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*Leader Empowering Behavior: How do Trust and
Leader-Subordinate Congruence in Personal
Need for Structure Influence a Leader's
Motivation to Empower?*

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Abstract

An important part of understanding leader empowering behavior is to establish its determinants. By understanding its determinants, leaders can become aware of what may influence their behavior, both unconsciously and consciously. This study therefore explores leader empowering behavior in relation to such assumed determinants in order to test if they have an impact on exercising leader empowering behavior. Our chosen determinants for this study are related to empowerment in both new ways and in old ways. The new angle is to look into similarity in personality characteristics, and more specifically personal need for structure. The old angle is linking trust to empowerment, which have been done in several previous studies. However, we have chosen to follow a more recent approach and look at leader's trust in subordinates as a determinant. We propose that personality similarity in personal need for structure will lead to more trust in subordinates, and that higher trust again will influence leader empowering behavior. We justify this approach by previous researchers' findings that personality similarities lead to more trust, and from indications that trust between leader and subordinate is likely to lead to leader empowering behavior. We further intend to establish if there is a direct relationship between personality similarities and leader empowering behavior, hence a direct relationship between similarity in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior.

Contrary to our expectations, and previous research supporting a positive influence of similarity in individual differences, leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure did not influence trust nor leader empowering behavior. Rather, our findings reveal that subordinates' levels of personal need for structure appear to play an important role for leaders' trust in subordinates, however not in relation to the display of leader empowering behavior. An elaborative discussion of our findings is shared along with possible limitations and directions for further research.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Table of Contents.....	iii
Introduction.....	1
Theoretical background and hypotheses.....	7
Methodology.....	17
Results.....	23
Discussion and future research.....	31
Limitations and strengths.....	39
Conclusion.....	41
References.....	44
Appendices.....	53

Introduction

During the last decades, forms of leadership that are more motivational in nature have emerged, empowering leadership being one of them (Yukl, 2010). This has to a certain extent altered the general vision of leadership, and along with this change, leaders' roles and responsibilities have changed (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000). Following these developments, employee empowerment and effective delegation have gained momentum as important criteria for leadership effectiveness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Thus, leaders now face a commitment to the empowerment initiatives (Collins, 1999), and they may struggle to empower their subordinates, if they are not motivated to make these changes (Humborstad & Kuvaas, 2013).

The term "empowerment" is relatively new in the management profession, but the issues are not new. For decades, delegation of power and authority has been key issues in organizations (e.g. Shapira, 1976; Tannenbaum, 1968). In a simplified sense, empowerment, may be described as "delegation that works", that power and responsibility is accepted by the subordinate and that the subordinate is accountable.

Empowerment is linked to a wide range of positive individual and organizational outcomes, such as job performance (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005), extra-role behavior (Raub & Robert, 2010), job satisfaction (Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010), intrinsic motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), employee voice (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011), and organizational commitment (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000). Further, the process of empowering employees is seen as a principal component of both managerial and organizational effectiveness as organizational power and effectiveness grow when supervisors share power and control with subordinates (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Hence, empowerment is often used to both explain and be a driver of organizational performance (Ahearne et al., 2005).

Today, empowerment is often seen as a way to lead organizations in response to the turbulent global economic competition, and the hierarchical management structures are suggested to be replaced by empowered employees to allow more flexibility in organizations (Arnold et al., 2000). Subordinates more often do tasks earlier performed by managers, changing the role of managers from

controlling strict hierarchical structures to leading in new ways, focusing on development and motivation (Arnold et al., 2000; Hakimi, van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2010). Empowering leadership can then be seen as a possible way of dealing with less hierarchical structures and changing work roles. Nevertheless, empowerment programs often fail to meet expectations of managers and employees (Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998), and many organizations have not seen the desired effects that empowerment is promised to give (Forrester, 2000). Argyris (1998) found that managers often work against empowerment both consciously and unconsciously. He proposed that managers seem to be unwilling or have difficulties with sharing power and control with subordinates and that this again may inhibit leaders' engagement in empowering behavior. Forrester (2000) stated that the concept of empowerment in itself, is not problematic, but argue, similar to Argyris (1998), that control needs in managers and the difficulties of letting them go, serve as inhibiting factors. Thus, the leader appears to play a crucial role, being identified as one of the determinants of successful, as well as failed, empowerment interventions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989; Argyris, 1998; Forrester, 2000; Hakimi et al., 2010).

Although research on leadership has focused on traits and behaviors of leaders that may enhance effectiveness (Yukl, 2010), there is little evidence about which factors are important for enabling or motivating leaders to empower subordinates (Argyris, 1998; Hakimi et al., 2010). Given the many failed empowerment interventions it appears that it is wrongfully taken for granted that leaders possess the motivation and qualities required to succeed, without investigating this in depth. In fact, within the literature on leader empowering behavior, the only attempt to our knowledge made to investigate leaders' motivation to empower is made by Hakimi et al. (2010). Leader empowering behavior is concerned with leaders' delegation of authority and responsibilities to subordinates (Hakimi et al., 2010), as well as information sharing, encouragement of participation in decision-making, and facilitation of skill development (Konczak et al., 2000). A leader's role in the empowerment process is thus vital (Deci et al., 1989), and an investigation of what motivate leaders to empower is important to understand how leaders can contribute to organizational effectiveness.

The objective of this study is to contribute to the vast literature of empowerment, by shedding light on leaders' perspective of empowerment and

looking specifically at leader empowering behavior. Leader empowering behavior can determine leader effectiveness, thus we find it important to provide a further understanding of why leaders are motivated to empower their subordinates, and if certain factors may motivate leaders to become more empowering (Hakimi et al., 2010). More specifically we will look at trust in subordinates, and individual differences in leaders and subordinates, as influencing factors.

Our contribution to the empowerment field can be seen in both practical and theoretical terms. For practitioners, our investigation can contribute to awareness of what influences leader empowering behavior, which might help to improve or change behavior. In theoretical sense, we believe it is important to shed light on a leader's perspective of the dyadic leader-subordinate relationship, which is largely understudied (Hakimi et al., 2010; Konczak et al., 2000; Forrester, 2000). This may contribute to a better understanding of why some leaders succeed in empowering their subordinates, while others fail. By including one of the most important roles in the organization, the leader, we aim to shift the focus towards leaders' role in empowerment, and to provide a possible new foundation for further research by others.

In the following we will address gaps in the literature along with an elaboration of our objectives and contributions with this study, before we introduce our research questions. Further, the theoretical background and our hypotheses are presented, followed by the methodology and data analysis. Finally, we will discuss our findings and limitations with our study.

Research questions and further objectives

As Hakimi et al. (2010) have pointed out, literally no studies have investigated determinants of leader empowering behavior. We find this a natural place to begin, given the important role of the leader, and the dyadic aspects inherent in empowering leadership (Gomés & Rosen, 2001). A better understanding of a leader's motivation to empower his or her subordinates will be an important step in discovering why empowering leadership may succeed or fail, and how it works. Due to the potential positive outcomes empowering leadership might lead to, and the lack of understanding of what motivates a leader to empower, further investigation of this field is necessary.

Our first intended contribution to the empowerment literature is to look into a mechanism influencing empowerment found in earlier research, namely trust (Burke, 1986; Gómez & Rosen, 2001). Trust has been argued to be important for leader delegation (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000), and Hakimi et al. (2010) established that leader trust in subordinates was positively associated with leader empowering behavior. Following their novel approach, we extend their research by also investigating what influences leaders' trust in subordinates. Bauer and Green (1996) noted the need for studies that actually measure trust, rather than just behavioral implications such as delegation. Within the literature on trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), and also trust in relation to empowerment (e.g. Moye & Henkin, 2006), the focus has typically been on the subordinate's trust in the leader. Leaders' trust in other leaders has also been examined (McAllister, 1995), however research on leaders' trust in subordinates is scant. Gómez and Rosen (2001) investigated outcomes of leader trust, but to our knowledge, little research exists on potential influences on leader trust. We find this peculiar as we see leaders' trust in subordinates as equally important for the leader-subordinate relationship as subordinates' trust in leaders.

Within the literature on person-environment fit, and more specifically person-supervisor fit, it is acknowledged that personality similarities can lead to positive outcomes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Personality characteristics, as well as similarity between individuals, have also been found to influence trust between leader and subordinate (Turban & Jones, 1988; Bauer & Green, 1996), thus the relationship between leader and subordinate is likely to influence how the leader perceives subordinate trustworthiness (Bauer & Green, 1996; Hakimi et al., 2010). In a meta-analysis examining person-supervisor fit, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) noted the importance of such fit for organizational outcomes, and building on this literature, we examine leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure. Personal need for structure captures individuals reactions to ambiguity and desire for structure (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993), which can be related to the potential ambiguities inherent in trust. Personal need for structure has in fact previously been related to role ambiguity (Kivimäki, Elovainio, & Nord, 1996; Elovainio & Kivimäki, 2001), and those experiencing role ambiguity may also have difficulties in trusting others, as trust implies more vulnerability and uncertainty (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

The research on personal need for structure in relation to organizational behavior is however scant, and the concept has been largely neglected within the organizational literature in general (Kivimäki et al., 1996). Examining personal need for structure in this setting will therefore contribute to a better understanding of how it influences individual and organizational behavior. In relation to trust the concept is found most meaningful when considered in dyadic relationships, examining personal need for structure in both leader and subordinate. Therefore, in line with previous research, we see similarity in personal need for structure as a potential influence on trust. Placing trust in a new relation with leader - subordinate congruence in personal need for structure, is seen as an important contribution and a fruitful avenue to pursue, as congruence between individuals has shown to influence trust (Bauer & Green, 1996). Our first research question will therefore be as follows:

How do leader - subordinate congruence in personal need for structure influence trust?

Our second intended contribution is to understand how leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure influence leader empowering behavior, through the mediating mechanism of trust. -If the leader and the subordinate have a similar need for structure, and the leader have high trust in the subordinate, will this ease the process of empowering? To our knowledge, research so far has not yet studied congruence in personal need for structure related to empowerment. It is our opinion, that further insight is meaningful both in relation to trust and leader empowering behavior. Trust has been argued to be important for leader delegation (Brower et al., 2000), and in their study on determinants of leader empowering behavior, Hakimi et al. (2010) found that trust facilitated leader empowering behavior. Since trust is found to motivate leaders to empower, we find it relevant to test if the relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and trust will again influence leader empowering behavior. We believe personal need for structure, through trust, may create meaningful variation in leader empowering behavior and to be a potential influence on leaders' motivation to empower.

The importance of leader subordinate-congruence in relation to empowerment is also noted by other researchers. Humborstad (2013) points to a lack of research on leader-subordinate congruence in the empowerment literature,

and argue that an investigation of such relations might contribute to a better understanding of the empowerment process. Hakimi et al. (2010) have also proposed interpersonal similarities between leader and subordinate, and leader identification with the subordinate, to be potential factors that influence leader empowering behavior. Hence, we also expect a direct relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior. Given the lack of research on leader-subordinate congruence within the empowerment literature, an investigation of the relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, is found to be valuable.

Linking personal need for structure to empowerment opens up for new insights into the empowerment literature, as well as the literature on personal need for structure. Given the nature of this trait, it may be influential on leaders as it is acknowledged that individuals have different desire for structure and reactions to lack of structure (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993). Those with a high personal need for structure tend to react negatively to ambiguous and complex situations, and make strong efforts to maintain control and predictability through structuring their behavior and interaction in different situations (Routledge, Juhl, & Vess, 2010). Given the aspects of empowering leadership, such as loss of control and accountability for ambiguous results, personal need for structure might therefore be an important determinant, influencing empowering behavior in a way that those high in personal need for structure might be less motivated or more reluctant to empower. Based on the arguments above we shall investigate to what extent leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure has an indirect influence, through the mediation of trust, as well as a direct influence, on leader empowering behavior. The second research question is therefore as following:

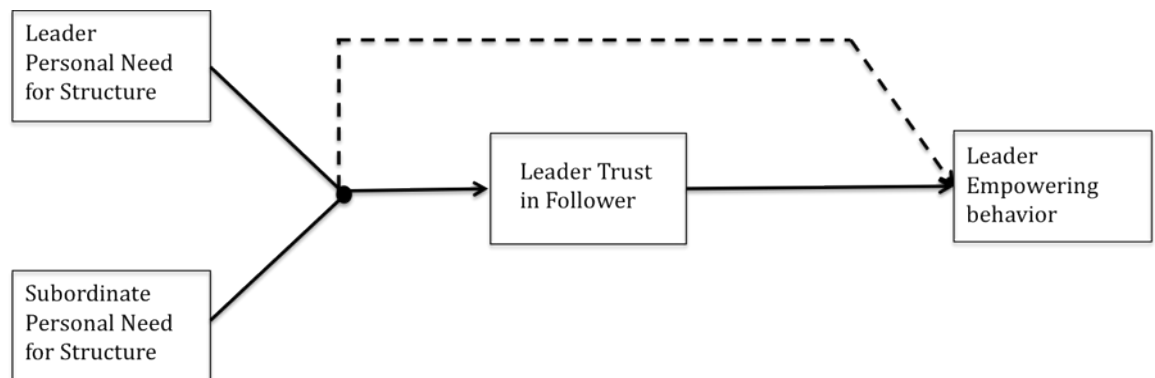
How may leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure influence leader empowering behavior, and how may trust act in this relationship?

The objective of our study is to contribute to a better understanding of what motivates leader empowering behavior, as we find personality similarity in personal need for structure and trust to be possible motivating mechanisms on leader empowering behavior. By investigating similarity in personal need for structure, this might contribute to an understanding of the dyadic relationship between leader and subordinate, in a way that personal need for structure in leader

and subordinate may influence their relationship and their behavior at work. By investigating similarity, we likewise investigate dissimilarity. For example may leader-subordinate incongruence impede a common understanding of how work should be performed, which again may make trust and empowering behaviors difficult. Trust has an important influence on behavior and effective work in organizations (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Understanding what influences leaders' trust, is therefore important for the functioning of organizations, as the lack of trust might have negative implications for work relationships, efficient interaction and delegation of tasks and responsibilities.

We take a first step into a yet untouched research area, integrating the literature on personal need for structure, person-supervisor fit, trust, and empowerment. We find this intriguing as well as important, given the tendencies of gap filling rather than novelty in organizational research (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2013). The purpose of our study is hence twofold. We seek to understand why leaders are motivated to engage in leader empowering behavior, by testing (1) if congruence in personal need for structure leads to more trust; (2) if congruence in personal need for structure influence leader empowering behavior, and if trust further influence this relationship.

Our conceptual model



Theoretical background and hypotheses

The empowerment context

Empowerment was indeed the “buzz on the street” during the 90’s (Ford & Fottler, 1995), and its popularity continued through the next two decades as more

research came to light about the benefits of empowerment. Kanter (1977) introduced the notion of empowerment to the management literature, being concerned with how the organizational structures allowed access to power through sharing and mobilization of resources. Later, three perspectives have gained momentum in today's empowerment literature; the critical perspective, the socio-structural perspective, and the psychological perspective (Humborstad, 2013).

The critical perspective is concerned with the possible power struggles inherent in empowerment, and whether power is actually shared with employees (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2008). This approach focuses on issues at a macro level, and looks at how policymaking and industrial democracy shapes the reality of empowerment (Humborstad, 2012). The socio-structural perspective explains empowerment as a set of structures, practices and policies aimed to decentralize power and authority throughout the organization, so that employees at all levels of the organization can take control and action when needed (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). This perspective again consists of two sub-dimensions; structural and relational empowerment (Humborstad, 2013). The structural approach captures Kanter's notion of empowerment, emphasizing the structural environment of the organization (Kanter, 1977), whereas the relational approach is concerned with the behavior of the leader as a source of empowerment (Spreitzer & Doneson, 2008). Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that the relational perspective perceive empowerment as only the delegation of either power or control to subordinates. They considered empowerment to also be a motivational process in which an individual's need for power and a sense of self-determination can be fulfilled, and therefore introduced the psychological perspective, building on their motivational approach. The same perspective was later developed by other researchers (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995).

The relational and psychological approach are both concerned with the individual in the empowerment process, but are distinguished partly by their view of leaders' behavior. The relational approach is concerned with a leader's behavior as a delegating practice, understanding empowerment as a process of sharing power and authority (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The psychological approach considers this same process to be enabling, focusing on subordinates'

experience and motivation as a consequence of leaders' behavior (Leach, Wall & Jackson, 2003; Hakimi et al., 2010).

Our research captures the interest in leaders' motivation for empowering behavior, and we find that the relational approach is closer to our area of interest, due to its focus on the leader. We therefore use this perspective as a fundament for our research, considering empowerment as a relational and dyadic process between leader and subordinate. The dyadic aspect of relational empowerment is important, as we believe both leader and subordinate characteristics to influence the relationship between them, as well as leader empowering behavior. It is assumed that empowerment equals delegation and power sharing (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), which indeed are central aspects, but the concept of relational empowerment grasps wider than this, as it more thoroughly concerns leader behavior. Leader empowering behavior does therefore naturally find its place in this perspective.

Hakimi et al. (2010) define leader empowering behavior as "leader behaviors involving the delegation of authority and responsibilities to followers" (p. 702). Konczak, Stelly and Trusty (2000) have conceptualized leader empowering behavior as a concept with six coherent dimensions, and argues that self-directed decision making, information sharing, accountability, skill development, and coaching for innovative performance must be considered in addition to delegation of authority, to fully grasp the concept. Delegation of authority implies that subordinates are not simply given more tasks to perform, but that they have the authority to make necessary decisions and changes in order to perform the tasks. Accountability should then be a natural extension of this authority (Conger, 1989), and should match the increased responsibility (Forrester, 2000). If subordinates do not have accountability for their results, this might have negative consequences if they do not have the best interest of the organization in mind (Forrester, 2000).

As managers delegate authority, they should also encourage their subordinates to handle challenges and problems on their own, aiming to find their own solutions when problems are encountered (Konczak et al., 2000). This is related to another dimension, skill development, described by Konczak et al. (2000). It is important that subordinates are given opportunities to develop, both for their personal development, but also for their ability to make decisions and solve problems independently (Ahearne et al., 2005). Thus, not only should

leaders encourage self-directed decision-making, but also provide subordinates opportunities to develop new skills (Konczak et al., 2000). In fact, subordinates lacking the necessary skills may not feel comfortable in the empowerment process, not knowing how to handle the increased responsibilities (Forrester, 2000). This also implies that a leader should be willing to let the subordinate make mistakes in the development process, which is captured in coaching for innovative performance (Konczak et al., 2000). A subordinate unsure of their leader's support of their potential failures in the learning process, will perhaps be reluctant to develop. Thus, a leader should serve as a coach, facilitate and provide guidance for learning.

The final dimension, information sharing, underlines how Konczak et al. (2000) have reached a thorough understanding of leader empowering behavior. In order for subordinates to use their authority, make decisions and develop, they need sufficient information. An empowering leader therefore shares information that the subordinate depend upon, allowing them to perform optimally.

Involved in this process is also a leader's ability and willingness to delegate authority to subordinates (Argyris, 1998). Indeed, as leaders are empowering their subordinates they are sharing some of their power and control (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). It seems natural that a leader reluctant to lose control will less likely empower, and Forrester (2000) argues that control needs may inhibit leader empowering behavior. Accompanying a need for control, is the need for security (Forrester, 2000), and the leader might lose this security when empowering subordinates, as power is shared, whereas at the same time, accountability for results mainly remains with the leader. To understand why a leader is motivated to empower, one should therefore investigate possible factors that may influence this motivation.

Leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure and its relation to trust

Leader-subordinate congruence can be examined within the literature on person-supervisor fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and the similarity literature (e.g. Turban & Jones, 1988). Generally, leader-subordinate congruence has been found to lead to better work outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and the importance of leader-subordinate relationships for work outcomes has also been

established (Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989; Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000; Zhang, Wang & Shi, 2012). Within the person-environment fit literature, fit between the individual and the rewards and demands of the environment, as well as social interaction, has been examined (Edwards, 2008). For social interaction, fit between the individual and important others, such as leaders, is considered. Person-supervisor fit derives from the dyadic relationship between a leader and a subordinate, and can be defined as the harmony between a leader and subordinate, that occurs when they are similar in certain characteristics (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Such similarities can have great implications for the quality of relationships, and may influence how a leader assesses subordinates (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002).

Within the literature on demography and individual characteristics, the importance of personality similarity for trust has been proposed by several authors (Bauer & Green, 1996; Turban & Jones, 1988; Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995). Further, the concept of trust is recognized as important in organizational settings, and is something that everyone can relate to. This makes it understandable but at the same time vulnerable to numerous connotations and interpretations (Mayer & Davis, 1999). It can, for example, be related to similar concepts such as trustworthiness and propensity to trust (Mayer & Davis, 1999), which makes the concept ambiguous. One understanding of the concept, which we will base our research on, is approaching trust as a willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of others (Mayer et al., 1995). Whereas trustworthiness is concerned with rather specific characteristics such as ability, benevolence and integrity (Mayer & Davis, 1999), the definition used here characterizes trust as a more general concept, which can be influenced by several factors. The willingness to be vulnerable to others also implies that trust is a dyadic process, involving both leader and subordinate.

Trust is developed through interaction, whereby communication, disclosure, acceptance of another's influence, and recognition of interdependence, strengthen the trust between individuals (Zand, 1972). Along with a shift in the literature from examining trust in general others, towards a perspective that focuses on the relational and dyadic aspects of interpersonal trust (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000), we argue that a focus on trust as a dyadic process is most suitable in the context of our study. Further, it captures the importance of trust in specific, rather than general others, which is necessary to understand trust

grounded in leader-subordinate similarities. This again makes it reasonable to relate it to both leader and subordinate characteristics, and as we will do, leader subordinate congruence in personal need for structure.

Personal need for structure can be described as a dispositional desire to structure knowledge, where those high in personal need for structure desire more structure than those low in personal need for structure (Vess, Routledge, Landau, & Arndt, 2009). The concept is rather new, and was developed by Kruglanski and colleagues (e.g. Kruglanski & Freund, 1983), on findings revealing peoples need for simple structure, and consistent patterns of biases in interpretation of information, change and attention (e.g. Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Neuberg and Newsom (1993) argue that the desire for simple structure is a chronic cognitive and motivational motive, in which individuals differ in their motivation to structure knowledge and information in order to simplify their lives and understanding of situations. Such tendencies are displayed in how individuals organize their behavior, as well as to the extent they enjoy routines and familiar situations. Whereas those high in personal need for structure prefer simplicity, certainty and predictability in their daily lives, those low in personal need for structure are more comfortable when situations are complex, uncertain and novel (Routledge et al., 2010).

In a factor analysis of the original items developed by Thompson et al. in 1989, Neuberg and Newsom (1993) revealed two dimensions of the construct – desire for structure, and response to lack of structure. The former refers to “the extent to which people prefer to structure their lives” whereas the latter refers to “the manner in which people respond when confronted with unstructured, unpredictable situations” (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993, p. 117). These dimensions were highly correlated but somewhat independent, indicating that those with high desire for structure, would also respond more negatively to lack of structure. In addition, it should be noted that personal need for structure might appear similar to constructs such as authoritarianism (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950), uncertainty orientation (Sorrentino & Hewitt, 1984), intolerance of ambiguity (Eysenck, 1954), and dogmatism (Rokeach, 1960). However, Neuberg and Newsom (1993) found support for the discriminant validity of personal need for structure, sufficiently differentiating it from these concepts.

We expect that the amount of similarity in personal need for structure will influence how much trust leaders have in subordinates. When subordinates

perceive their leaders to be similar to themselves, they are likely to trust them more (Turban & Jones, 1988), and we expect related outcomes when examining leader trust in subordinates. We draw upon research on person-supervisor fit and similarities to examine the role of leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure in influencing trust, arguing that similarity in personal need for structure has a positive influence on trust. This is in line with Bauer and Green's (1996) suggestion that similarities in leader and subordinate characteristics may promote trust. Additional arguments are also grounded in the element of risk inherent in trusting someone (McAllister, 1995; Bauer & Green, 1996). Similarity implies less uncertainty about others behavior, and is also related to interpersonal attraction and liking (Byrne, 1971, in Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993), thus similarity can be argued to decrease perceived risk to some extent. We argue that similarity will facilitate a common understanding of how work should be structured, which again can make trust easier. This reasoning is further supported by Hakimi et al.'s (2010) argument that relations between leaders and subordinates are likely to influence the amount of trust a leader will have in subordinates. Thus, our first hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1: The more aligned a leader's and his or her subordinate's levels of personal need for structure are (i.e. higher congruence), the higher trust in the subordinate.

Leaders and their subordinates can be similar in both high and low levels of personal need for structure, yet congruence in high or low personal need for structure may have different influence on trust. We expect that the level of personal need for structure in leader and subordinate will influence how much trust leaders have in subordinates. Further, when distinguishing the conditions of high-high and low-low personal need for structure, leaders level of personal need for structure is argued to have to the most impact on trust, as it is the leader who must be willing to trust the subordinate. Thus, when leaders and subordinates are congruent, the leader will be most influenced by own level of personal need for structure.

A leader high in personal need for structure will more easily experience role ambiguity (Elovainio & Kivimäki, 2001), and may experience more uncertainty when trusting subordinates, even though the leader and subordinate

are similarly high in personal need for structure. Additionally, is risk closely related to trust, in a way that willingness to be vulnerable to others also implies a willingness to take risk (Mayer et al., 1995). Individuals high in personal need for structure are found to be more risk avoidant than those low in personal need for structure (Meertens & Lion, 2008), indicating that they may also avoid the risk in being vulnerable to, and trusting others. Thus, for congruence in personal need for structure, we believe a high-high alignment to be less positive in relation to trust.

In contrast, when leader and subordinate are congruent in low levels of personal need for structure, the leader may be less vulnerable to the uncertainty involved in trusting someone, and willingness to trust may be further strengthened by leader-subordinate similarity. Those low in personal need for structure will arguably be more inclined to handle the uncertainty and vulnerability following from trusting a subordinate. Given that we are determining leaders' trust in subordinates, it is likely that similarity, as well as leader's level of personal need for structure, will be most influential on trust building. Thus, when there is a low-low alignment, leaders will be more inclined to trust subordinates. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Trust is higher when a leader is aligned with a subordinate at a low level of personal need for structure, rather than when a leader is aligned with a subordinate at a high level of personal need for structure.

As similarity in personal need for structure might contribute to the development of trust, dissimilarity is likely to lead to lower trust. According to Bauer & Green (1996) dissimilarity might lead to different understandings of how work should be performed, which may make it more difficult to establish a trusting relationship. It is however important to distinguish between two situations of leader-subordinate incongruence in personal need for structure: when a leader is higher in personal need for structure than a subordinate, and when a subordinate is higher than a leader. We claim that incongruence will be more detrimental to trust when the leader is higher in personal need for structure than the subordinate. As argued above, a leader high in personal need for structure might be more reluctant to the uncertainty involved in trusting someone. Incongruence will additionally contribute to this reluctance, and likely lead to lower trust. If a subordinate is lower in personal need for structure than a leader, the subordinate's behavior will

probably be less structured, and a leader's control needs may be triggered as the leader has desire for clarity and certainty (Elovainio & Kivimäki, 2001). Further, an individual high in need for structure tend to prejudice against and undervalue individuals who are perceived to deviate from themselves (Kruglanski, Pierro, Mannetti, & De Grada, 2006). A leader high in personal need for structure may therefore be more judgmental towards subordinates that are low in need for structure. We therefore assume that a leader high in need for structure will be more reluctant to trust a subordinate who is lower.

In contrast, when leaders have lower personal need for structure than their subordinates, they might handle the risk in trusting someone better, and subordinates higher in personal need for structure may be more easily trusted. A leader lower in personal need for structure is less likely to apply previously learned social categories to new situations, resulting in less prejudice, and possibly trust individuals more (Moskowitz, 1993). Furthermore, a subordinate high in personal need for structure is likely to prefer routines and structure, showing more predictability in behavior, which may invite more trust. We therefore claim that if a leader and a subordinate are dissimilar, a leader lower in personal need for structure than their subordinate, will have higher trust in the subordinate than in the opposite scenario. Our third hypothesis is thus as following:

Hypothesis 3: Trust is lower when a leader's personal need for structure is higher than a subordinate's, rather than when a subordinate's personal need for structure is higher than a leader's.

Trust as a mediator of the (in)congruence influence on leader empowering behavior

Prior research has both suggested and empirically shown a positive relationship between trust and leader empowering behavior. Hakimi et al. (2010) found that leader's trust in subordinate is positively related to leader empowering behavior, and the importance of trust for leader empowering behavior is further addressed by Burke (1986) and Gómez and Rosen (2001). Several authors have also indicated the importance of trust for delegation of tasks to subordinates (Brower et al., 2000; Mayer et al., 1995, Yukl, 2010; Bauer & Green, 1996). Although

delegation does not necessarily imply leader empowering behavior, delegation is a central aspect in empowerment. Based on these indications, as well as Hakimi et al.'s (2010) findings, we argue that trust is important for leader empowering behavior.

The importance of trust in motivating leader empowering behavior is underlined by the argument made by Mayer et al. (1995) that the need for trust is increased in risky situations. The relationship between trust and increased risk taking has been established by Colquitt, Scott, and LePine (2007), and when trust is lacking, monitoring is argued to serve as a control mechanism (McAllister, 1995), which should serve as an obstacle to empowerment. The element of risk in empowerment is also noted by Hakimi et al. (2010), similarly is uncertainty argued to be an underlying tenet of empowerment (Wall, Cordery & Clegg, 2002). Mayer et al. (1995) argue that delegation will involve risk as one give up control over results, while at the same time remaining accountable for results produced by subordinates. Therefore, trust may be especially important for leader empowering behavior.

Given our hypothesized influence of leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure on trust, and the previously established relationship between trust and leader empowering behavior (Hakimi et al., 2010), we expect trust to carry the influence of (in)congruence to leader empowering behavior, acting as a mediator. Thus, both leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure and trust, is argued to be important for motivating leader empowering behavior.

In relation to congruence in low personal need for structure, a leader low in personal need for structure may be less vulnerable to the uncertainty involved in trusting someone, and the motivation of leader empowering behavior may be further strengthened by leader-subordinate fit in personality. Similarly will incongruence have a negative influence on leader empowering behavior, as incongruence may imply less trust, and thus also less motivation for leader empowering behavior.

We further argue for a possible direct relationship between leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, so we specify a partial mediating role of trust. For congruence in personal need for structure, one can follow the argument that similarity may make it easier to establish a common understanding of how work

should be performed (Bauer & Green, 1996), hence be a direct facilitator for empowering behavior. This might be particularly important as the leader will have less control over what the subordinate do when authority is delegated. For example, when leader and subordinate are congruent at a low level of personal need for structure, the similarity and leader's tolerance of ambiguity may facilitate leader empowering behavior. Further do individuals low in personal need for structure prefer feedback that avoids imposing demands and restrictions (Slijkhuis, Rietzschel & Van Yperen, 2013). A subordinate low in personal need for structure may therefore welcome leader empowering behavior as empowerment implies less restricted behavior. On the other hand, when leader and subordinate are congruent in high personal need for structure, leaders might be more reluctant to empower employees, due to the challenge of role ambiguity for empowerment (Collins, 1999). Following the argument by Forrester (2000), that leader's control needs may inhibit leader empowering behavior, leader's need for structure may similarly inhibit this behavior. Although they are similar, a leader's reluctance may offset the positive impact of similarity.

On the other hand, when leader and subordinate are incongruent, the lack of similarity may inhibit leader empowering behavior, especially when the leader is higher in personal need for structure than the subordinate. A negative influence on motivation of leader empowering behavior is expected due to the differences and the leader's need for predictability and structure. Thus, a direct effect of (in)congruence in personal need for structure and a mediating role of trust are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4: Trust partially mediates the relationship between leader-subordinate (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior.

Methodology

Sample and data collection

To test our hypotheses we distributed surveys using Qualtrics, a web-based program. Surveys were distributed to leader-subordinate dyads in ten Norwegian and international companies, all being in the retail industry, except one in the

shipping industry. In three companies, surveys were distributed by paper directly by the researchers, allowing us to collect data faster. To ensure that subordinates were not chosen as a result of favorability from the leaders side, the participating subordinates were selected randomly. We collected the surveys at one point of time. The research team made sure the contact person in each company, explained our purpose with the survey and assurance of confidentiality, as well as distributing an information letter about the research and procedure. For the paper surveys, this information was added at the front page, and respondents were also informed verbally by the researchers. Anonymity was ensured by giving each leader-subordinate dyad a unique number, connecting responses to a random number and not personal information. We distributed 334 surveys in total, 167 to leaders and 167 to subordinates. Of those, we got 266 (79.6 %) responses back, however in some cases responses were not received from subordinates or from leaders, giving us a sample consisting of a total number of 218 respondents, making up a final sample consisting of 109 (65.3 %) pairs of leader-subordinate ratings. This is a fairly high participation rate, which may be explained by close follow-up and communication with the companies and the participants (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000).

Of the leader respondents, 49 (45 %) were male and 60 (55 %) were female with an average age of about 37 years. Leader work experience ranged from 2 - 40 years with a mean of 19 years, while education after high school ranged from 0 - 11 years, with a mean of 2.33 years. Further, the leaders consisted of 84 (77.1 %) line managers, 16 (14.7 %) middle managers and 9 (8.3 %) top managers. Subordinate responses consisted of 46 (42.2 %) males and 63 (57.8 %) females with an average age of about 33 years. Subordinates work experience ranged from 1 - 55 years with a mean of 14 years, and education after high school from 0 - 9 years with a mean of 2 years. The dyad tenure (amount of time working together as leader and subordinate) ranged from 1 month to 22 years with a mean of 2.55 years (Appendix 1).

Measures

All items related to the independent, dependent and mediating variables were measured using a five-point Likert scale (Appendix 6-8). All measures were adopted from previous research, ensuring that they had been previously tested.

The scales were translated using a translation/back-translation procedure to ensure reliable and valid measures. Translation from English to Norwegian was undertaken by native Norwegians with academic backgrounds, and each item was translated back from Norwegian to English by a third translator, and compared with the original text (Humborstad, 2013). When translation diverged between translators, for example by slightly different wording, the items were reviewed and a second translation procedure was performed to ensure agreement.

Leader empowering behavior. Leader empowering behavior was measured by a 17-item scale (LEBQ) developed by Konczak et al. (2000). The LEBQ is composed of six multi-item subscales focusing on delegation of authority, accountability, self-directed decision making, information sharing, skill development and coaching for innovative performance, capturing the definition of leader empowering behavior (Konczak et al., 2000). Leader empowering behavior is reported by the subordinates, as other-reports are found to be more reliable (e.g. Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Moreover, self-reports may inflate results as individuals often tend to overestimate their abilities (e.g. Kruger & Dunning, 1999) and a leader may then overestimate the degree to which he or she displays empowering behavior.

Personal need for structure. Personal need for structure was measured by the revised scale developed by Thompson, Naccarato and Parker in 1989 and further validated by Neuberg and Newsom (1993). The scale originally consisted of 12 items, however one item was removed in the revised version by Neuberg and Newsom (1993), leaving 11 items. This construct is developed to capture several aspects of individuals' need for simple structure (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993), and is a widely used scale. The scale was measured from both leader and subordinate's perspective, to be able to measure congruence.

Trust. The last scale appropriate for our thesis was a scale measuring trust. We found the Mayer and Davis' Trust measure (1999) to be relevant for this purpose, as it has previously been used by Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttila-Backman, & Lipsanen (2011), to measure leader trust. The scale was adjusted to reflect a leader's trust in subordinate. The scale originally consists of four items, however we found one item "*I would be willing to let top management have complete control over my future in this company*" not to be appropriate for this purpose, and the item was therefore not included. When this item reflects a leader's trust in subordinate, this would imply that a subordinate may have complete control over

a leader's future in the company, which we regard as unlikely, and difficult to relate to for the respondents (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttila-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011).

Control variables. Several control variables were included. First, similarity in demographics may invite greater base-rate trust (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowski, & George, 2004) and gender, age, and years of education were therefore included. Second, we included years of work experience, as work experience has previously been related to desire for empowerment (Gill, Sharma, Mathur, & Bhutani, 2012). These were converted into difference scores for our analyses, as our focus is on similarity. Third, leader level was included as a control variable, as the shift of power may vary between higher and lower levels of management (Forrester, 2000; Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999). Leader level was measured by three categories ranging from line management (coded as 1) to top management (coded as 3). Fourth, task interdependence has been related to empowerment in previous research (Tuuli, Rowlinson, Fellows, & Lui, 2012), and was therefore included. The five-item scale used by Pearce and Gregersen (1991) and modified by Van der Vegt, Emans and Van de Vliert (2001), was used to control for this. Task interdependence was reported by the subordinate.

Method of analysis

Prior to our analysis, data screening allowed us to test for normality, errors and outliers. Kurtosis and skewness values were inspected, and standardized z-scores were evaluated, as well as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Further, internal consistency was examined, to ensure that the scales used were reliable.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to investigate the distinctiveness of the variables. As trust is previously reported to be related to leader empowering behavior (Hakimi et al., 2010), it was especially important to examine whether they were distinct from each other. Before we performed CFA, the scales were combined into parcels, to achieve an optimal ratio of sample size to number of estimated parameters, recommended by previous research (Sass & Smith, 2006; Little, Cunningham, Shahar & Widaman, 2002). When parceling is performed, fewer parameters are needed to define the construct, which is beneficial when the sample size is small (Little et al., 2002). When the number of

original items comprising the observed variable is large, the resulting model complexity leads to estimation problems, and parcels are recommended. Reducing the number of indicators per latent variable thus makes estimation problems less likely (Sass & Smith, 2006). Further, models with parcels have fewer chances for residuals to be correlated and dual loadings to surface. Items correlating with other items on the same component can cause systematic variance related to the construct of interest, however, parceling will lessen this possibility (Little et al., 2002). At last, parcels are more likely to conform to the multivariate normality assumptions than individual items (Sass & Smith, 2006). To parcel, we used an approach based on multidimensionality, and as both personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior consist of several dimensions shown from previous research, parcels were created based on these dimensions. As trust is only measured by three items, these were not parceled.

Leader-reported personal need for structure, trust and leader empowering behavior were included in the CFA. Leader-reported personal need for structure was chosen due to our arguments that this will have the most impact on trust and leader empowering behavior. Our hypothesized three-factor model was compared with two competing models, to better assess the model fit (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). In the first competing model, parcels/items for trust and leader empowering behavior loaded on a common factor. This was done to understand whether a model where trust and leader empowering behavior combined would have been better than a model where they were distinct. In the second competing model, all items/parcels loaded on a general factor.

Polynomial regression. Our hypotheses were tested with the combination of polynomial regression and response surface modeling. This is a method that allowed us to test the full surface of the (in)congruence relationship between leader and subordinate (hypotheses 1-3) (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2004). In addition, we had the possibility to test for the direct relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior (hypothesis 4) using this method (Zhang et al., 2012). Previously, difference scores have been largely used in congruence research, however, there are methodological problems with difference scores such as the reliance on simple statistical techniques (Edwards & Parry, 1993; Humborstad, 2013). In contrast, polynomial regression analysis is suggested to overcome some of these problems,

as this method permits direct tests of the relationships difference scores are intended to assess (Edwards & Parry, 1993).

Since polynomial regression uses quadratic equations in calculating the relationships, it can be difficult to interpret the coefficients given from this analysis. To ease the interpretation of coefficients we used response surface modeling to examine the relationships (Zhang et al., 2012). Response surface modeling is a method that “permits precise description and evaluation of three-dimensional surfaces corresponding to polynomial regression equations” (Edwards & Parry, 1993, p. 1578). With both response surface modeling and polynomial regression equations we have been able to extract more information about our results than with other methods, since they capture the underlying three-dimensional relationship between the constructs (Edwards & Van Harrison, 1993).

The dependent variable was regressed on five polynomial terms as well as the control variables. The five polynomial terms were leader’s personal need for structure (L), subordinate’s personal need for structure (S), leader’s personal need for structure squared (L^2), subordinate’s personal need for structure squared (S^2), and leader’s personal need for structure times subordinate’s personal need for structure (L x S). To reduce multicollinearity and facilitate the interpretation of the results, L and S were scale-centered, before calculating the second order terms, as suggested by Edwards and Parry (1993). This was done by subtracting the combined mean value from personal need for structure. When we interpreted our results from the figures we focused on specific features of the surface, namely the two critical lines of interest, the congruence line and incongruence line, and the curvature and slopes of these lines.

Mediation test using the block variable approach and Process. To test the indirect influence of (in)congruence in personal need for structure on leader empowering behavior mediated by trust (hypothesis 4), we used the block variable approach advocated by Edwards and Cable (2009). The use of a block variable can facilitate the assessment of the indirect effect of congruence in a mediation model without changing the total explained variance (Edwards & Cable, 2009). In addition, it represents the combined influence of the five polynomial terms in one single coefficient. After running the polynomial regression of the direct relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, we calculated the block variable from the unstandardized

coefficients of the five polynomial terms. This was used when we ran the regression using a macro developed by Hayes (2013), named Process, to do the mediation analysis. Process is a macro that facilitates estimation of the indirect effect, both with a normal theory approach (Sobel, 1982) and with a bootstrap approach (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993) to obtain confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013). The whole model consisting of personal need for structure, trust and leader empowering behavior, and their combined relationship, was thus preserved with this method.

Results

Based on the data screening procedures, skewness and kurtosis beyond accepted levels, were detected for the variable leader empowering behavior when evaluating the standardized z-scores (± 3.29) (Appendix 2). To remedy for this, outliers were inspected and removed in accordance with SPSS outliers suggestions. There were six outliers, which deviated to such an extent that they were removed, reducing the number of respondents from 109 to 103. This resulted in all variables being within the limits of normality.

The reliability estimates for the variables leader empowering behavior (0.89), subordinate personal need for structure (0.74), and leader personal need for structure (0.79), were satisfactory. The reliability coefficient of trust (0.63) was, however, below what is deemed to be acceptable. This might be a result of the few items making up the scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999, Hair et al., 2010), or the low sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). A low reliability coefficient for this scale was also reported by Mayer and Davis (1999), who attributed this to the number of items in the scale. It is well recognized that scale reliability is vulnerable to low sample size, which was indicated by a drop in the coefficient when removing the outliers. Prior to removing the six outliers, the reliability coefficient of trust was 0.69, close to the limit value of 0.7. We therefore see the low reliability as a result of the number of items and sample size, and chose to retain it.

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Means, standard deviations, correlations, and scale reliabilities of the final scales are reported in Table 1.

Table 1: *Means, standard deviations (s.d.) correlations and scale reliabilities*

Variable	Mean	sd.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Dyadic tenure	2.62	3.34												
2. Personnel responsibilities ^a	7.79	6.93	.078											
3. Management level ^b	1.32	0.63	.181	-.218*										
4. Task interdependency	2.80	0.69	-.205	-.011	-.001									
5. Age dissimilarity	9.03	8.01	-.093	-.031	.130	.146								
6. Gender similarity	0.22	0.42	-.116	.098	-.014	-.072	-.049							
7. Work experience dissimilarity	8.80	6.71	-.029	.020	.101	-.178	.770**	-.082						
8. Education dissimilarity	2.05	1.47	-.098	.063	-.104	-.067	.218*	-.036	.313**					
9. Personal need for structure (leader)	3.11	0.55	-.079	-.033	-.297**	-.255*	-.119	-.161	-.202*	-.221*	(0.79)			
10. Personal need for structure (subordinate)	3.20	0.54	-.045	-.118	-.208**	-.073	-.179	-.053	-.143	-.040	.215*	(0.74)		
11. Leader empowering behavior	4.06	0.53	-.163	-.001	-.004	-.214*	-.040	-.012	-.055	.054	.052	.103	(0.89)	
12. Trust	3.94	0.69	.188	-.001	.120	-.018	.188	.104	.108	-.006	-.256**	.131	.041	(0.65)

Note: N=103. Reliability coefficients are reported in parentheses along the diagonal.

*p < .05 (2-tailed).

**p < .01 (2-tailed).

^aPersonnel responsibilities: number of subordinates directly reporting to the leader

^bManagement level: 1=first management, 2=middle management, 3=top management

Confirmatory factor analysis

CFA was performed to assess the model and its validity. The hypothesized three-factor model was compared with two alternative models, to further compare its validity. As shown in table 2, model 1 represents the hypothesized three-factor model, model 2 is a two-factor model in which trust and leader empowering behavior load on a common factor, and model 3 is a single-factor model in which all items and parcels load on a general factor. According to the goodness-of-fit indices (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000), the hypothesized three-factor model shows satisfactory fit, and has better fit than the alternative models. The chi-square statistic is nonsignificant (50.21, df = 41, p > .10), CFI is greater than .95 (.96), and RMSEA is below .08 (.047), indicating acceptable fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hair et al., 2010). Further, in the three-factor model, all items and parcels had unstandardized loadings that were at least twice the size of their standard errors indicating that the parcels has significant loadings on their respective factor (Hair et al., 2010). (Appendix 3.)

Table 2:

Model fit results for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δ df)	CFI	RMSEA
1. Hypothesized three factor model	61.30	41	-	0.94	0.070
2. Two factor model (trust and subordinate-reported leader empowering behavior are combined)	98.89	43	37.59	0.85	0.111
3. Single-factor model	119.54	44	58.24	0.79	0.130

Note: N=103. All alternative models were compared with the hypothesized three-factor model. Abbreviations: CFI is the comparative fit index. RMSEA is the root-mean-square error of approximation.

Regression results

Table 3 presents the estimated coefficients in addition to the slopes and curvatures along congruence and incongruence lines for the polynomial regressions in predicting trust and leader empowering behavior. Figure 2 and 3 illustrates the response surfaces based on these coefficients.

Table 3:

Polynomial regression of trust and leader empowering behavior on personal need for structure (in)congruence

Variables	Trust		Leader empowering behavior	
	Step 1a	Step 2a	Step 1b	Step 2b
Management level ^a	.103	.104	.014	.042
Task interdependency	-.039	.070	.176*	.182*
Age dissimilarity	.021	.020	0	-.001
Work experience dissimilarity	-.008	-.018	-.010	-.012
Education dissimilarity	-.011	-.040	-.028	.033
Leader personal need for structure (L)		-.370*		-.066
Subordinate personal need for structure (S)		.220		.131
L ²		.193		-.077
L x S		-.282		.053
S ²		-.294		-.061
R ²	.050	.189	.060	.082
Δ R ²		.139*		.022
<i>Congruence (S = L) line</i>				
Slope		-.15		-.53**
Curvature		-.38		-.09
<i>Incongruence (S = -L) line</i>				
Slope		-.59*		-.79**
Curvature		.18		-.19

Note: N = 103 leader-subordinate dyads; unstandardized regression coefficients are reported.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

^aManagement level: 1=line management, 2=middle management, 3=top management

Congruence line: Slope = (b₁ + b₂) where b₁ is the beta coefficient for leader personal need for structure (PNS) and b₂ is the beta coefficient for subordinate PNS. Curvature = (b₃ + b₄ + b₅) where b₃ is the beta coefficient for leader PNS squared, b₄ is the beta coefficient for the cross product of leader PNS and subordinate PNS, and b₅ is the beta coefficient for subordinate PNS squared.

Incongruence line: Slope = (b₁ - b₂). Curvature = (b₃ - b₄ + b₅).

Step 1a-b in the regression analysis of trust revealed no significant relationships between the control variables and trust.

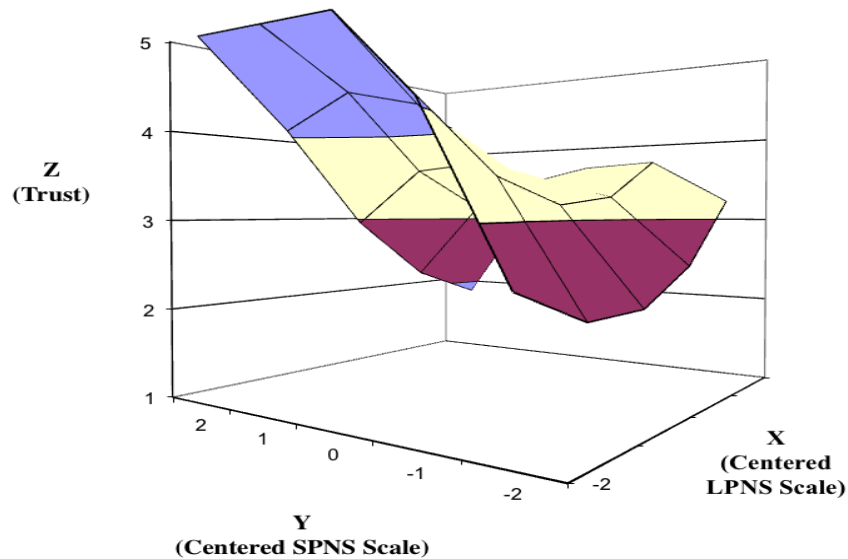
Hypothesis 1 suggests a positive influence of congruence in leader and subordinate personal need for structure on trust. Examining the surface in Figure 2, the positive curvature along the incongruence line (from the left corner to the right corner) is not significant (.18, p > .05). The surface further indicates that trust is higher when a leader's and subordinate's personal need for structure are not congruent, illustrating that hypothesis 1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 suggests that trust will be higher when a leader and subordinate are aligned at a low level of personal need for structure than when they are aligned at a high level. The slope along the congruence line is negative, but not significant (-.15 p > .05). A closer inspection of some of the plots along the congruence line (high-high congruence = 1.92, low-low congruence = 2.42)

indicates a weak tendency of trust being higher when the leader and subordinate are aligned at a low level (Appendix 4). Nevertheless, as the slope is non-significant, hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Figure 2:

Congruence and incongruence influence of leader (LPNS) and subordinate (SPNS) personal need for structure on trust



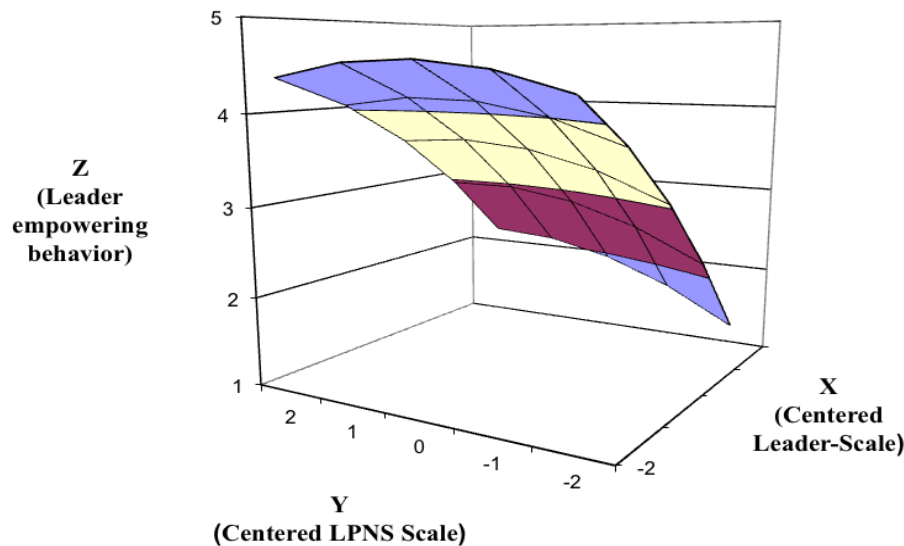
Hypothesis 3 suggests that when there is incongruence in leader and subordinate's personal need for structure, trust will be lower when the leader is higher on personal need for structure than the subordinate, rather than when the subordinate is higher than the leader. The slope of the incongruence line is negative and significant (.59, $p < .05$), implying that trust is higher when the incongruence is such that leader's personal need for structure is lower than subordinate's personal need for structure. This is also shown in Figure 2 where trust is higher at the left corner (S = 2 and L = -2) than at the right corner (S = -2 and L = -2). Thus, we conclude that hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4 states that trust will partially mediate the relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, meaning that there might be both a direct and indirect relationship. To test for the direct influence of personal need for structure on leader empowering behavior we ran a polynomial regression. Results from this procedure are presented in table 3: steps 1b-2b, and figure 3. To test for the mediating influence

of trust we ran a regression using the Process macro, performing a bootstrap (5000) in a 95% confidence interval and a Sobel test.

Figure 3:

Congruence and incongruence influence of leader (LPNS) and subordinate (SPNS) personal need for structure on leader empowering behavior



For the direct relationship, the r square change in model 2b is not significant, indicating that when the five polynomial terms were added, marginal additional variance is explained, which is not enough to support a full relationship. The curvature along the incongruence line ($-.19, p > .05$) is not significant indicating that congruence in personal need for structure is not necessarily better than incongruence for leader empowering behavior. Further, we examined the slopes along the congruence and incongruence lines. The negative slope along the congruence line ($-.53, p < .01$), indicates that when leader and subordinate are congruent in personal need for structure, leader empowering behavior is higher when they are congruent at a low level of personal need for structure than when they are congruent at a high level (the non-significant curvature along the congruence line ($-.19, p > .05$), confirms that this is a linear relationship). This is illustrated in figure 3, where leader empowering behavior is higher at the front corner (low-low congruence) than at the rear corner (high-high congruence). The negative slope along the incongruence line ($-.79, p < 0.001$), indicates that when leader and subordinate are incongruent in personal need for structure, leader empowering behavior is higher when the leader has lower level of personal need for structure than the subordinate, than when the subordinate is

higher in personal need for structure than the leader. This is shown in figure 3, where leader empowering behavior is higher at the left corner (S = 2 and L = -2) than at the right corner (S = -2 and L = -2). Nevertheless, the significant slopes only provides marginally influence on the direct relationship as the r square change in the model is not significant, thus the marginal influence is not enough to support the full relationship.

Step 2b in the regression revealed that task interdependence significantly influenced leader empowering behavior (.182, $p < .05$). The relationship is positive, indicating that leader empowering behavior increases when task interdependence increases.

As the direct relationship only indicated marginally influence, we did not expect an indirect relationship. Testing the relationship using the Process macro confirmed this. Table 4 shows that the relationship between the block variable and trust is significant (1.94, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.41 3.46]), but the relationship between trust and leader empowering behavior is non-significant (.01, $p > .05$, 95% CI = [-.14 .16]), indicating that trust does not carry the influence of (in)congruence in personal need for structure to leader empowering behavior. The lack of an indirect relationship is further demonstrated in table 4, where the indirect effect is non-significant (.03, 95% CI = [-.28 .38]). The Sobel test also confirmed this (.03, $p > .05$). Thus we conclude that hypothesis 4 is not supported.

Table 4:

Results from test of indirect effect of congruence in Personal Need for Structure and mediation of trust on Leader Empowering Behavior

<i>Direct effects</i>						
Variables	B	SE	t	p	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
Direct effect of block variable on trust	1.935	0.771	2.511	0.014	0.407	3.464
Effect of trust on LEB	0.014	0.078	0.186	0.853	-0.140	0.169
<i>Indirect effects</i>						
	B	SE	z	p	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
Indirect effect of PNS via trust on LEB (bootstrapped)	0.028	0.158			-0.284	0.380
Sobel test of indirect effect	0.028	0.163	0.172	0.864		

N = 103. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 5000.

Abbreviations: LL = lower limit. UL = Upper limit. CI = Confidence interval.

Discussion and future research

Our most important intended contribution to the field of empowerment was to look at leader empowering behavior from a leader's perspective. Trust is previously found to influence a leader's motivation to empower (Hakimi et al., 2010), thus our first aim was to understand how trust could be influenced by leader-subordinate (in)congruence in personal need for structure. Second, we aimed to investigate the relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, with trust acting as a mediator.

The first part of our study, hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, regarded the influence of (in)congruence in leader and subordinate personal need for structure on trust. In contrast to several other studies measuring perceived similarity, assessed by one source (Turban & Jones, 1988), we chose to study actual similarity, measuring leader and subordinate's level of personal need for structure from their respective perspectives.

For hypotheses 1 and 2, we expected similarity in personal need for structure to have a positive influence on trust, in line with previous establishments on personality similarity (e.g. Turban & Jones, 1988). Moreover, we expected low-low alignment to have the most positive influence on trust. Our results indicate that similarity in personal need for structure between leader and subordinate not necessarily increases trust, and we suggest several explanations for this:

First, the lack of relationship may be sample specific. Our sample is relatively homogenous in terms of industry, and it may be that the hypothesized influence of similarity on trust could have been more influential in different industries or types of organizations. For example, in innovative or creative organizations, more diversity and individual differences between co-workers exist, in addition to higher degree of autonomy (Isaksen & Ekvall, 2010; Isaksen & Akkermans, 2011). Individuals low in personal need for structure are more open to experience, and as they are more open to experience, they may be more creative and further in need for more autonomy (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993, Hennessey & Amabile, 2010; Isaksen & Akkermans, 2011). This is also supported by Slijkhuis, Rietzschel and Van Yperen (2013) who found that individuals differed in their creative performance based on their levels of personal need for structure, and that individuals low in personal need for structure had higher

creative performance than those high in personal need for structure. The differences in creativity may then make incongruence in personal need for structure especially salient in innovative organizations, thus potentially making a leader more strongly favor a subordinate who is similar. For example, a leader high in personal need for structure would find a subordinate low in personal need for structure different from himself, because they will likely differ in their level of openness to experience, need for autonomy, and creativity. This assumably apparent difference between individuals high versus low in personal need for structure, may be so visible that it influences leaders trust in subordinates negatively. It may make the leader trust similar subordinates more, thus making congruence in personal need for structure more important, in these types of organizations. Research on similarity on personal need for structure and its implications for trust should therefore aim to investigate this in settings where creativity and innovation is central.

Second, congruence in personal need for structure does not necessarily influence trust as much as similarity in other personality characteristics. Although previous findings indicate that personality similarities increase trust (Turban & Jones, 1988), similarity in personal need for structure has not previously been studied. Thus, it might be that similarity in personal need for structure may not be as meaningful in relation to trust as similarity in other personality characteristics. However, again we have to point to possible narrowness of our research, such as for instance type of organizations, homogenous sample, and individual differences not accounted for, that may have compromised the relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and trust, and revealed results that are questionable.

Furthermore, it appears that a leader's evaluation of a subordinate's personal need for structure, may be more important than whether they are similar or not. In an early stage of a relationship, leader and subordinate have limited information about one another, and individual characteristics and personalities might set the stage for later interactions (Bauer & Green, 1996). Trust has been found in numerous research to influence human relations, but it usually has to evolve over time (Bauer & Green, 1996; Moyer & Henkin, 2006). Half of our sample had a dyad tenure of a year or less, which may influence trust-building between leader and subordinate. In an early stage of a relationship, leaders may look for general characteristics in subordinates, personal need for structure being

one of them, rather than similarity, as we believe it may take shorter time to notice general characteristics than similarity. In an early stage, such general characteristics may thus be more important for trust building than similarity, however, similarity may be more important in a later stage of relationships. When the leader and subordinate have been working together for a longer period of time, the leader will know the subordinate better and may be more aware of whether they are similar or not. Trust may then be based on similarity, instead of individual characteristics. Studies on the relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and trust should therefore be performed in more longitudinal research settings. Future research should also make an effort to further investigate which personality similarities that are meaningful or not in relation to trust, and also look closer into personal need for structure to see if different results may be revealed.

Hypothesis 3 claims that trust will vary as a consequence of the direction or nature of incongruence in personal need for structure. We found that lower levels of personal need for structure in leader than in subordinates, increased trust, which supported our hypothesis. This indicates that the direction of individual level of personal need for structure in leader and subordinate is important for trust, when leader and subordinate are not aligned. It is thus reasonable to assume that personal need for structure as an individual characteristic is important for trust in subordinates. As we found trust to be higher when subordinates are higher in personal need for structure, we assume that subordinates' personal need for structure may have more impact on leaders' trust in subordinates, rather than whether subordinates and leaders are similar in personal need for structure. Similarity may still be important, but our results point to dissimilarity and higher degree of personal need for structure in subordinates to be more important.

Possible reasons for this may be, as earlier argued, that leaders will more easily trust a subordinate that is higher, rather than lower, in personal need for structure. An individual high in personal need for structure respects accountability and is more likely to complete their requirements on time (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993), which may give a leader reassurance that he or she can be trusted. Further, individuals high in personal need for structure are more likely to establish and prefer routines, and create structure in ambiguous situations (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993). Assuming that subordinates' level of personal need for structure is manifested by their behavior, this behavior may determine the amount of trust

leaders have in subordinates. Such behaviors resulting from high personal need for structure, might make leaders more secure about subordinates' behavior, making it easier to trust them.

As mentioned, our results indicated that when subordinates had high personal need for structure, leaders were low in personal need for structure, resulting in higher trust. This supports our previous arguments that leaders low in personal need for structure might be more prone to trust others. Individuals low in personal need for structure are less annoyed by ambiguity, and process social information more extensively (Landau et al., 2004). This may indicate that leaders low in personal need for structure use their subordinate's behavior as a foundation for trust-building, rather than drawing conclusions based on for example simple categorization like an individual high in personal need for structure typically would do (Moskowitz, 1993). A leader high in personal need for structure may for example be more prone to make judgments based on previously established social categorizations, designating individuals to different categories (Moskowitz, 1993). In contrast, leaders low in personal need for structure may base trust on actual behaviors in subordinates, as they process information about the environment more thoroughly.

Theorists have proposed that leader and subordinate characteristics will influence the interactions between them (Bauer & Green, 1996), and we see that level of personal need for structure is such a characteristic that indeed do influence trust between leader and subordinate, however not when it is aligned at a similar level. This is an important contribution, both for the similarity literature and also for research on personal need for structure. In relation to the similarity literature, not all personality similarities are necessarily related to trust. Personal need for structure as an individual characteristic is, however, related to trust, and may be important for whether individuals are trusted, as well as determining propensity to trust others. To say it in a simple way, higher personal need for structure in an individual is good for being trusted, and lower personal need for structure is good for being able to trust others. This also underlines why congruence in personal need for structure may be less meaningful in relation to trust, nevertheless caution should be exercised to not be too determinant about these assumptions.

Research on personal need for structure in organizational settings is scant, thus we lack empirical findings to support our assumptions. Future studies should

therefore investigate the relationship between subordinate personal need for structure and leader trust in subordinate in other organizational settings, such as innovative organizations with a higher need for creative individuals. Although alignment in personal need for structure was not meaningfully related to trust in our study, other researchers may find such a relationship in other settings. On the other hand, our results underline the importance of individuals' level of personal need for structure in relation to trust, and further clarification of the relationship between personal need for structure and trust is therefore recommended.

Moreover, alignment in personal need for structure may be related to other organizational outcomes such as feedback. Individuals high in personal need for structure tend to seek more feedback (Slijkhuis et al., 2013), and leaders high in personal need for structure may also provide more feedback, as this may ensure them that subordinates are aware of how they should perform, thus creating a more predictable situation for both the leader and subordinate.

The second part of our study was aimed at investigating if there was a direct relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, and further if trust had a mediating influence on this relationship.

Discussing the direct relationship first, we got no support for this. We only got minimal influences of incongruence and congruence in personal need for structure on leader empowering behavior in the expected ways, but these influences were so small that we did not get support for a direct relationship. Nevertheless, the small influence found may be an indication that although we did not detect any relationships, other researchers may do. In addition, ratings of leader empowering behavior were high in our sample, thus we argue for other factors influencing leader empowering behavior instead of (in)congruence in personal need for structure, but given limited research on factors contributing to leader empowering behavior (Hakimi et al., 2010), such explanations are suggestive.

Although a subordinate high in personal need for structure might signal stability in terms of structure and routines, this may not be sufficient for leaders' decision to empower. A leader may put more emphasis on factors more closely linked to empowerment. For instance it may be important that a leader believes a subordinate will handle the increased responsibility, in terms of performance and

accountability, which may not be associated with subordinates personal need for structure.

Moreover, other leader characteristics may have had a larger influence on leader empowering behavior than leader-subordinate congruence in personal need for structure. Conscientiousness is already established as one such characteristic (Hakimi et al., 2010). Furthermore, as leaders delegate some of their responsibility to subordinates, leaders' feeling of accountability may influence their motivation to empower, such that leaders perceiving high accountability may perhaps be more reluctant to empower (Hakimi et al., 2010). A final factor, which may have influenced our results, is leadership preferences. Leaders emphasizing a highly centralized department may be perceived as less empowering as opposed to leaders emphasizing a more decentralized department, where delegation and less hierarchical structures are present (Hood & Koberg, 1991). A leader's preference for flat structure may then be a possible motivation for empowerment.

The specific context of our study may also explain the lack of relationship, such as nature and complexity of tasks performed by the individuals in our sample. A majority of the respondents were working within the retail industry at lower levels in the companies. Many were working in stores, where sales and customer service were main tasks. Although task complexity was not measured, we can assume that such tasks may not be as complex, and our sample may therefore be quite specific in terms of level of complexity. In settings where tasks are novel and complex, individuals may have higher need for supervision and help, compared to settings where tasks are familiar and characterized by routine (Marks, Zaccaro, & Mathieu, 2000; Zaccaro, Rittman & Marks, 2001; Morgeson 2005). Further, it is found that front-line employees in service-oriented organizations, as many of our respondents were, often have more autonomy to provide service to customers (Hooks & Higgs, 2002). Thus, in our sample, there may not be a high need for supervision, which is indicated by the high ratings on leader empowering behavior. This may also explain why leader empowering behavior does not depend on congruence in personal need for structure, as the low task complexity may influence the degree of empowerment. Future research should therefore attempt to investigate the relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and empowerment in settings with higher task complexity.

Leaders' workload may also influence their decision to empower. We recognize that most leaders may have a generally high workload as they have many responsibilities, but differences may exist. Leaders with high workload might feel that they do not have time to do everything themselves, and will thus delegate to get their work done. Leaders with lower workload on the other hand, may not have this urgent need to delegate, and they have the opportunity to make more informed and careful decisions about whether to empower or not. As a consequence they may more strongly consider whether the subordinate is similar in need for structure. A leader with a high workload may put less emphasis on this, as they do not have the time to make these assessments. We have not tested for workload in our sample, thus we have no knowledge of the workload of the leaders in our study. Nevertheless, future research should test whether workload influences a leader's decision to empower, and test whether a relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior can be found in settings with different amounts of workload.

The generally high empowerment ratings also point to a need for investigating our proposed relationships in settings where differences in personal need for structure may have a larger impact on leaders willingness to empower. In organizations with more bureaucratic cultures and strict rules and regulations limiting autonomy, it is likely that differences in personal need for structure will be salient. Organizations with bureaucratic cultures, such as accounting firms, typically emphasize structure, procedures, and order, and power is more centralized (Hood & Koberg, 1991). Leaders in accounting companies are typically also conservative in applying accounting standards to be followed by subordinates (Scott, 2012). Although this industry faces change and demands to be more adaptive (Briggs, Copeland, & Haynes, 2007), it is reason to believe that they will still face bureaucratic demands (Hood & Koberg, 1991). This makes it likely that structured behavior will be preferred. Accordingly, we argue that leaders in these settings will more strongly emphasize congruence in personal need for structure, as individuals high and low in personal need for structure will differ greatly in their desire for structure and clarity. This may further have greater influence on leader empowering behavior than what we found in our sample. In the accounting field, there is limited research on how a firm's control system influences employee empowerment (Drake, Wong, & Salter, 2007), thus this seems to be a promising setting for future research.

Finally, our regression results revealed a positive influence of task interdependence on leader empowering behavior, and although it is not important for our hypothesized relationship between personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, we would like to mention it briefly. Interdependence between team members has previously been linked to empowerment (Tuuli, et al., 2012), and has been found to influence the relationship between control over decision-making and performance (Liden, Wayne, & Bradway, 1997). The positive relationship with leader empowering behavior is therefore not surprising. Task interdependence refers to the amount of interaction between leader and subordinates that is needed to perform their jobs (Van der Vegt et al., 2001), and it requires the subordinate to consult with the leader for advice and information, which relates to the aspect of information sharing in leader empowering behavior (Konczak et al., 2000). Frequent interaction may thus provide the leader with more opportunities to delegate tasks and include the subordinate in decision-making.

For the indirect relationship, between personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior through trust, we found no support. Trust in subordinates has been shown to influence leader empowering behavior in previous research (Hakimi et al., 2010), but our results do not support this. A leader having either high or low trust in a subordinate does, in our sample, not influence leader empowering behavior, as trust was not found to mediate between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior. We also get indications of this as there was no correlation between leader's trust in subordinate and ratings on empowerment, as seen in table 1.

This indicates, that even though leaders trust their subordinates, it does not necessarily influence how employees experience empowering behaviors. As we got generally high ratings of empowerment, it indicates that subordinates still feel empowered both when leaders have high trust in them and when they have lower trust in them. It can therefore be other factors influencing their experience of leader empowering behavior, and differences in subordinates' perceptions of empowerment may be a possible justification. It may be that the subordinates in our sample do not fully understand what it means to be empowered (Ahearne et al., 2005). This can affect the ratings, as subordinates can have different perceptions of what empowerment is and experience different degrees of empowerment. For instance, some subordinates might feel fully involved in

decision making if they are allowed to handle customer decisions on their own, while others take this for granted and thus not see it as empowerment. Thus, the former might still feel empowered when making customer decisions even if they do not get confirmation that leaders trust them.

Drawing a parallel to psychological empowerment, as a possible explanation, it is found that subordinate's trust in leader, influences the feeling of psychological empowerment (E.g. Spreitzer, 1995; Moyer & Henkin, 2006). Hence, it may be that subordinate's trust in the leader is as important for leader empowering behavior as leader's trust in subordinates. Nevertheless, as our results do not support the relationship between leader's trust in subordinate and leader empowering behavior, which has previously been established (Hakimi et al., 2010), further research is needed to clarify this relationship. The general high empowerment ratings also make it difficult to reveal the relationships between different levels of trust and different levels of empowerment. Apparently, leader's trust in subordinate might not be as important for subordinates experience of empowerment, but this also points to a need for investigating our proposed relationships in settings where the degree of leader empowering behavior is believed to be more varied, such as organizations with strict rules and routines as previously mentioned.

To summarize, our results raise some important issues that future research should aim to consider. Although our results indicate that individual levels in personal need for structure is related to trust, this relationship would benefit from further clarification, particularly the influence of similarity in personal need for structure. The lack of support for the direct and indirect relationship between congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, would also benefit from further understanding through applying our research questions in different organizational settings and industries. There is also a need to clarify the relationship between trust and leader empowering behavior as our results questions this previously established link.

Limitations and strengths

Limitations of our study and procedures should also be acknowledged. Due to a short timespan we pursued a cross-sectional study, collecting all data at one point

of time, not allowing us to draw causal inferences about our results as there is a possibility of reversed causality (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). It might be that leader empowering behavior can influence leaders' trust in subordinates, based on for example performance on delegated tasks or perceptions of accountability, allowing for a more cyclical nature of the relations (Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). A longitudinal or experimental design would have allowed for a more rigorous investigation of causality and directionality, and is recommended for future research on the topic.

Norwegian cultural and economical characteristics were not accounted for in our study. This might have implications for our findings, and limit the generalizability to other settings, such as countries with different cultural and economical characteristics. For example, trust and leader empowering behavior was generally reported to be high, which might be a result of low power distance (Hofstede, 1997; Chow, Lo, Sha & Hong, 2006), as individuals in high power-distance cultures may be more reluctant to empowerment (Humborstad, Humborstad, Whitfield, & Perry, 2008). Similarly, the characteristics of the organizations in our sample, such as differences in attitudes, may influence the amount and presence of trust and leader empowering behavior. As the sample consisted of several companies, this made it difficult to control for organization-specific factors (Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Our sample size (103 dyads) could have been larger, however it is above what is recommended for performing statistical analysis and draw valid conclusions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Nevertheless, a larger sample size may have resulted in more rigorous and valid results, being more representative and less prone to measurement bias. Our design required willing participation and responses from both participants of the dyad, which made data collecting more challenging and complex, thus we saw the number of dyads to be acceptable for our study. Given the advantage of collecting data from both leaders and subordinates, we believe our contribution to be valuable.

Related to the point above, the reliability coefficient of the trust measure was particularly vulnerable to our sample size, and we acknowledge that this has potentially reduced the likelihood of actual relationships being detected (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). It should also be noted that the trust scale was originally intended to measure subordinates trust in leaders, and adjusting this scale to fit an opposite perspective may have influenced the reliability of the scale. Further, the

removal of one of the items prior to data collection may also have influenced the scale reliability. Our trust measure might thus not be the optimal scale to use, but also in this area, lack of research is prominent. Few researchers have investigated leaders' trust in subordinates, making it challenging to find a suitable measure to use. Feedback from participating leaders also indicated that trust in subordinates might be more than just the willingness to be vulnerable to others (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Some participating leaders told us that they perceived trust as the confirmation of subordinates' ability to perform and deliver, which we find to be reasonable, due to the many existing definitions of trust. Further development of a scale measuring leader trust in subordinates is therefore recommended for future research.

Additional limitations about our used scales, relates to the leader empowering behavior questionnaire (LEBQ). This scale is not widely used. Although it has been validated and found reliable (Konczak, et al., 2000), other scales exist that are more extensively used and validated, such as Ahearne and colleagues' (2005) leader empowering behavior scale. However, we found the LEBQ to capture important aspects of leader empowering behavior, such as delegation, information sharing and accountability. It also captures the developmental function of leader empowering behavior, which is not included in the scale by Ahearne et al. (2005). The use of this scale is also in line with other research concerning leaders motivation for empowering behavior (Hakimi et al. 2010). We therefore found the LEBQ to be most suitable for our research purpose.

Conclusion

Despite its limitations, this study contributes to the literature on leader empowering behavior, personal need for structure, and trust, and raises some important issues to consider for researchers and practitioners.

The current study has, contrary to previous findings that personality similarities are related to trust, shown that similarity in personal need for structure do not have this influence. Rather, our study provides evidence that individual differences in personal need for structure matters for leader's trust in subordinates. We have shown that subordinates who have higher degree of personal need for structure than their leader, are more trusted by their leader, and that leaders low in

personal need for structure are more prone to trust their subordinates. As literature on personal need for structure in organizational settings is scant, this provides an important foundation for understanding the role of personal need for structure in such settings.

Also contrary to our expectations, we found no relationship between (in)congruence in personal need for structure and leader empowering behavior, nor any indirect relationship through trust. Thus, there was no relationship between trust and leader empowering behavior, which questions this previously established link. This relationship, therefore, remains to be solved in future research. Moreover, our findings underline that although similarity between leader and subordinate has been found to lead to positive outcomes, this does not necessarily apply to similarity in personal need for structure and its influence on leader empowering behavior.

Although we did not find the relationships we expected in this study, this does not confirm that such relationships do not exist. By pointing to organizational settings and leader characteristics that may influence the relationship between similarity in personal need for structure, trust and leader empowering behavior, we provide directions for future research, which may reveal the relationships, not detected here.

Despite the issues raised above, this study nevertheless provides implications for practice. Leaders should be aware of how their trust is influenced by their subordinates' level of personal need for structure. Even though subordinates with high need for structure appears to be the most trusted ones, one should not ignore the value of subordinates with a low need for structure. In the creativity literature it is well recognized that the most creative individuals are not the most structured ones, and their ability to contribute to creative problem solving and innovative solutions should be recognized. Leaders may have to overcome their reluctance to trust these individuals, particularly those leaders that themselves have a high need for structure and low tolerance for ambiguity.

By diving into a field where previous research is almost non-existent, we hope to inspire to additional research, and to open other researchers' eyes to this field, to confirm our findings and also see if the relationships not supported here do exist in other settings. We believe that future research can find other explanations we have not thought of, both looking at other motivating factors to leader empowering behavior, as well as linking personal need for structure to

other organizational outcomes. Our findings and conceptual analysis also suggest a research agenda for the future, identifying both situational, relational and individual factors that may influence leader empowering behavior. Given the importance of empowerment to modern organizations and leaders' key role in the empowerment process, pursuing these directions in future research seems highly valuable. The challenge for research is therefore, to demonstrate if this term in itself contributes to a deeper understanding of organizational behavior and leadership effectiveness, and most important, if it improves management in the "real world".

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Control variables

Leader gender					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Man	49	45.0	45.0	45.0
	Woman	60	55.0	55.0	100
	Total	109	100	100	

Subordinate gender					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Man	46	42.2	42.2	42.2
	Woman	63	57.8	57.8	100
	Total	109	100	100	

Leader age, work experience, personnel responsibilities ^a , years of education ^b					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	109	22	70	37.39	10.76
Work experience	109	2	40	18.93	9.47
Personnel responsibilities	109	1	40	7.98	7.04
Years of education	109	0	11	7.33	2.11
Valid N (listwise)	109				

^aPersonnel responsibilities: number of employees reporting directly to leader
^bYears of education: years of education after high school

Subordinate age, work experience, years of education ^a					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	109	19	70	33.03	12.82
Work experience	109	1	55	14.02	11.36
Years of education	109	0	9	7.09	2.09
Valid N (listwise)	109				

^aYears of education: years of education after high school

Management level ^a , subordinate task interdependency, dyad tenure ^b					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Management level	109	1	3	1.31	.62
Subordinate task interdependency	90	1	4.40	2.78	.69
Dyad tenure	109	.08	22.00	2.55	3.26
Valid N (listwise)	90				

^aManagement level: 1—line manager, 2—middle manager, 3—top manager
^bDyad tenure: number of years that leader and subordinate have worked together

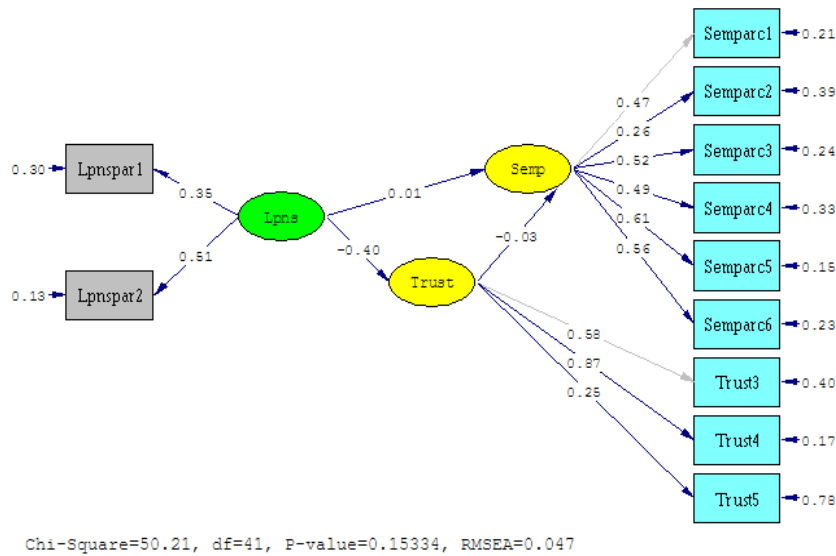
Appendix 2: Kurtosis and skewness

Kurtosis and skewness for subordinate-reported leader empowering behavior (LEB)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis		z-skewness	z-kurtosis
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error		
Subordinate-reported LEB	109	3.93	.76	-1.756	.233	4.142	.461	-7.536	8.985
Valid N (listwise)	109								

Appendix 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Graphic display of CFA model and Lisrel estimates



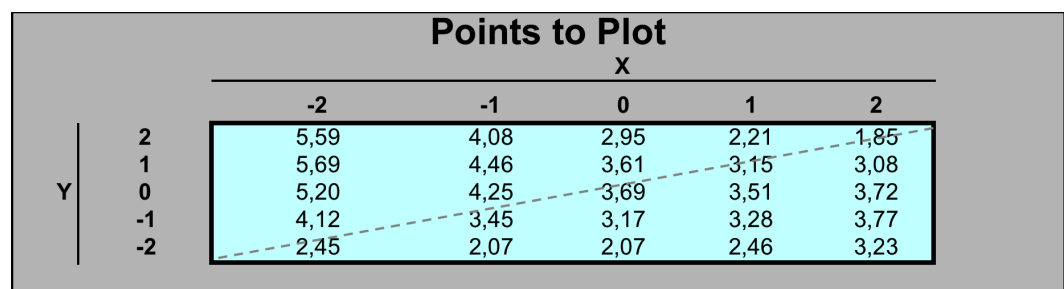
**LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)
Measurement Equations**

$\text{Semparc1} = 0.47 * \text{Semp}, \text{Errorvar.} = 0.21, R^2 = 0.52$ <p style="text-align: center;">(0.035) 5.99</p>

Semparc2 = 0.26*Semp, Errorvar.= 0.39 , R ² = 0.15 (0.072) (0.055) 3.62 6.96
Semparc3 = 0.52*Semp, Errorvar.= 0.24 , R ² = 0.53 (0.077) (0.040) 6.79 5.91
Semparc4 = 0.49*Semp, Errorvar.= 0.33 , R ² = 0.42 (0.080) (0.052) 6.05 6.38
Semparc5 = 0.61*Semp, Errorvar.= 0.15 , R ² = 0.71 (0.079) (0.034) 7.67 4.54
Semparc6 = 0.56*Semp, Errorvar.= 0.23 , R ² = 0.57 (0.080) (0.041) 7.03 5.68
Trust3 = 0.58*Trust, Errorvar.= 0.40 , R ² = 0.46 (0.10) 3.82
Trust4 = 0.87*Trust, Errorvar.= 0.17 , R ² = 0.82 (0.24) (0.20) 3.60 0.87
Trust5 = 0.25*Trust, Errorvar.= 0.78 , R ² = 0.076 (0.10) (0.11) 2.53 7.00
Lpnspar1 = 0.35*Lpns, Errorvar.= 0.30 , R ² = 0.29 (0.099) (0.069) 3.52 4.37
Lpnspar2 = 0.51*Lpns, Errorvar.= 0.13 , R ² = 0.67 (0.13) (0.12) 4.05 1.08

Appendix 4: Surface modeling plots

Plots along the surface response model of personal need for structure on trust



Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Appendix 5: Questionnaires English

Leader Empowering Behavior Questionnaire (Konczak et al. 2000)

Delegation of Authority

1. My manager gives me the authority I need to make decisions that improve work processes and procedures

-
2. My manager gives me the authority to make changes necessary to improve things.
 3. My manager delegates authority to me that is equal to the level of responsibility that I am assigned.

Accountability

1. My manager holds me accountable for the work I am assigned.
2. I am held accountable for performance and results.
3. My manager holds people in the department accountable for customer satisfaction

Self-Directed Decision Making

1. My manager tries to help me arrive at my own solutions when problems arise, rather than telling me what he/she would do.
2. My manager relies on me to make my own decisions about issues that affect how work gets done.
3. My manager encourages me to develop my own solutions to problems I encounter in my work.

Information Sharing

1. My manager shares information that I need to ensure high quality results
2. My manager provides me with the information I need to meet customers' needs.

Skill Development

1. My manager encourages me to use systematic problem-solving methods (e.g., the seven-step problem-solving model).
2. My manager provides me with frequent opportunities to develop new skills.
3. My manager ensures that continuous learning and skill development are priorities in our department.

Coaching for Innovative Performance

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

Personal Need for Structure Scale (Neuberg & Newsom, 1993)

1. It upsets me to go into a situation without knowing what I can expect from it.

2. I'm not bothered by things that interrupt my daily routine. (rev)
3. I enjoy having a clear and structured mode of life.
4. I like to have a place for everything and everything in its place.
5. I find that a well-ordered life with regular hours makes my life tedious. (rev)
6. I don't like situations that are uncertain.
7. I hate to change my plans at the last minute.
8. I hate to be with people who are unpredictable.
9. I find that a consistent routine enables me to enjoy life more.
10. I enjoy the exhilaration of being in unpredictable situations. (rev)
11. I become uncomfortable when the rules in a situation are not clear.

Trust Scale (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my subordinate have any influence over issues that are important to me. (rev)
2. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my subordinate. (rev)
3. I would be comfortable giving my subordinate a task or problem, which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his or her actions.

Appendix 6: Questionnaire Subordinate Norwegian

Spørreskjema medarbeider

Under vil det følge en rekke utsagn. Les de nøye og bestem deg for i hvor stor grad du er enig i utsagnene, basert på dine egne tanker og erfaringer. De påfølgende utsagnene gjelder deg og din personlighet. Vennligst svar så ærlig og oppriktig som mulig, basert på dine egne tanker og erfaringer. Svar på utsagnene etter det alternativet (1-5) som passer deg best. 1 = helt uenig 2 = uenig 3 = hverken enig eller uenig 4 = enig 5 = helt enig

1. Det uroer meg å gå inn i en situasjon uten å vite hva jeg har i vente
 - 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 4
 - 5

2. Jeg blir ikke plaget av hendelser som forstyrrer min daglige rutine

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

3. Jeg liker å ha en oversiktlig og strukturert tilværelse

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

4. Jeg liker å ha en plass for alt, og orden rundt meg

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

5. Jeg synes at et velordnet liv med faste rutiner gjør livet mitt kjedelig

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

6. Jeg liker ikke situasjoner som er usikre

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

7. Jeg hater å måtte endre mine planer i siste liten

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

8. Jeg hater å være sammen med mennesker som er uforutsigbare

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

9. Jeg trives bedre når jeg har faste rutiner i livet mitt

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

10. Jeg nyter henrykkelsen jeg får av å være i uforutsigbare situasjoner

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

11. Jeg blir ukomfortabel i en situasjon hvor premissene er uklare

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De påfølgende utsagnene gjelder deg og ditt forhold til din leder. Vennligst svar så ærlig og oppriktig som mulig, basert på dine egne tanker og erfaringer.

12. Min leder gir meg myndighet til å kunne ta de beslutninger som er nødvendige for å forbedre arbeidsprosesser og prosedyrer

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

13. Min leder gir meg myndighet til å gjøre endringer nødvendig for å forbedre saker og ting

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

14. Min leder delegerer myndighet til meg som tilsvarer det ansvarsnivået jeg er tildelt.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

15. Min leder holder meg ansvarlig for de oppgaver jeg er tildelt

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

16. Min leder holder meg ansvarlig for min ytelse og de resultater som oppnås

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

17. Min leder prøver å bistå slik at jeg selv finner løsningene når problemer oppstår, i stedet for å fortelle hva han/hun ville gjort

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

18. Min leder overlater til meg å ta beslutninger i spørsmål som vedrører hvordan arbeidet mitt utføres

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

19. Min leder oppmuntrer meg til å finne mine egne løsninger på problemer jeg står ovenfor i mitt arbeid

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

20. Min leder deler informasjon som jeg trenger for å sikre resultater av høy kvalitet

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

21. Min leder sørger for at jeg mottar den informasjonen jeg trenger for å møte kundens behov

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

22. Min leder oppmuntrer meg til å bruke metoder for systematisk problemløsning

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

23. Min leder sørger for at jeg får hyppige muligheter til å utvikle nye ferdigheter

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

24. Min leder er villig til å risikere at jeg gjør feil dersom jeg på lengre sikt kan lære av feilene og utvikle meg som et resultat av erfaringen

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

25. Min leder oppmuntrer meg til å prøve ut nye ideer selv om det er en mulighet for at jeg ikke lykkes

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

26. Min leder fokuserer heller på problemløsning enn å plassere skyld når jeg gjør en feil

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De to påfølgende påstandene gjelder din leder på et generelt grunnlag. Vennligst svar så oppriktig som mulig, basert på dine tanker og erfaringer.

27. Min leder holder underordnede i avdelingen ansvarlige for kundetilfredshet

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

28. Min leder sørger for at kontinuerlig læring og ferdighetsutvikling er en prioritet i vår avdeling

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De påfølgende spørsmål vil hjelpe oss å kartlegge demografisk informasjon om våre respondenter på et generelt grunnlag. Vennligst svar så nøyaktig som mulig. Er du i tvil, svar det du tror er riktig

29. Er du kvinne eller mann?

- Mann
- Kvinne

30. Hvor gammel er du?

31. Hvor mange års arbeidserfaring har du?

32. Hvor mange år utdanning har du etter videregående skole?

33. Type organisasjon?

- privat
- offentlig
- ideell/frivillig
- Annet, vennligst oppgi _____

34. Antall år ansatt under din nåværende leder?

35. Jeg er avhengig av min leders arbeid for å gjøre mitt eget arbeid

- helt uenig
- uenig
- hverken enig eller uenig
- enig
- helt enig

36. Jeg må skaffe informasjon og få råd fra min leder for å kunne fullføre arbeidsoppgavene mine

- helt uenig
- uenig
- hverken enig eller uenig
- enig
- helt enig

37. Jeg har en selvstendig jobb, jeg må sjelden arbeide eller konferere med min leder

- helt uenig
- uenig
- hverken enig eller uenig
- enig
- helt enig

38. Jeg må samarbeide tett med min leder for å kunne utføre arbeidsoppgavene mine på en tilfredsstillende måte

- helt uenig
- uenig
- hverken enig eller uenig
- enig
- helt enig

39. For at min leder skal kunne fullføre oppgavene sine må vedkommende skaffe informasjon og råd av meg

- helt uenig
- uenig
- hverken enig eller uenig
- enig
- helt enig

Appendix 7: Questionnaire leader Norwegian

Spørreskjema Leder

Under vil det følge en rekke utsagn. Les de nøye og bestem deg for i hvor stor grad du er enig i utsagnene, basert på dine egne tanker og erfaringer. De påfølgende utsagnene gjelder deg og din personlighet. Vennligst svar så ærlig og oppriktig som mulig, basert på dine egne tanker og erfaringer. Svar på utsagnene etter det alternativet (1-5) som passer deg best. 1 = helt uenig 2 = uenig 3 = hverken enig eller uenig 4 = enig 5 = helt enig

1. Det uroer meg å gå inn i en situasjon uten å vite hva jeg har i vente

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

2. Jeg blir ikke plaget av hendelser som forstyrrer min daglige rutine

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

3. Jeg liker å ha en oversiktlig og strukturert tilværelse

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

4. Jeg liker å ha en plass for alt, og orden rundt meg

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

5. Jeg synes at et velordnet liv med faste rutiner gjør livet mitt kjedelig

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

6. Jeg liker ikke situasjoner som er usikre

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

7. Jeg hater å måtte endre mine planer i siste liten

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

8. Jeg hater å være sammen med mennesker som er uforutsigbare

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

9. Jeg trives bedre når jeg har faste rutiner i livet mitt

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

10. Jeg nyter henrykkelsen jeg får av å være i uforutsigbare situasjoner

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

11. Jeg blir ukomfortabel i en situasjon hvor premissene er uklare

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De påfølgende utsagnene gjelder deg og din medarbeider. Vennligst ha denne medarbeideren i tankene når du svarer på utsagnene. Svar så ærlig og oppriktig som mulig.

12. Hvis det var opp til meg, ville jeg ikke latt min underordnede hatt noen påvirkning over saker som er viktige for meg.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

13. Jeg kunne virkelig ønske jeg hadde en god måte å holde øye med min underordnede på.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

14. Jeg ville vært komfortabel med å gi min underordnede en oppgave som er viktig for meg, selv om jeg ikke kunne overvåke hans/hennes handlinger.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De neste to påstandene gjelder deg som leder og ditt forhold til alle dine ansatte i din avdeling

15. Jeg holder alle mine underordnede i min avdeling ansvarlige for kundetilfredshet

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

16. Jeg sørger for at kontinuerlig læring og ferdighetsutvikling er en prioritet i vår avdeling

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

De påfølgende spørsmål vil hjelpe oss å kartlegge demografisk informasjon om våre respondenter på et generelt grunnlag. Vennligst svar så nøyaktig som mulig. Er du i tvil, svar det du tror er riktig

17. Hvor gammel er du?

18. Er du mann eller kvinne?

- Mann
- Kvinne

19. Hvor mange år med arbeidserfaring har du?

20. Hvor mange ansatte har du som rapporterer direkte til deg?

21. Ledernivå

- linjeleder (f.eks. butikksjef, avdelingleder)
- mellomleder (f.eks. regionsleder)
- toppleder
- Annet, vennligst oppgi _____

22. Type organisasjon?

- privat
- offentlig
- ideell/frivillig
- Annet, vennligst oppgi _____

23. Hvor mange år utdanning har du etter videregående?

24. Hvor mange år har du jobbet som leder for denne ansatte?

Appendix 8: Information letter

Informasjonsskriv om masteroppgave om empowerment

Vi er to masterstudenter i ledelse og organisasjonspsykologi ved Handelshøyskolen BI i Oslo og holder nå på med vår avsluttende masteroppgave. Temaet for oppgaven er empowerment (myndiggjøring/delegering) på arbeidsplassen, og vi skal undersøke hvorfor ledere er motivert til å myndiggjøre og delegere ansvar til ansatte. Vi ser på både tillit og forhold til struktur, samt demografisk bakgrunn.

Som bedrift vil dere få tilgang til samlede resultater ved oppgavens ende. Det vil si at dere vil få mulighet til å vite på et generelt grunnlag basert på alle respondenters svar, hva som påvirker en leders motivasjon til å myndiggjøre ansatte. Vi håper at dette kan gi dere økt forståelse for myndiggjøring og delegering på arbeidsplassen.

Studiet er basert på spørreundersøkelser som vil bli sendt ut per e-post. Vi vil gjennomføre undersøkelsen gjennom leder og en tilfeldig valgt ansatt. Alle svar vil bli behandlet helt anonymt og det vil ikke foregå noen deling av resultater mellom leder og ansatt. Enkeltes svar vil heller ikke bli delt, og det er heller ikke et fokus i oppgaven å se på enkeltpersoners svar. Deltakere vil motta link til et spørreskjema på e-post, og svarene vi mottar vil bli linket til et nummer, for å iverksette deltakerens anonymitet. Resultater vil kun bli brukt for akademiske formål, og vil bli behandlet strengt konfidensielt.

Studiet er godkjent av Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste (NSD).

Om du har spørsmål, eller ønsker mer informasjon om denne undersøkelsen, kontakt oss gjerne via e-post: siri_randen@hotmail.com eller camilla.hauger@hotmail.com

Med vennlig hilsen

Siri Randen og Camilla Hauger

