litt trening, er jeg ikke i tvil om at jeg kommer til å gjøre jobben min bra nok i perioden vi må jobbe hjemmefra	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg føler et personlig ansvar for at bedriften jeg jobber i lykkes med	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

endringene som  
er nødvendige

---

Jeg føler at det  
er opp til meg å  
mestre de nye  
måtene jeg må  
jobbe på

---

Jeg føler meg  
forpliktet til å  
innføre de nye  
arbeidsmetodene  
som situasjonen  
krever

---

Jeg føler lite  
ansvar til å  
utfordre eller  
endre hvordan  
jeg jobber

---

Jeg er  
entusiastisk over  
å jobbe  
hjemmefra i  
denne perioden

---

Jeg er begeistret  
over at jeg nå  
må jobbe på nye  
måter

---

Jeg er interessert  
i å jobbe på de  
nye måtene

---

Jeg er positiv til  
endringene som  
skjer

Med din **personlighet** i tankene, i hvilken grad du er enig følgende påstander:

	Hverken enig				
	Svært uenig	Uenig	eller uenig	Enig	Svært enig
Jeg er stadig på utkikk etter nye måter å forbedre livet mitt på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enhver jobb, har jeg alltid hatt en stor interesse for konstruktiv endring	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ingenting er mer spennende enn å se ideene mine bli til virkelighet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hvis jeg ser noe jeg ikke liker, fikser jeg det	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uansett odds, om jeg har troen på noe, vil jeg gjennomføre det	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg elsker å stå for mine egne ideer, selv om andre mener noe annet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

Jeg er god på å identifisere muligheter	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg leter alltid etter bedre måter å gjøre ting på	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hvis jeg tror på en ide, vil ingenting hindre meg i å gjennomføre den	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg kan se en god mulighet lenge før andre kan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

Tenk på **støtten** du får fra din nærmeste leder.

Under dagens omstendigheter, i hvilken grad du er enig følgende påstander:

	Hverken enig				
	Svært uenig	Uenig	eller uenig	Enig	Svært enig
Lederen min hjelper meg å forstå hvordan mine oppgaver og mål henger sammen med organisasjonens mål	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lederen min hjelper meg med å forstå viktigheten av arbeidet mitt for organisasjonens generelle effektivitet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lederen min hjelper meg med å forstå hvordan jobben min passer inn i det større bildet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lederen min tar mange beslutninger sammen med meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lederen min inkluderer meg ofte i	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

---

strategiske  
beslutninger

---

Lederen min  
ber om min  
mening på  
beslutninger  
som kan  
påvirke meg

---

Lederen min  
har troen på at  
jeg kan takle  
krevende  
oppgaver

---

Lederen min  
har troen på  
min evne til å  
forbedre meg -  
også når jeg  
gjør feil

---

Lederen min  
uttrykker tillit  
til at jeg kan  
prestere på et  
høyt nivå

---

Lederen min lar  
meg gjøre  
jobben min på  
den måten jeg  
selv mener er  
best

---

Lederen min  
gjør det enklere  
for meg å gjøre  
jobben min ved  
å minimere  
regler og krav

til hvordan jeg  
gjør det

Lederen min  
delegerer  
ansvar til meg  
når jeg er tett  
knyttet til det  
som skal  
beslattes

---





Tenk på **relasjonen** du har med din nærmeste leder. I hvilken grad du er enig følgende påstander:

	Hverken enig				
	Svært uenig	Uenig	eller uenig	Enig	Svært enig
Mitt forhold til min nærmeste leder er basert på gjensidig tillit	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Min nærmeste leder har investert mye i meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg forsøker å bidra til å ivareta min nærmeste leders interesser fordi jeg stoler på at han eller hun vil ta godt vare på meg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg tror at den innsatsen jeg legger ned i jobben vil være fordelaktig for relasjonen til min nærmeste leder	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

De siste spørsmålene handler om hvordan du engasjerer deg over endringene som foregår. Med tanke på å jobbe hjemmefra i denne perioden, vennligst oppgi hvor enig du er i følgende påstander:

	Hverken enig				
	Svært uenig	Uenig	eller uenig	Enig	Svært enig
Jeg har respondert konstruktivt på endringene	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har tilpasset meg de nye endringene på en god måte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har håndtert de nye endringene effektivt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har lært meg nye ferdigheter som hjelper meg med å tilpasse meg til de nye endringene	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har tatt på meg nye roller for å hjelpe avdelingen min med å tilpasse seg endringene	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jeg har satt i gang bedre måter å gjennomføre	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

arbeidet mitt  
på

Jeg har bidratt  
med ideer for å  
forbedre måten  
arbeidet mitt er  
gjennomført på

For å kunne  
jobbe mer  
effektivt, har  
jeg gjort  
endringer i  
måten jeg  
jobber på

Jeg har  
utviklet nye og  
bedre metoder  
for å hjelpe  
min avdeling å  
prestere bedre  
i disse tider

**Appendix 2: Adapted Measures and Items**

<b>VARIABLE</b>	<b>ORIGINAL MEASURE</b>	<b>ADAPTED MEASURES TRANSLATED TO NORWEGIAN</b>	<b>ADAPTED MEASURES TRANSLATED TO ENGLISH</b>	<b>SOURCE</b>
CRSE_1	Wherever the restructuring takes me, I'm sure I can handle it	Uansett hva endringen betyr for meg, er jeg sikker på at jeg kan takle det	No matter what the change means to me, I'm sure I can handle it	Wanberg & Banas (2000)
CRSE_2	I get nervous that I may not be able to do all that is demanded of me by the restructuring	Jeg er usikker på om jeg kan få til alt som kreves av meg under de nye omstendighetene	I am unsure if I can achieve everything that is required of me under the new circumstances	Wanberg & Banas (2000)
CRSE_3	I have reason to believe I may not perform well in my job situation following the restructuring	Jeg har grunn til å tro at jeg ikke vil gjøre jobben min like bra under de nye omstendighetene	I have reason to believe that I will not do my job just as well under the new circumstances	Wanberg & Banas (2000)
CRSE_4	Though I may need some training, I have little doubt I can perform well following the restructuring	Selv om jeg trenger litt trening, er jeg ikke i tvil om at jeg kommer til å gjøre jobben min bra nok i perioden vi må jobbe hjemmefra	Although I need some training, I have no doubt that I will do my job well enough in the period we have to work from home	Wanberg & Banas (2000)
FR_1	I feel a personal sense of responsibility to bring about change at work	Jeg føler et personlig ansvar for at bedriften jeg jobber i lykkes med endringene som er nødvendige	I feel a personal responsibility for the company I work for succeeds with the necessary changes	Morrison & Phelps (1999)
FR_2	It's up to me to bring about improvement in my workplace	Jeg føler at det er opp til meg å mestre de	I feel it is up to me to master the new ways I have to work on	Morrison & Phelps (1999)

		nye måtene jeg må jobbe på		
FR_3	I feel obligated to try to introduce new procedures where appropriate	Jeg føler meg forpliktet til å innføre de nye arbeidsmetodene som situasjonen krever	I feel obligated to introduce the new working methods that the situation requires	Morrison & Phelps (1999)
FR_4	I feel little obligation to challenge or change the status quo	Jeg føler lite ansvar til å utfordre eller endre hvordan jeg jobber	I feel little responsibility to challenge or change how I work	Morrison & Phelps (1999)
EE_1	I am enthusiastic about new changes	Jeg er entusiastisk over å jobbe hjemmefra i denne perioden	I am enthusiastic about working from home during this period	Rich, Lepine, & Crawford (2010)
EE_2	I look forward to working on the new tasks	Jeg er begeistret over at jeg nå må jobbe på nye måter	I am thrilled that I have to work in new ways	Rich, Lepine, & Crawford (2010)
EE_3	I am interested in working in a multidisciplinary team	Jeg er interessert i å jobbe på de nye måtene	I am interested in working in the new ways	Rich, Lepine, & Crawford (2010)
EE_4	I am positive about the change that is happening	Jeg er positiv til endringene som skjer	I am positive about the changes that are happening	Rich, Lepine, & Crawford (2010)
PP_1	I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life	Jeg er stadig på utkikk etter nye måter å forbedre livet mitt på	I am constantly looking for new ways to improve my life	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_2	Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change	I enhver jobb, har jeg alltid hatt en stor interesse for konstruktiv endring	In any job, I've always had a great interest in constructive change	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)

PP_3	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality	Ingenting er mer spennende enn å se ideene mine bli til virkelighet	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turns into reality	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_4	If I see something I don't like, I fix it	Hvis jeg ser noe jeg ikke liker, fikser jeg det	If I see something I don't like, I fix it	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_5	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen	Uansett odds, om jeg har troen på noe, vil jeg gjennomføre det	No matter what the odds, if I have faith in something, I will make it happen	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_6	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition	Jeg elsker å stå for mine egne ideer, selv om andre mener noe annet	I love to stand for my own ideas, even if others think otherwise	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_7	I excel at identifying opportunities	Jeg er god på å identifisere muligheter	I am good at identifying opportunities	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_8	I am always looking for better ways to do things	Jeg leter alltid etter bedre måter å gjøre ting på	I'm always looking for better ways to do things	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_9	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen	Hvis jeg tror på en ide, vil ingenting hindre meg i å gjennomføre den	If I believe in an idea, nothing will stop me from implementing it	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
PP_10	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can	Jeg kan se en god mulighet lenge før andre kan	I can see a good opportunity long before others can	Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer (1999)
EL_1	My manager helps me understand how my objectives and	Lederen min hjelper meg å forstå hvordan mine oppgaver og mål henger sammen	My manager helps me understand how my tasks and goals are related to the	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)

	goals relate to that of the company	med organisasjonens mål	goals of the organization	
EL_2	My manager helps me understand the importance of my work for the overall effectiveness of the organization	Lederen min hjelper meg med å forstå viktigheten av arbeidet mitt for organisasjonens generelle effektivitet	My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the organization	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_3	My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture	Lederen min hjelper meg med å forstå hvordan jobben min passer inn i det større bildet	My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_4	My manager makes many decisions with me	Lederen min tar mange beslutninger sammen med meg	My manager makes many decisions with me	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_5	My manager often consults me on strategic decisions	Lederen min inkluderer meg ofte i strategiske beslutninger	My manager often includes me in strategic decisions	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_6	My manager asks for my opinion on decisions that may affect me	Lederen min ber om min mening på beslutninger som kan påvirke meg	My manager asks for my opinion on decisions that may affect me	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_7	My manager has the belief that I can cope with demanding tasks	Lederen min har troen på at jeg kan takle krevende oppgaver	My manager has the belief that I can cope with demanding tasks	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_8	My manager has faith in my ability to improve me, even when I make mistakes	Lederen min har troen på min evne til å forbedre meg - også når jeg gjør feil	My manager has faith in my ability to improve me - even when I make mistakes	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_9	My manager expresses my	Lederen min uttrykker tillit til at	My manager expresses confidence	Ahearne, Mathieu, &

	confidence that I can perform at a high level	jeg kan prestere på et høyt nivå	that I can perform at a high level	Rapp (2005)
EL_10	My manager lets me do my job the way I think is best	Lederen min lar meg gjøre jobben min på den måten jeg selv mener er best	My manager lets me do my job the way I think is best	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_11	My manager makes it easier for me to do my job by minimizing rules and requirements on how I do it	Lederen min gjør det enklere for meg å gjøre jobben min ved å minimere regler og krav til hvordan jeg gjør det	My manager makes it easier for me to do my job by minimizing rules and requirements on how I do it	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
EL_12	My manager delegates responsibility to me when I am closely connected to what is to be decided	Lederen min delegerer ansvar til meg når jeg er tett knyttet til det som skal besluttes	My manager delegates responsibility to me when I am closely related to what is to be decided	Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp (2005)
SLMX_1	My relationship with my closest manager is based on mutual trust	Mitt forhold til min nærmeste leder er basert på gjensidig tillit	My relationship with my closest manager is based on mutual trust	Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Hærem (2012)
SLMX_2	My closest manager has invested a lot in me	Min nærmeste leder har investert mye i meg	My closest manager has invested a lot in me	Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Hærem (2012)
SLMX_3	I try to look out for the best interest of my manager because I can rely on my manager to take care of me	Jeg forsøker å bidra til å ivareta min nærmeste leders interesser fordi jeg stoler på at han eller hun vil ta godt vare på meg	I try to help and protect my closest manager's interests because I trust that he or she will take good care of me	Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Hærem (2012)



SLMX_4	I believe that the effort I put into the job will be beneficial for my relationship with my closest manager	Jeg tror at den innsatsen jeg legger ned i jobben vil være fordelaktig for relasjonen til min nærmeste leder	I believe that the effort I put into the job will be beneficial to the relationship with my closest manager	Kuvaas, Buch, Dysvik, & Hærem (2012)
TA_1	I have responded constructively to the changes	Jeg har respondert konstruktivt på endringene	I have responded constructively to the changes	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TA_2	I have adapted well to changes	Jeg har tilpasset meg de nye endringene på en god måte	I have adapted to the new changes in a good way	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TA_3	I have dealt effectively with changes	Jeg har håndtert de nye endringene effektivt	I have handled the new changes effectively	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TA_4	I have learned new skills to help me adapt to the changes	Jeg har lært meg nye ferdigheter som hjelper meg med å tilpasse meg til de nye endringene	I have learned new skills that help me adapt to the new changes	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TA_5	I have taken on new roles to help my work unit adapt to the changes	Jeg har tatt på meg nye roller for å hjelpe avdelingen min med å tilpasse seg endringene	I have taken on new roles to help my department adapt to the changes	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TP_1	I have initiated better ways of doing my work	Jeg har satt i gang bedre måter å gjennomføre arbeidet mitt på	I have put in place better ways to carry out my work	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TP_2	I have come up with ideas to improve the way in which my work is done	Jeg har bidratt med ideer for å forbedre måten arbeidet mitt er gjennomført på	I have contributed with ideas to improve the way my work is done	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)

---

TP_3	I have made changes to the way my work in order to work more effectively	For å kunne jobbe mer effektivt, har jeg gjort endringer i måten jeg jobber på	In order to work more efficiently, I have made changes to the way I work	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)
TP_4	I have developed new and improved methods to help my work unit perform better in these times	Jeg har utviklet nye og bedre metoder for å hjelpe min avdeling å prestere bedre i disse tider	I have developed new and better methods to help my department perform better during these times	Griffin, Neal, & Parker (2007)

**Appendix 3: Principal Component Analysis with Promax Rotation**

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CRSE_1	<u>.571</u>									
CRSE_2	<u>.742</u>									
CRSE_3	<u>.746</u>									
CRSE_4								.606		
FR_1		<u>.684</u>								
FR_2		<u>.810</u>								
FR_3		<u>.792</u>								
FR_4										<u>.766</u>
EE_1			<u>.780</u>							
EE_2			<u>.805</u>							
EE_3			<u>.844</u>							
EE_4			<u>.804</u>							
PP_1				<u>.752</u>						
PP_2				<u>.794</u>						
PP_3				<u>.666</u>						
PP_4				<u>.513</u>						
PP_5					<u>.796</u>					
PP_6					<u>.601</u>					
PP_7				<u>.615</u>						
PP_8				<u>.625</u>						
PP_9					<u>.779</u>					
PP_10				<u>.362</u>	<u>.430</u>					
EL_1							<u>.957</u>			
EL_2							<u>.892</u>			
EL_3							<u>.910</u>			
EL_4							<u>.565</u>			
EL_6						<u>.456</u>	<u>.410</u>			
EL_7						<u>.833</u>				
EL_8						<u>.658</u>				
EL_9						<u>.822</u>				
EL_10						<u>.878</u>				
EL_11						<u>.764</u>				
EL_12						<u>.733</u>				
SLMX_1						<u>.517</u>				
SLMX_2							<u>.622</u>			
SLMX_3							<u>.618</u>			
SLMX_4							<u>.452</u>			
TA_1								<u>.563</u>		
TA_2								<u>.764</u>		
TA_3								<u>.736</u>		
TA_4									<u>.731</u>	
TA_5									<u>.579</u>	
TP_1									<u>.653</u>	
TP_2									<u>.747</u>	
TP_3									<u>.789</u>	
TP_4									<u>.619</u>	

*Factor loadings less than .350 are not shown. Only underlined loadings are included in the final dataset. Items: CRSE = Change-Related Self-Efficacy, FR = Felt Responsibility for Change, EE = Emotional Engagement, PP = Proactive Personality, EL = Empowering Leadership, SLMX = Social Leader-Member Exchange, TA = Task Adaptivity, and TP = Task Proactivity.*