

DOCTORAL THESIS

To take or not to take the risk? Toward a greater understanding of employees' cognitive decision process in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior

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To Take or Not to Take the Risk?
Toward a Greater Understanding of Employees' Cognitive Decision Process
in Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

CHAN Suk Kuen, Alison

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

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August 2018

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis represents my own work which has been done after registration for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration at Hong Kong Baptist University, and has not been previously included in a thesis or dissertation submitted to this or any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualifications.

I have read the University's current research ethics guidelines, and accept responsibility for the conduct of the procedures in accordance with the University's Committee on the Use of Human & Animal Subjects in Teaching and Research (HASC). I have attempted to identify all the risks related to this research that may arise in conducting this research, obtained the relevant ethical and/or safety approval (where applicable), and acknowledged my obligations and the rights of the participants.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'John Chan', written in a cursive style.

Signature: _____

Date : August 2018

ABSTRACT

The importance of leadership style and the organizational citizenship behavior have been recognized in many research studies. However, the influence of empowering leadership on employee's change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and employees' cognitive mechanism to engage in such behavior have received little attention. Drawing on social cognitive theory, the present study explores the effects of empowering leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior directly and indirectly through employees' willingness to take risk. The study also examines the boundary conditions that employees would make the decision to engage in such behavior with the effects of two moderators - regulatory focus and perceived organizational support.

A nested data model of empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, regulatory focus, perceived organizational support and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior were tested using a 3-wave sample of 173 matched dyad relationships from nine financial institutions in Hong Kong. The research model rests with individual-level as unit of analysis while controlling the variances from the teams using hierarchical linear modeling. The results show that willingness to take risk can partially mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, promotion focus, prevention focus and perceived organizational support can moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk when they are of low level while promotion focus and willingness to take risk are proved to be predictors of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Implications from the findings for future research and management practice will be discussed.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

In view of the rapid changes in the business landscape, the disruptive technology, and the ever-changing and turbulent economic evolution, organizations nowadays need to put tremendous efforts not only in maintaining the stability of the business, but also in sustaining the business survival and organizational viability. It is arguably that apart from striving for high degrees of productivity and service excellence, organizations should also uplift their ability and adaptability to change. To achieve this purpose, organizations can, on the one hand, formulate top-down strategies to implement organizational change to cope with the dynamic market change, and on the other hand, encourage the employees to come up with changes and rely on them to proactively participate in different behaviors to review the current status, challenge the inefficient workflow, identify problems, propose new methods, inspire innovation, and tackle the problems (Crant, 2000).

However, for the past decades, we can confront that many large organizations could no longer survive because they have failed in taking proactive actions to adapt to the increasingly complex, dynamic business environments. For instance, some large companies in Europe such as Ericsson, Nokia, and Cou tts as well as some large companies from the United States such as Blockbuster Video, Kodak, US Postal Service, American Airline and Enron have either ceased operations, have been acquired by their competitors, seriously suffered from shrinking in their business volume or

downsizing due to its poor adaptability and proactivity to the market change. One of the reasons for their failure might be due to their employees' unwillingness to speak up or take initiative when they identified problems in the operations. A recent report "Competitiveness at the Crossroads" published by *Harvard Business Review* in 2012 with 6,000 respondents from 150 companies of different industries asserted that America firms have lost the ability to compete in the international marketplace because the employees perceived lack of benefits or recognition for their contributions to innovation or successful ideas. In this connection, firms which were lacking of value-adding innovation would subsequently lose their customers, lose their global competitiveness and they eventually collapsed. In addition, despite the fact that leadership is essential to every business, it has been discovered that the failure rate for leaders in America's business is in the range of 50-60% (Hoggan et al., 1994). It is arguably that both leaders and managers cannot identify all the potential problems or fully predict the activities that they need the employees to perform (Organ, 1988) while employees in the frontlines may be better to identify and solve the problems (Morrison, 2011) because they are heavily involved in the day-to-day activities and operations and they are the ones who are familiar with the current practices and the weaknesses or loopholes of such practices the most (Lawler, 1992). Therefore, organizations nowadays should motivate their employees to tackle the problems on their own beyond their formal duties proactively, speak up the issues whenever there are problems and implement the necessary changes to fix the problems rather than waiting for their leaders' or supervisors' top-down instructions.

In Hong Kong, where East meets West, organizations are facing fierce competition from the local, mainland and international rivals and most importantly, organizations always compete for scarce resources, in particular the talented people. It is therefore important for organizations to cultivate an efficient and effective workforce to adapt to the dynamic market changes such as geo-political tension, explosive technological evolution, surging rental fee, increasing demand from customers as well as the increasingly stringent regulatory requirements. Undoubtedly, it is critical to retain the talented people with the implementation of different people strategies in order to ensure the sustainability of the organization.

Having been working in the financial industry for over 20 years responsible for the transformational change by setting up new departments or restructuring the companies for different organizations to cope with the market changes and regulatory changes, it is observed that conventionally, people are inclined to resist change, prefer to maintain the current situation, adhere to the routine behavior and stay in the comfort zone (Oreg, 2003) because change is often perceived as having urgency, pressure, and risk than the normal organization activities (J Ford et al., 2008). Therefore, employees are likely unwilling to take the risk. However, with the occurrence of the several financial crises happened in 1998, 2001 and 2008 respectively, regulators are becoming more and more stringent in order to protect the interests of the customers and the investors. Nowadays financial institutions should be flexible and forward looking to face the immense challenges in reviewing and revising all the procedures, policies, work processes and systems to ensure the adherence to the regulatory changes.

More seriously, the crisis was then followed by a global economic downturn as well as the European debt crisis in the banking system of the European countries in 2010. Subsequently, the Basel III capital and liquidity standards adopted by countries around the world caused substantial pressure to many financial institutions and therefore, some financial institutions needed to sell some of their businesses to ensure the liquidity to fulfill the regulatory requirements. A serial of collapse of financial institutions reflects the fact that organizations cannot survive if their employees, who know the best about any deficiencies or malfunctions or even breach of regulatory requirements, simply follow their supervisors' or leaders' instructions without taking the initiative to make constructive changes.

Another big challenge for the financial institutions is that the evolution of Fintech has drastically distorted the conventional business landscape and together with the popularity in the use of Internet, consumers can acquire sophisticated financial knowledge very easily and they become more skeptical to the products and advices provided by the financial services providers. All these challenges will deter the growth and sustainability of the financial institutions if they cannot respond to the regulatory changes promptly, enhance their efficiency by streamlining the work process, develop innovative and constructive ideas to cope with the increasing demand from the customers or investors, manufacture innovative product and cannot uplift the user-friendliness and functionality of the banking system to meet the customers' expectation, etc. Nonetheless, it is appealing that organizations cannot perform all the works without employees' efforts and participation which is beyond their formal roles and responsibilities.

It is therefore critical to motivate the employees to take the initiative to identify any loopholes, issues, malfunction or even faults in the business and operations and it is also critical to encourage the employees to speak up courageously for the initiation, development and implementation of the necessary efforts to make the changes. However, not every employee within an organization possess the relevant attributes to perform beyond their formal role and responsibilities or have the courage or willingness to take risk to make constructive changes because of the uncertainty of the results, disturbances in the routines, relationships, power balances and job security (Albrecht and Hall, 1991). Therefore, it is a huge challenge for organizations to determine what kinds of leaders can influence the employees and what kinds of employees will participate in the change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior which is defined as the constructive efforts to identify and implement changes with regard to work processes, policies and procedures beneficial for the organizations (Bettencourt, 2004). In this regard, the main focus of my study is to examine the influence from the leaders to their employees' cognitive process in taking risk which in turn leads to organizational citizenship behavior that involves challenging the status quo and making the constructive change. Since different employees have different attributes while the culture for the organizations varies, I would like to examine what boundary conditions would facilitate employees' cognitive process in taking risk as well as their pursue of change-oriented organizational citizenship.

During the course of my career in the financial industry, I have been working for some financial institutions with different styles of leadership, for instance, aversive leadership for a Chinese bank, directive leadership for a local bank, transformational leadership for a US bank, transactional

leadership for a UK bank and empowering leadership with my latest employer, which is the largest local bank in Hong Kong. Being empowered by my supervisors to lead different projects and departments within the bank, I am also cultivated with the attributes of empowering leadership such as encourage my team to participate in decision making, providing coaching to uplift their confidence and competence, leading by example, informing them about the company's strategies and messages from senior management, and showing concern (Arnold, 2000) to motivate my subordinates to engage in extra-roles behaviors. Since there is an ongoing trend for organizations to become leaner and more cost-efficient, it is desirable to motivate and empower the employees through the delegation of authority and responsibility to make competent decisions to uplift the efficiency and effectiveness of daily operations (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

In response to the call from some scholars that it is essential to understand whom can be empowered and to a what extent by examining individual traits and situational factors (Cheong, et al., 2016), studying the impact of empowering leadership on employees' behavior is of my interest and this study will examine under what situations that empowering leadership can influence employees' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in the financial industry of Hong Kong.

Despite risk taking is sometimes considered reckless, this study shows that having the willingness to take risk can promote change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior which in turn enhance the organization's operational efficiency, effectiveness and the most vital outcome, to ensure its sustainability. This study provides the evidences that despite Chinese culture advocates

social desirability and collectivism, Chinese individuals are also able to make cognitive decision to take risk to challenge the status quo and make constructive changes in order to recover from malfunction and inefficiency when certain personal and contextual factors prevail. Therefore, this study can bring insights to the organizations on the human resources strategies in the aspects of recruitment, training, team formation, career development in order to forge flexible and effective teams which have the courage to challenge the status quo and make the necessary changes with their own initiatives. The study also brings insights to the leaders on how to motivate their employees to engage in activities which are beyond their formal roles and duties. Therefore, this study can provide grounds and ideas for financial institutions to survive and flourish in a rapidly changing marketplaces because they must learn to compete in a dynamic market system with many new foreign and mainland competitors have started their business in Hong Kong and they should possess the dynamic teams to excel in the international financial centre.

I contend that social cognitive theory constitutes the relevant theoretical framework to explain how and when empowering leader influences employees' cognitive process to pursue change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior which is a highly volitional and rational behavior as it involves activities to change the current situation. Nevertheless, according to social cognitive theory, employees must possess a strong sense of agency, that is, a desire to intentionally make things happen through their own actions (Bandura, 2001). Extending this foundation, this study strives to gain a deeper and more integrated understanding of the dispositional and situational predictors or antecedents in view of the nature of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior is an intended, planned and risky behavior.

1.2 Research Objectives

In view of the severe challenges faced by the financial institutions, there is no doubt that organizations should have the adaptability to cope with the dynamic changes in the business environments to ensure sustainability. Since the leaders and the managers cannot oversee all operations from a micro perspective, they have to rely on their employees to identify any inefficiency, ineffectiveness, issues, problems, faults or even crisis which may be fatal to the organizations. Therefore, they have to motivate their employees to take the initiative to challenge the status quo and make the necessary changes because the employees are the ones who have the most familiarity with the daily operations. However, not all the leaders would motivate or empower their employees to make the decision to challenge the status quo and not all the employees have the cognitive ability to take risk. Since willing to take risk or willing to make the decision to participate in behaviors which are beyond their job description are crucial to the vitality of the organizations, the overall objective of this study is to examine the mediation mechanism on the influence of empowering leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior through willingness to take risk and identify the boundary conditions which have not been covered in prior studies. With the desire to fill the existing research gaps, increase the generalizability of the theory application, develop additional insights on the possible paths through which employees engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior which is beneficial to the organizations, I hope this study can provide practical insights for managers and organizations to forge effective strategies in team formation and employees' competence in order to sustain in the playing ground.

This study intends to achieve several contributions both theoretically and practically. Firstly, the study extends and contributes to the existing literature on empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors by examining whether empowering leadership have direct and indirect influence on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior as well as its impact on employee's cognitive process.

Secondly, this research is to elucidate whether prevention and/or promotion focus can be a predictor for willingness to take risk given the trait characteristic of regulatory focus may influence the employees attitude towards risk. This study also explores whether regulatory focus can be a moderator and what is the intensity of moderating effect on the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk.

Thirdly, this study intends to enrich the content of risk taking in the domain of management as this study explores whether employees' attitude, that is, employees' willingness to risk, would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior as it is proposed that empowering leadership can help to shape employee's attitudes in risk taking which in turn lead to the desired outcome of change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors.

Fourthly, this study intends to explore whether perceived organizational support can be a moderator as well as the intensity of its moderating effect on the impact of empowering leadership on willingness to take risk.

Finally, another objective is to provide grounds for future research to identify any other impacts from empowering leadership on individuals, teams or organizations, to explore any other predictors or antecedents which can influence the employee's cognitive decision process in the participation of change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors.

Given the importance of the motivation from the leader, the personality traits of the employees and the support from the organization to facilitate employee's attitude to take risk to pursue the change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors, I trust that this study is beneficial to both the practitioners and scholars by answering the following core research question:

“When and how empowering leadership promote employees' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior?”

1.3 Structure of this Paper

This paper is comprised of six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the background information and illustrates the research objectives. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the literature review, the related theories and the research gap. Based on the results of the literature review, Chapter 3 proposes a theoretical model and formulates the hypotheses for empirical testing. Chapter 4 outlines the research method, detailing the survey instrument development, control variable selection, pilot test, sample, and data collection. Chapter 5 presents the statistical results while Chapter 6 discusses the theoretical contributions and practical significance as well as the direction for future research. Finally, in Chapter 7, it concludes the important insights developed by this study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Leadership

Leadership can be thought as a process of social influence through which the leader provides guidance and assistance to others to attain a collective goal (Chemers, 2001) and for the past four decades, numerous researches cover different types of leadership to identify a broad range of leader behaviors. Different leadership theories have focused on employees' self-concept to account for leaders' ability to affect employees' attitudes and behaviors (Kark & Shamir, 2002). Nowadays, the role of leaders is becoming more and more challenging because leaders are now expected to manage their responsibilities to cope with the issues of globalization, changing technologies, diminishing resources and increased costs (Chase, 2000; Murphy, 2002). Therefore, it is expected particular leadership style can cater for specific organizational needs in view of their distinct attributes.

Meanwhile, since many organizations need to encounter the challenge of rapid transformation from a production economy to a knowledge economy in current business landscape, it is essential for organizations to become more dependable on the talents, skills and efforts of their employees and the leaders are likely to empower their employees to attain the desired outcomes. According to some empirical studies, the empowered employees are more likely to make decision to make improvements in their areas of responsibility (Mohrman, et al., 1995).

According to Spreitzer (1995), empowerment is a process involving a set of management practices to share authority, resources, information, and rewards that influence performance not only directly

but also indirectly through their impact on employees' cognition on self-efficacy, motivation, and job satisfaction. It is notably that scholars consider psychological empowerment as a mechanism through which contextual factors such as leadership can influence employees' attitude and behaviors and it is therefore essential for managers need to make judgements regarding whom to empower and to what extent (Spreitzer, 1996). In addition, research studies indicate that empowerment can be viewed as a dyadic relationship between a supervisor and an individual subordinate (Ahearne et al., 2005) because empowerment is a two-way interaction and communication between leaders and employees. However, not all leadership styles will empower their employees, and in this section, I would like to examine what type of leadership styles are likely to empower the employees and delineate the reasons why I consider empowering leadership in my research model in view of my experience with different leadership styles.

The first type of leadership that I encountered in my career is aversive leadership which relies on intimidating power and is rooted in punishment research (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Since punishment will yield negative impact on employee's satisfaction, it is unlikely that this leadership style will empower or motivate the employees to pursue change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior because employees' trial and error efforts will not be recognized or appraised by aversive leadership. Instead, this leadership style will intimidate and reprimand the employees whenever there is any deviation from the guidelines and procedures.

The other leadership that I encountered is directive leadership of which its behavior relies on position power or legitimate power (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Directive leadership is task-oriented founded by Ohio state studies in 1950's and it emphasizes the need to provide direction to the

employees. Since the representative behaviors of directive leadership includes issuing instructions and commands, and assigning goals to the employees, it is unlikely that the employees will be empowered to pursue change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior which is different from their supervisors' instructions.

Apart from aversive leadership and directive leadership, I have also encountered transaction leadership in my career. According to Pearce and Sims (2002), transaction leadership is about the repetition of behavior and it focuses on the effort-reward relationship and use the reward system to achieve maximum motivation. Since change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior is a voluntary and discretionary behavior engaged by the employees, it is not their leaders' desired behavior and therefore, transactional leadership will not reward the employee and will not empower or motivate the employees to engage in such behavior.

Another leadership style that I would discuss is transformational leadership which is drawn from the charismatic leadership theory (House, 1997) and transforming/transformational leadership theory (Base, 1985; Burns, 1978). House (1997) proposed that charismatic leaders engage in the behaviors such as managing impression, articulating ideological goals, defining employee's roles in terms of ideological values, role modeling, communicating high expectations and confidence in employees, and arousing employee motives. While later on, Bass (1998) extended Burns (1997) research results and delineated that transformational leadership includes charismatic leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. With the evolution of the research studies, the representative behaviors of transformational leadership are providing vision, expressing idealism, using inspirational communication, having high

performance expectations, challenging the status quo, and providing intellectual stimulation. Empirical study by Lopez-Dominguez & et al. (2013) elucidated that the transformational leadership can lead to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior with the mediators of felt responsibility for change and role-breadth self-efficacy. However, despite transformational leadership promotes the idea of challenging the status quo; its influence is not about empowering the employees to perform the behavior with their own cognition and autonomy. Therefore, this leadership style is not my targeted independent variable.

2.1.1 Empowering Leadership

According to Pearce and Sims (2002), the foundation of empowering leadership is derived from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, Locke and Latham's (1990) participative goal setting research, Thorenson & Mahoney's (1974) behavioral self-management and Meichenbaum's (1977) cognitive behavior modification. Social cognitive theory elucidates the triadic and reciprocal relationship between an individual's cognitive processes, behavior and the environment and it specifies that individuals influence their environment through their behavior, and both environment and behavior, in turn, influence the individuals. Similar to social cognitive theory, cognitive behavior modification research has focused on conceptualizing cognitive events and understanding their role in behavior change. According to Pearce and Sims (2002), behavioral self-management has its roots in clinical psychology and Manz and Sim's (1980) expanded the clinical applications to organizations by defining self-management as a substitute for leadership. While Locke and Latham's (1990) participative goal setting research indicates that difficult goals lead to higher performance and satisfaction and the empowering leadership emphasis on developing

employees' self-leadership skills in keeping with participative goal setting. In sum, these four theoretical traditions provide the bases of empowering leadership and the overarching theory of my research model would be social cognitive theory and development of the conceptual model will be elaborated in details in Chapter 3.

There have been different definitions for empowering leadership. For instance, some scholars consider empowering leadership as leaders who encourage their employees to express opinions and ideas, promote collaborative decision making and support information sharing (Arnold et al., 2000). Another definition for empowering leadership is conceptualized as power sharing process which enhances employees' autonomy and self-determination to decide how to carry out their job (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Sims and Manz, 1996; Pearce et al., 2003). Although there are multiple definitions of empowering leadership, there is convergence for the measurement of the leader behaviors. It is appealing that empowering leadership consists of a set of managerial practices including delegation, participative decision-making, persuasive and encouraging communication, performance development and mentoring (Ahearne, et al., 2005; Zhang & Zhou, 2014) and there are considerable research highlighting the importance of empowering leadership behavior for employees' performance, effectiveness, taking charge behavior, and self-leadership among employees (Ahearne et al., 2005; Pearce and Sims, 2002). Nevertheless, this leadership style gives employee greater control over their work and uplifts their ability to adjust their behaviors to achieve something different which leads to a sense of impact. Furthermore, it is notably that some empirical studies delineate that empowering leadership can influence employees to engage in organizational citizenship behavior, which are extra-roles behaviors beyond their formal roles and responsibilities as per stipulated in Table 1.

However, on the contrary, there is inconsistency in the results for different studies because implementing this leadership style is problematic. It is noteworthy that some studies have demonstrated that outcomes from the influence of empowering leadership could be detrimental (Ahearne et al., 2005) while some studies indicated that greater emphasis on empowering leadership could drag work performance because empowering leadership may cause resistance (Maynard et al., 2007) and task uncertainty (Cordery et al., 2010) for particular types of employees, which in turn might deter both individual and organizational performance. In addition, some studies argued that empowering leadership might not always be beneficial when there are extra responsibilities and autonomy resulting from empowerment because job enrichment and skill enhancement could be treated as burdens by some employees when the organization come across crisis situations or the employees are incompetent, having rigid mindset and lacking confidence (Yukl, 2002).

Since there are growing evidence indicating that empowering leadership is not beneficial in all organizational contexts and empowerment are not acceptable and welcome by all the employees (Pearsall and Sim, 2013), it is inevitable to study how and when empowering leadership will benefit the organizations and employees. It is essential to explore the boundary conditions that will make empowering leadership impactful. It is also meaningful to determine what kind of employees can be positively influenced by empowering leadership style in respect of change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors because different individuals do not necessarily react in the same way (Terborg, 1981).

It is noteworthy that prior research indicates that the quality of leadership that employees experience, especially empowering leaders, has a compelling influence on their attitudes and behaviors (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Therefore, I intend to examine whether empowering leadership can be the contextual factor that will influence employee's attitude and will motivate the employee cognitively to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

2.2 Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior was built on social psychology theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and its definition suggested that organizational citizenship behavior is both extra-role and organizationally functional. However, such definition is criticized for its unclear and subjective distinction between in-role and extra-role because there might be different interpretation for individuals, jobs, and organizations (Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne et al., 1994). In 1988, Organ defined it as the efforts performed by employees to behave as a good citizen in their organization and subsequently in 1991, Graham introduced an alternative approach and elucidated that it is independent of the role requirements or expectations. According to this approach, organizational citizenship behavior concerns about loyal and responsible involvement in the organization through balanced engagement in three interrelated behavioral dimensions that make up the “active citizenship syndrome” and these three dimensions are obedience, loyalty, and participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994).

In 1997, Organ posited that organizational citizenship behavior differs from task performance in view of its discretionary nature and the performance rewards for such behavior is non-guaranteed (Organ, 1997). In this essence, organizational citizenship behavior is less likely to be a formal job requirement and the employee is less likely treat it as a method to attain performance award. According to some research, there is no consensus on the definition and dimensions of the construct of organizational citizenship behavior (Podaskoff et al., 2000) but Organ’s (1998) and Graham’s (1991) conceptualization of organizational citizenship behavior are probably the most widely recognized.

After three decades of research, organizational citizenship behaviors have been categorized into two dimensions. One is affiliative dimension which includes behaviors to maintain the existing situations in the workplace, while another dimension is challenging dimension which comprises of voluntary acts to attain creativity and innovation to improve employee's task performance or the organization's performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Many studies on organizational citizenship behaviors have concentrated mainly on the affiliative dimension, that is, the extra-role behaviors that maintain the status quo. However, they are not inadequate for the sustainability of organizations. It is because in view of the dynamic business environment, employees are required to be flexible in handling the task-related issues (Bettencourt, 2004; Frese et al., 1997). Therefore, it is arguably that the extra-role behavior that can challenge the current state of operations to bring about constructive change is essential and the survival of organizations requires their employees to be highly committed to extra-role behaviors that are beyond their job descriptions (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

In 2007, Dewett and Denisi classified organizational citizenship behaviors into maintenance and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior depending on whether the relevant organizational behavior is about sustaining the status quo or improving the current organizational situation. While majority of the research focused in the study of the maintenance-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, there is an increasing awareness of the important outcomes from the change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors because organizations nowadays operate in a dynamic and changing environment and the adoption of conventional practices may

lose their competitive advantages whenever the organizations are vulnerable to any changes in the market environment. In order to respond to these challenges, organizations often need to change their work methods, policies and procedures accordingly. In this connection, employees' own initiatives and ideas can significantly contribute to these processes because they often know the best about the potential problems and weakness of the current practices (Lawler, 1992). In addition, in view of the increasing competition and rapid changes in the business environment, employees are expected to behave in a more proactive and innovative manner in their workplace to assist the organization to adapt to these probably fatal market changes (Bettencourt, 2004).

For instance, according to Morrison and Phelps (1999), taking charge, one type of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, is a discretionary behavior that usually challenges the status quo and brings constructive changes to an organization. Unlike affiliative and maintenance-oriented extra-role behaviors, such as interpersonal helping, sportsmanship, and other forms of organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988), taking charge is characterized as forward looking, challenging, change-oriented, and risky organizational citizenship behavior. According to Parker et al. (2010), employees will engage in taking charge when they perceive that they can carry out this behavior successfully in a safe environment and it is therefore largely dependent on managerial practices and the form of leadership in an organization. Nevertheless, employees' participation in this behavior are more likely to be triggered by the leadership behavior, employees' evaluation of the potential risk and benefits and some contextual factors which can provide a safe environment for them to pursue such behavior.

Another example of behavior which aims at promoting the existing situation is voice behavior. According to Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero (2003), voice is the expression of constructive opinions, concerns, or ideas about work-related issues which can assist the organizations to correct mistakes, improve the process and adapt to the market changes.

Despite there are small differences among the concepts of different change-oriented behavior in business domain, I consider to adopt the definition proposed by Bettencourt (2004) and Choi (2007) which is about the proactive actions aimed at identifying and implementing changes in work processes, products, and services. In order to avoid any confusion, this study focuses specifically on change-oriented actions initiated by employees and not on their reactions towards top-down directives by the organization.

Previous studies have shown that the presence of change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors can be predicted by individual and situational variables (Morrison and Phelps, 1999), and organizational context variables such as transformational leadership or innovative climate (Choi, 2007; Bettencourt, 2004) as stipulated in Table 2. This study will further examine whether other constructs such as empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, regulatory focus and perceived organizational support can be the contextual factors and personal factors to facilitate change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior by riding on the overarching theory of social cognitive theory.

2.3 Regulatory Focus

The regime of regulatory focus theory in the workplace (Higgins, 1997, 1998) is specifically about employees' pursuit of activities towards their goals by adopting different strategies. According to Higgins (1997, 1998), regulatory focus theory stems from the understanding that people are motivated to minimize the discrepancies between the actual and the desired end states to seek pleasure and maximize the discrepancy between the actual and the undesired end states to avoid pain. The orientation toward seeking pleasure is considered as promotion focus that leads to motivation to attain nurturance while the orientation toward avoiding pain is considered as prevention focus which entails motivation to attain security (Higgins, 1997, 1998). According to some research, promotion focus is aspirational and growth-oriented associated with the strategy to approach desired end-states and it can be treated as motivation for experimentation and change. In contrast, prevention focus is concerned with responsibility and security associated with the strategy to avoid undesired end-states and it can be treated as motivation for safety and stability (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

Regulatory focus has both a stable (trait-like) component and a situational (state-like) component. The stable component articulates a person's general tendency to promotion focused or prevention focused and this general tendency is shaped by the interactions with significant experiences during childhood (Higgins and Silberman, 1998). For instance, when parents encourage their children to pursue their dreams and ambitions, the children should be more likely to develop a general tendency to be promotion-focused. In addition, experimental research has demonstrated that contextual variables can shape a person's situational regulatory focus (Higgins et al. 1997).

Therefore, a person's environment can induce a specific regulatory focus. For instance, when a person works in an environment that cues a promotion focus, the person should be more likely to be promotion-focused during work. Some scholars indicate that strategy to pursue goal is related to their preference in the adoption of methods and they are the same no matter the activated regulatory orientation is trait based or situation induced (Higgins & Spiegel, 2004). However, on the contrary, some research indicates that although a person may have a disposition skewed at one regulatory focus, situational triggers can evoke the original one when there are excessive changes such as employee's exposure to changes in leadership, work climate, or task demand (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). On the other hand, some scholars indicate that when there is absence of important changes in the work environment, regulatory focus at work is unlikely to change (Brockner & Higgins, 1997).

The congruence between regulatory focus with the contextual factors is important because when employees pursue goals in a manner under particular situation fits their regulatory orientation, they experience regulatory fit (Higgins, 2000) and according to the theory of regulatory fit, such circumstance or state can influence their work attitudes, behaviors and performance in a meaningful way (Higgins, 2000, 2002) because regulatory fit can cause employee to feel right about what they are doing and they will be more likely motivated to pursue the goal. In addition, in line with the compatibility principle (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1997), work-specific regulatory focus was generally more strongly related to work behaviors and attitudes than general regulatory focus and therefore, the regulatory focus covered in this study is about work-specific regulatory focus.

Since work-specific regulatory focus is forged by a combination of both stable personality attributes as well as the situational stimuli like leadership and work climate (Higgins, 1997, 2000; Wallace and Chen, 2006), employee may shift between two different orientations when they encounter certain situational impetus at work because the selection of work-specific promotion or prevention focus more likely depends on the situational and task demands (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). In general, work-specific regulatory focus is moderately stable over time (Brockner & Higgins, 1997), similar to other work-related orientations such as work goal orientation (Vande Walle, 1997). From now on, regulatory focus is indicated as work-specific regulatory focus throughout the thesis including the hypothesis development, adoption of measurement scale and the statistical analysis.

Given promotion focus is a strategic orientation that directs an individual's cognition and behavior toward the achievement of positive outcomes, whereas prevention focus pertains to a strategic orientation toward the avoidance of negative outcomes, Wallace and Chen (2006) discovered that prevention and promotion focus are independent from each another when operationalized in work-specific situation. Hence, employees could simultaneously optimize both orientations to respond to the distinct situations which result in different behavioral outcomes and employees might be able to engage in both regulatory focus or either regulatory focus in view of different job natures and work environments.

As mentioned before, since promotion focus and prevention focus have different orientation, prior research consistently elucidates that promotion focus has a positive influence on organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction and innovative performance whereas prevention focus

increases safety performance and counterproductive work behavior (Lanaj, Chang, & Johnson, 2012). Since the pursuit of goals involves the decision in the acquisition, retention and usage of information to meet certain objectives, it is therefore arguably that regulatory focus is a key for understanding work-related cognition and behavior. Despite some prior studies delineate that there is relationship between regulatory focus and creativity, innovation and voice (Gorman & et al., 2012; Lin & Johnson, 2015; Neubert & et al., 2008), only until recently, there has been one study examined the relationship between regulatory focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (Simo & et al., 2016) to my best knowledge. Thus, it is a motivation for me to examine whether promotion and prevention focus can facilitate change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in the financial industry in Hong Kong to address the call from the scholars to investigate the possible relations between regulatory focus and specific facets of OCB (Lanaj, et al., 2012).

Given regulatory focus is known to be influential in the information acquisition behavior of individuals, a strong promotion focus would increase the number of options that an individual considers when a decision has to be made (Bryant and Dunford, 2008). Therefore, a stronger promotion focus generates a desire to increase the chances of success by trying as many alternatives as possible and to reduce the chances of overlooking a potential solution (Higgins, 1998). In addition, individuals with higher level of promotion focus tend to process information from a more extensive perspective while those with higher level of prevention focus are more inclined to process information more specifically. This is because a more extensive information acquisition is instrumental in fulfilling the eagerness of individuals with higher levels of promotion focus to identify opportunities for success and minimize errors of omission. Conversely, a more

specialized information acquisition helps the individuals with a higher level of prevention focus to examine a limited number of best options in detail and minimize the possibility of loss (Pham and Chang, 2010). Since individuals with a stronger promotion focus are inclined to give more weight to gains than to losses and embrace risky options, they tend to focus on more uncertain potential long-term benefits and show a more exploratory orientation. Conversely, individuals with a stronger prevention focus tend to give more weight to possible losses that may come with exploratory actions and therefore focus on benefits that are more proximate, certain, and immediate. This sensitivity to possible failure and loss can forge their attitude toward risk and hence their cognitive decision in risk taking.

Furthermore, since regulatory focus refers to the cognitive processes that guide the selection of behaviors towards desired outcomes and away from undesired outcomes, employees should possess the self-efficacy to adopt the necessary methods to accomplish the tasks. According to Lanaj, et al. (2012), personality traits had effects on job attitude and work behaviors via regulatory focus. For instance, conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, self-esteem and self-efficacy were positively related to promotion focus. On the other hand, neuroticism, negative affectivity, performance-avoidance goal orientation and conscientiousness are all positively related to prevention focus. Therefore, regulatory focus can help to explain employee's willingness to take risk and their change-oriented behaviors.

Despite some scholars have argued that transformational leaders are likely to influence the promotion focus of the employees (Brockner & Higgins, 2001), these predictions have only been supported by minimal empirically tests (Cremer & et al, 2009). Given regulatory fit is about

people's subconscious process of adaptation to adjust their thinking to become more congruent with their environment, it is arguably that there might be some other leaders' behavior can have association with employees' regulatory orientation, attitudes and change-oriented behaviors. In this regard, my study will examine whether there is any interaction between regulatory focus and empowering leadership to forge employees' willingness to take risk and also examine whether regulatory focus would predict employees' willingness to take risk and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

2.4 Risk Taking

Conventionally, it is expected that organizations have to take risk and innovate to face the demanding and rapidly changing business environment because no business is risk free and it is notably that both the risk and uncertainty play important roles in almost every important economic and business decisions. Therefore, understanding employees' attitudes towards risk is essential for organizations to predict organizational behaviors because people vary in their attitude to make work-related or personal decisions that involve risk and uncertainty. (Weber & et al., 2002).

Risk taking is typically considered as a characteristic of individuals (Borman et al. 2003) and the development of risk taking has been emerged from four different and independent perspectives such as i) cognitive developmental research which investigated the development of decision making capacities that potentially underlie risk taking development, including sensitivity to risk, probability estimation, and perceptions of vulnerability; ii) emotional development research which found that affective decision making and emotional regulation skills improve with development through adolescence; iii) psychological research which analyzed the cognitive and affective neurological and biochemical bases of risk taking and their development, and iv) social development research which explored the effects of parent-child relationship, parenting strategies, and peer influences on the emergence of risk taking tendencies (Boyer, 2006). Despite these four perspectives are largely independent, it is argued that the common factor is that risk taking is associated with the probability of undesirable results when an individual engages in certain behaviors. Many argue that being able to interpret potentially risky situations and the ability to avoid excess risks, are among the most important skills one develops (Boyer 2006). In essence,

willingness to take risk or attitude towards risk is different among individuals because of their personality and the situations they come across. In this study, willingness to take risk or attitude towards risk would ride on the concept from cognitive framework which traditionally assumes that decision making situation involves the estimation of the probable costs and benefits of a given behavior.

In classical decision theory, risk is commonly conceived as the function of the probability and the perceived value of each possible outcome (Hung and Tangpong, 2010) and this implies that decision making under risk should be situational dependent. On the other hand, according to Bromiley (1991), decision making is also affected by individual attributes toward risk. By drawing on the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1997), attitude can influence behavioral intention, which in turn determine the possibility of the relevant behavior. Therefore, it is arguably that employee's attitude towards risk can influence their decision making in the pursuit of behavior.

Despite there is substantial amount of literature on decision making under risk to understand individuals' preferences in gambling, investment, business decisions and personal decisions, the conclusions on the causes of risk taking are contradictory because it has been discovered that people have different beliefs about what is risky (Holmes, Bromiley & Devers et al, 2011). For instance, prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979) proposes that risk taking is asymmetric about a reference point of which decision makers take more risks when they face with a certain loss than when face with a certain gain. This theory further hypothesizes that individuals will be more risk-seeking in loss situations and more risk-avoiding in gain situations. However, on the

contrary, some research elucidates that risk taking takes place in situations of gain while risk aversion takes place in the domain of loss and such phenomenon is due to the individual differences in the perception of what constitutes threat and opportunity (Hollenbeck et al, 1994). Besides, some research delineates that under favorable situations, goals for success should be more salient to majority of individuals, but individuals with a higher avoidance motive still perceive the situations are of potential threats. In contrast, under adverse situations, the primary focus of decision makers should be on the bottom lines for survival, but those with a higher achievement motive will pursue potential opportunities.

Results from experiments delineate that some dispositional variables such as self-confidence, perceived competence and risk propensity influence risk taking behavior and employees who believe they are very competent at decision making in a specific task during the experiments would see more opportunities in riskier choices and they would take more risks accordingly (Krueger and Dickson, 1994) because individuals' self-efficacy affects their decision to engage in risky actions. On the contrary, some research stipulates that individuals only engage in manageable risks because they can fix the negative outcome when it occurs but unable to manage those less risky, yet uncontrollable events. Nowadays, many organizations have defined their risk appetite and established the risk management policy to categorize the risk by business nature, frequency of occurrence, consequence to the organizations in order to give more guidelines to the employees about risk taking and risk management. It is essential to cultivate a robust risk management regime to encourage the employees to handle risks with care with effective policy to cover risk recognition, risk assessment, risk evaluation and risk monitoring.

It is notably that there are only a few studies on employees' risk taking in the management context (Tjosvold and Yu, 2007; Wu et al., 2008) despite risk taking has been extensively studied in many contexts covering consumer behavior, sexual behavior, speed driving and entrepreneurship. For risk literature in the past two decades, risk propensity has been defined as the willingness to take risk, which has the general likelihood that an individual will behave in a more or less risky manner across various situations (MacCrimmon & Wehrung, 1990). However, it is arguably that it cannot truly reflect employees' risk attitude because it is unlikely for employees to have consistent pattern in the evaluation of risk and acceptance of risk across different domains such as investment behavior, consumer behavior and working behavior. Since different situations constitutes different kinds of threats and opportunities, the consideration to take risk under different situations should be different.

On the contrary, some scholars have conducted experiments and surveys on risk attitudes and they posited that situational characteristics as well as personal attributes would jointly influence risk taking attitude (Sitkin and Weingart's, 1995). Therefore, risk taking attitude may not be the same for all the situations as employees may have different perception of benefits and associated risks during their cognitive decision process in the participation of a particular behavior in a particular domain. In this connection, the conventional nature of risk propensity by solely observing employees' personal traits is not sufficient to measure their willingness to take risk because it involves only the general personality and their risk seeking or risk adverse behaviors are not consistent in different situations.

A substantial body of research indicates that the tendency to take risk is associated with personality (Nicholson et al., 2005; Zuckerman, 1997) and other research argues that risk taking is a cognitive process and focuses in behaviorally-based measures. For instance, agreeableness and conscientiousness are found to have direct association with risk-related choices in the ethical domain, while neuroticism and openness are found to have direct association with risk-related choices in the social domains (Lauriola and Levin, 2001). In this regard, since the influence from personality varies across different situational domains and does not apply for all the situational domains, general-trait risk attitude is not sufficient to explain the employees' attitude and the relevant behavior. In this connection, this study adopted the work-specific measurement on willingness to take risk developed by Neves and Eisenberger (2013) because the scholars elucidate that willingness to take risk is the willingness to take action and make decision to accomplish goals with the clear recognition that mistakes and errors might be made and employees will engage in critical analysis before engaging in risky behaviors which are planned. In addition, since willingness to take risk involves the recognition and commission of uncertainty, risk, mistakes and failures when one proposes new ideas, adopts new initiatives and implement new measures, it is about the cognitive decision process of evaluating the potential benefits and the associated risks before engaging in certain behavior. Therefore, the measurement of willingness to take risk developed by Neves & Eisenberger (2013) is relevant for this study because it is about the willingness to try new procedures, accept difficult tasks with a high probability of failure or being honest about mistakes after cognitively taking consideration of the potential benefits and associated risks to pursue a particular behavior.

However, not all the employees have the cognitive abilities and discipline to be effective risk takers because not all the employees are willing to withstand uncertainty and mistakes in workplace. In view of no guarantee for positive outcomes, some employees might be afraid of the failure in the process of new ideas exploration, new ideas implementation or methods implementation. More than a decade ago, some research elicited that risk taking attitude is domain-specific (Weber et al, 2002) because employees have different level of self-efficacy towards different situations such as trying new methods, engaging in difficult tasks with a high failure rate or bravely admitting mistakes. Thus, in this study, I will draw on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) because this theory delineates that there is interaction between attitude and behavior while work-specific attitude can predict the relevant behavior. In addition, since outcome expectation is one of the factors of social cognitive theory to determine behavior, it is expected that willingness to take risk can predict the risky behavior such as change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Many scholars have argued that workplace characteristics may foster or inhibit change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior by certain psychological states such as willingness to take risk and increased self-efficacy (Bettencourt, 2004; LePine & van Dyne, 1998; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, despite the literature has identified a number of contextual factors that predict change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior as stipulated in Table 2, there is yet no study to examine the influence from empowering leadership and the intervening process through willingness to take risk concurrently. In this regard, I propose that willingness to take risk is the potential intervening process between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship. The details of hypothesis development will be discussed in Section 3 – Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development.

2.5 Perceived Organizational Support

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), reciprocity creates obligations toward another when the other party has engaged in previous behavior that was beneficial to the recipient. Social exchange theorists indicate that there is a tendency for employees who feel supported by the organization to reciprocate with behaviors that benefit the organization. It is notably that according to organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002), organization will reward employee's increased work effort and meet their socioemotional needs while employees develop the beliefs that the organization will value their contributions and care about their work life because the development of perceived organizational support is about employees' perception of the humanlike characteristics from the organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Furthermore, social exchange theorists argue that resources received from employees are more highly valued if they are based on discretionary choice rather than circumstances under supervisors' control. Therefore, employees who receive valued resources such as favorable job conditions, pay raises, job enrichment, promotion and influence over organizational policies will develop their perceived organizational support and employees feel obliged to strive to repay the organization by helping it to meet its business objectives.

Some research indicate that perceived organizational support is an individual-level construct, and the perceptions of organizational support may be different among employees because of the difference in their individual attributes or experiences in the organization even though they belong

to the same organization (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). It is notably that perceived organizational support can be strengthened by favorable work experiences that employees believe voluntary and purposeful decisions offered by the organizations rather than the external efforts from labor union or governmental health and safety regulations (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995).

Prior research has empirically noted that perceived support in the form of emotional and cognitive resources has been positively related to different kinds of organizational citizenship behavior such as creativity and taking charge behaviors (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Crant, 2000) because contextual factors reward them to engage in proactive behavior which is change-making or improvement-making actions. Therefore, when employees perceive their organization treasures their efforts and cares about employee welfare, their trust with the organization is cultivated and their confidence in their ability will increase which lead to the pursue of extra-role behaviors. However, on the contrary, Lambert (2000) elucidated that social exchange explanations cannot provide evidence to predict change-oriented behaviors such as taking charge because her research failed to support a positive relationship between organizational support and employee's making change-oriented suggestions but a negative relationship instead. Since the research results are mixed, it is of my interest to examine whether perceived organizational support will have any interaction effect with employees' cognitive process in taking risk instead.

In view of the social context, research demonstrates that organizational support is related to employee attitudes while some researchers have theorized that perception of the situation are more critical to employee's attitudes and behaviors than the actual situation (Endler and Magnusson, 1976). Therefore, when employees believe or have the perception that their organization provides

resources to support new ideas, they feel more obliged to make constructive change and provide suggestions for improvements (Fuller et al. 2006). Despite perceived organizational support is likely to engender a felt obligation to care about and assist the organization in attaining its goals; however, as argued by other scholars, when there is too much support from organizations, the employees are becoming satisfied to stay in the comfort zone and will have less motivation to challenge or change the current situation (Burnett & et al., 2013). On the contrary, it is notably that some research indicates that consistent negative evaluation of organizational support climate will activate employee's expectations aimed at changing the status quo and vice versa (Zhou & George, 2001). Therefore, in this study, I will explore to what extent and under what conditions that perceived organizational support would influence change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

2.6 Research Gap

In view of the practical importance of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, there are increasing research to study the influence from individuals and situational variables (LePine and Van Dyne, 2001) and from organizational context variables such as leadership or innovative climate (Choi, 2007; Bettencourt, 2004). However, there is only a few studies examining the impact of leaders on change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors while other research mainly focused in the issues of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Vigoda-Gadot and Beerli, 2011) and support from leaders (Choi, 2007).

Some research assert that today's organizations need leadership to inspire the employees and enable them to initiate revolutionary change (Conger and Kanungo, 1998) but it is only until recently that some scholars have started to examine the effect of transformational leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors (Lopez-Dominguez et al, 2013). Nevertheless, there is still very little study about the direct influence of empowering leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior even though there are many indirect evidences to expect that empowering leadership might have a positive influence on change-orientated organizational citizenship behaviors as per some empirical studies illustrated in Table 1.

The results on empowering leadership are mixed because some evidence indicates that empowering leadership is not advantageous in all organizational contexts and not all employees accept empowerment (Forester, 2000). In this essence, I intend to explore how and when

empowering leadership would have influence on change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors and expects to offer insights to the organizations about what kinds of employees would benefit from empowering leadership.

Over the past decades, behavioral decision research has studied extensively about risk taking behavior of individuals because such behavior can be both advantageous and disadvantageous to the organizations depending on the context. However, there is very few studies focusing on employees' risk taking attitude within organizations (Tjosvold and Yu, 2007). My study aims to enrich the literature in behavioral decision by examining whether empowering leadership can influence employee's willingness to take risk or their cognitive decision process to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, and whether willingness to take risk can directly predict change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, and what other boundary conditions would influence employees' willingness to take risk.

Furthermore, there is little research to consider regulatory focus which is trait-stable as a moderator. Therefore, this study will examine whether regulatory focus can play the role of a moderator to facilitate the influence from empowering leadership to employee's willingness to take risk and whether it can be a predictor for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, since promotion focus aims at accomplishment which involves taking risk while prevention focus advocates security which is risk adverse, this study will examine whether regulatory focus would be a predictor of willingness to take to risk.

Besides the personal factor, I intend to examine whether perceived organizational support can be the organizational factor to moderate the relationship between empowering leadership between employees' attitude in risk taking. Arguments are to be discussed in Chapter 3.1.

Despite there is a growing body of research on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, there is still very little research about the interactive effects of the predictors or antecedents affecting such behavior. In addition, the literature is fragmented and the empirical study about cognitive process in this behavior is still lacking as per stipulated in Table 2. To address this issue, I propose a mediation relationship to explain when employees become motivated to make things happen through their risk taking attitude and the moderation effect to explain how the moderators, regulatory focus and perceived organization support would influence the impact from empowering leadership on willingness to take risk.

In sum, I aim to fill up the research gaps and advance the literature for empowering leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, behavioral decision from the perspective of willingness to take risk, regulatory focus and perceived organizational support. It is also my purpose to provide insights for the organizations with the findings of this study such that they can enhance their competitiveness in the playing ground.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

3.1 Theoretical Background

In 1986, Bandura fully developed his social cognitive theory of human functioning and this theory bases on a casual structure grounded in triadic reciprocal causation. In this triadic causal model as illustrated in Figure 1, human functioning is an interaction between personal factors, the behavior that individuals engage in, and the environmental forces that affect them.

According to social cognitive theory, human motivation and action are extensively regulated by forethought. This anticipatory control mechanism involves expectations that might refer to the outcomes of undertaking a specific action. If people believe that they can take action to a solve a problem, they lean to do so and feel more committed to the decision. In addition, Bandura (2000b) elucidated that individuals are both the producers of experiences and the shapers of events. It is because to be an agent, an individual has to put intentional influence on his or her activities and the course of events caused by his or her actions. Since behavioral change is conducted possibly by personal sense of control, if people believe that they can take action to a solve a problem, they become more inclined to do so and feel more committed to their decision. The theory outlines a number of crucial factors that influence behavior and these factors are perceived self-efficacy, outcome expectancies, goal, and perceived socio-structural factors. Figure 2 illustrates the social cognitive theory.

It is assertive that social cognitive theory provides knowledge for predicting behavior because this theory can link leader's behavior to employees' intention and behavior (Bandura, 1991) by specifying how employees acquire knowledge through cognitive, social, emotional and behavioral competencies (Bandura, 1986, 1997). There have been extensive studies that have examined social cognitive theory in different domains such as school achievement, emotional disorders, physical health behavior, nutrition behavior, sexual behavior, smoking behavior, career choice and organizational behavior (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2003). Some empirical studies draw on social cognitive theory to explain the association between the leaders' behavior and the employees' behavior. For instance, Hannah et al. (2013) indicated that moral courage, which is the inner will to overcome threats, risks, or other challenge in order to act ethically or to resist pressure to act unethically as well as identification with organizational values, can serve as mediating variables for the influence of abusive supervision on employees' ethical intention and ethical behavior. In addition, according to Ng and Lucianetti (2016), as guided by social cognitive theory, employees are intentionally making things happen through their own actions and the increases in persuasion and self-efficacy can mediate the effects of the increase in organizational trust on both the increases in idea dissemination and increase in implementation. The study performed by Ng and Lucianetti (2016) further advanced the social cognitive theory that employees' cognitive belief will lead to their domain-specific innovative capacity.

In view of the empirical studies showing that social cognitive theory is relevant in the explanation of the interplay between personal factors, contextual factors, organizational factors and behavior, the causal model of social cognitive theory constitutes the theoretical framework of the research model in this study. It is expected that empowering leadership would influence change-oriented

organizational citizenship behavior through uplifting employees' self-efficacy, competence, decision making capabilities, and the provision of autonomy to encourage them to have willingness to take risk, which is concerned with attitude towards outcome expectation related to the possible consequences of their actions. Besides, regulatory focus, which is concerned as the intention to regulate employees' pursuit of strategy to attain desired goals, and perceived organizational support, which plays the role of socio-structural factor to provide opportunities that reside in the organization, would affect the employee's attitude towards risk for the pursuit of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

In this study, willingness to take risk is the attitude which refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior after cognitively calculating the potential benefits and the associated risk and therefore, it relates to the factor of outcome expectation of social cognitive theory. Since employees' regulatory focus constitutes perception, information processing, persuasion and decision confidence as well as self-efficacy, ability, opportunity and the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior and the pursuit of strategy to attain desired goals which is work-specific (Koenig, Cesario, Molden, Kosloff, & Higgins, 2009), it resembles the factors of self-efficacy and goal of social cognitive theory. In addition, perceived organizational support refers to the support in return for the employees' pursuit of behaviors which benefit the organizations, it facilitates such behavior and therefore resembles the factor of socio-structural of social cognitive theory. In this regard, it is arguably that the framework of the research model in this study can reflect the determinants of social cognitive theory to study the motivational, personal and contextual factors for the occurrence of change-oriented organizational behavior.

Since change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior involves employees' discretionary and extra-role behaviors changing the current situation beyond formal job description, it may bring the risk of misunderstanding by their supervisors and peers as well as some undesirable consequences such as damage in reputation. Nevertheless, because of the potential personal benefits and risks associated with challenging the status quo, employees often choose to engage or participate in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior only after cognitively calculating costs and benefits. Therefore, change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior is considered as an intentional "planned behavior" occurring in the organizational context and the research model is to examine the influence of empowering leadership on employees' cognitive decision process to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

3.2 Development of Conceptual Model

To frame and study the research question with the overarching theory of social cognitive theory, my conceptual model suggests that empowering leadership can promote change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior directly and indirectly through the mediating effect of willingness to take risk because willingness to take risk possess both situational characteristics as well as person-centered characteristics such that employee's attitude will be influenced or motivated by their leader and they will pursue a particular behavior after cognitively evaluate the potential benefits and costs.

Figure 3 shows my research model which indicates the interactive effects of the contextual, dispositional and organizational factors on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. It highlights i) how empowering leadership influences employees' willingness to take risk, which in turn affects change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, and ii) regulatory focus as a moderator that moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk and a predictor of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, and iii) perceived organizational support as a moderator which moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk. The hypothesis development will be discussed in Section 3.3.

Please refer to Table 3 for the definition of variables and other terminology.

3.3 Hypotheses Development

3.3.1 Empowering Leadership and Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As illustrated in the section of Literature Review, when employees are offered autonomy, they feel they are important, capable and valuable and their self-efficacy will be uplifted and be inspired when they believe that what they do are meaningful with impacts. It is arguably that empowering leadership style enhances employees' confidence in their competence both cognitively and behaviorally.

Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors refer as discretionary, voluntary and constructive efforts by employees to identify and implement changes with respect to work methods, policies, and procedures to improve the situation and performances (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007) and it is notably that when leaders empower and offer autonomy to their employees, they are granted with the discretion to make decision. More importantly, when empowering leader expresses confidence in employees' high performance and capability, employees feel committed to act for the benefits of organization by initiating planning, problem solving and fostering changes. Consistent with some prior research, empowering leadership can offer flexibility to employees and encourage them to pursue extra-role behavior to improve organizational situations and task performance (Li et al., 2015). Furthermore, Li et al. (2014) found a direct and positive relationship between empowering leadership and employee's taking charge behavior which is considered as change-oriented, risky and proactive behavior. Thus, by drawing on social cognitive theory, I

argue that empowering leadership provides the contextual influence on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1:

Empowering leadership is positively related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

3.3.2 The Predicative Role and Mediating Role of Willingness to Take Risk

3.3.2.1 The Direct Effect of Willingness to Take Risk on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship

Nowadays, employees are encouraged to take initiative, be innovative and develop creative solutions to work-related problems but taking risk may bring negative effects to the credibility of important stakeholders such as peer colleagues and supervisors. Some research elucidated that some employees fear failure because introducing new ideas into an organizational setting can be viewed as risky behavior and when employees treat uncertainty as threat, they are afraid of negative outcomes after making the decision and will not pursue the behavior because their attitude towards risk is weak. On the contrary, some research indicated that some employees are especially salient in introducing new ideas or procedures into their work roles, departments or organizations because some employees treat uncertainty as opportunities (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Therefore, employees have different attitude in willingness to take risk.

Employees' willingness to take risk is about their attitude towards the risk and it concerns with the evaluation of the potential benefits and associated risk under a particular situation. Therefore, employees with a high willingness to take risk will possess the courage to seize every opportunity to deploy different possible means to improve the current organizational situation. On the contrary, employees with a low level of willingness to take risk will interpret uncertainty as threats and the relevant activities too risky without any personal reward as well as having the possibility of failure. In this connection, employees with low level of willingness to take risk may insist to pursue routine work because they consider this is the safest way to survive in their organization while employees with a high level of willingness to take risk are likely to introduce new ideas or pursue behaviors to enhance the performance and sustainability of firms after their cognitive evaluation of the situation.

Employees who engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior must be change-oriented and willing to take risk to upset the status quo (LePine & Van Dyne 2001) and more importantly, scholars acknowledge that engaging in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior can be risky for employees (Morrison & Phelps, 1997). Therefore, not all employees are willing to engage in such behavior. Employees would cognitively calculate the potential benefits and risks before their participation in such behaviors. Since willingness to take risk which is

employees' attitude towards risk which involves the cognitive decision process, I argue that it is an antecedent of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2:

Willingness to take risk has positive relationship with change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors.

3.3.2.2 The Mediating Role of Willingness to Take Risk on the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship

Drawing on social cognitive theory, despite leadership style is a strong driver of work unit performance, employees also play active roles in forging the work experiences and relationships that influence their work specially their attitudes toward their leader, would affect their willingness to accept leader influence. It is notably that there are a number of research studies indicate that the quality of leadership that employees experience, especially empowering leaders, has a significant impact on their attitudes and behaviors (Zhang & Bartol, 2010) and therefore, I argue that empowering leadership might have influence on employee's willingness to take risk because employees who work for empowering leaders are more likely to feel encouraged to challenge the old ways of performing the tasks and therefore they would take the risk with creative efforts to engage in risky behavior

Undoubtedly, empowering leaders foster trust-based and power sharing relationships with employees by promoting autonomy in decision making and facilitating confidence and competence

among employees. Therefore, employees are assumed to take up additional responsibilities and risk in making their own decisions and encouraged to be proactive, to take risk and to engage in different kinds of creative activities that are likely to lead to innovative new ideas (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). In this regard, I did not propose the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk as a separate hypothesis.

Since empowering leadership showing concerns for employees is likely to give a signal that the leaders will act to prevent or mitigate employee's obstacles which might deter from their creative or proactive efforts, this would decrease the costs when they go through the cognitive process to evaluate the potential benefits and the associated cost to engage in risk behavior. Therefore, employees will be motivated to take up more risk and this will reflect in their willingness to take risk to engage in different kinds of change-related activities.

As empowering leader is perceived as a supportive leader who provides guidance to employees, recognizes the value of their input and treats them in fairly way, employees are likely to consider themselves as an important part of the decision process and therefore are more motivated to take risk as their confidence or self-efficacy has been uplifted by their leader. As a result, they tend to treat uncertainty as opportunities and pursue the risky behavior accordingly. In this connection, empowering leaders will strongly influence employees' attitudes towards taking risk to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Grounded with this line of reasoning, employees' willingness to take risk may mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3:

Willingness to take risk mediates the positive relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors.

3.3.3 The Predictive Role and Moderating Role of Regulatory Focus

3.3.3.1 The Predictive Role of Regulatory Focus on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

According to social cognitive theory, self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act as it regulates human functioning through cognitive, motivational, affective and decisional processes (Bandura, 1997). In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of aspects, including quality of decision making, goal setting and achievement while a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety and helplessness (Bandura 1997, 2001). According to Lanaj, et al. (2012), people high in self-efficacy set higher goals and perform better than people low in self-efficacy because they focus on success rather than failure. Therefore, people with promotion focus have their desired end-states to focus in aspiration and accomplishment which are explorative, sensitive to new possibilities for growth and achievement, and they are eager to approach targets that match their desired end-states

(Higgins, 1997, 1998). While on the other hand, people with prevention focus will have their desired end states to focus in obligation and safety which are risk-averse, sensitive to possibilities of losing and suffering failure, and they are eager to avoid mismatches to their desired end states of obligation and safety (Higgins, 1998).

It is noteworthy that change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior not only allows the employee to help the organizational directly, but also allows the employee to engage in extra-role behaviors to help themselves to attain their goals and achievements. As regulatory focus is about having the confidence, self-efficacy and competence in the enactment of behaviors to pursue goal, employee with promotion focus will maximize their achievements and they may spend efforts on both task performance and extra-roles in an attempt to be successful without commitment of errors. On the other hand, employee with prevention focus prefers high levels of duty to avoid from committing errors and hence they have little time or no intention to engage in extra-roles behaviors or change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

It is inevitably that prior research consistently elucidates that promotion focus has a positive influence on organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction and innovative performance whereas prevention focus increases safety performance and counterproductive work behavior (Lanaj et al., 2012). Therefore, it is likely that employees with promotion focus will engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior while employees with prevention focus will engage in their formal and routine duties as it is risky to deviate from the guidelines and procedures.

In addition, recent study delineates that promotion focus is positively related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (Simo, et al., 2016).

In view of the above line of reasoning, it is likely that promotion-focused employees who rarely experience fear of risks and failures, tend to perform change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, prevention focus has been linked with higher levels of anxiety and depression and it is likely that prevention-focused employees have hesitation in risk taking and will not participate in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4a:

Employee promotion focus is positively related with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior

Hypothesis 4b:

Employee prevention focus is negatively related with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior

3.3.3.2 The Predictive Role of Regulatory Focus on Willingness to Take Risk

It is notably that employees having the belief of competence can master challenging demands because people tend to believe that they can reduce or overcome risk through their skills. Therefore, those having high level of competence would take greater risks because they do not dwell on failure or uncontrollable threats. In this regard, it is arguably that people with high competence would frame risky choices as opportunities that they can control and manage through their skill and therefore they tend to have higher willingness to take risk. Bryant and Dunford (2008) suggested that risky behavior arises from promotion-focused which demonstrates individuals' eagerness to achieve and advance, while safe behavior arises naturally from prevention-focused demonstrates individuals' vigilance for danger and avoidance of risk. In addition, the relationship between regulatory focus and risk taking has been empirically supported in various studies including automobile speeding behavior (Hamstra et al., 2011) and new product investment decisions (Mullins et al., 1999). Therefore, promotion focus is related to risky and oriented towards attaining gains as positive outcomes, whereas prevention focus is related to being careful, cautious, and oriented toward avoiding losses and negative outcomes. Furthermore, Crowe and Higgins (1997) have found that acting from a promotion focus induces an exploratory risk-seeking behavior, whereas acting from a prevention focus produces a conservative risk-avoidance behavior.

As mentioned in Chapter 2.2, regulatory focus has both a stable (trait-like) component and a situational (state-like) component and according to Bryant and Dunford (2008), chronic regulatory focus influences risk propensity which is the assessment of the risk inherent in a situation while situational regulatory focus influences risk perception which is willingness to take risk (Sitkin and

Pablo, 1992). In addition, some experiments elucidate that employee regulatory focus affects their willingness to experience with a wide range of alternatives and to deviate from existing practices (Ahmadi et al., 2017). According to some prior studies, promotion-focused employees experience more positive emotions and have higher self-esteem and self-efficacy, which may help them be more resilient when faced with unforeseen challenges and hardships at work. On the contrary, prevention-focused employees possess more negative emotion as they are cautious about committing any mistakes, therefore, they are risk averse (Lanaj, et al., 2012).

Given the influence of regulatory focus on risk tendencies, I hypothesize that regulatory focus will affect employees' willingness to take risk, that is, their evaluation of the potential benefits and the associated costs of a particular behavior. As promotion focus is aspirational and growth-oriented, associated with the strategy of approaching desired end-states and can be thought of as motivation for change, I expect employees with promotion focus to be more likely to take risk in order to initiate changes when compared to employees with a prevention focus.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5a:

Employee promotion focus is positively related with willingness to take risk

Hypothesis 5b:

Employee prevention focus is negatively related with willingness to take risk

3.3.3.3 The Moderating Role of Regulatory Focus on the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Willingness to Take Risk

In this section, I focus on the situation in which either promotion or prevention focus in employees will moderate the influence of empowering leadership on willingness to take risk.

Despite leadership behaviors can influence employees' attitude and behavior, their effectiveness cannot fit all the situations because employee is unique and they have different personal characteristics and therefore their reaction to their leaders do not necessarily the same. Since employees interpret the information and act based on their mental framework (Brett and VandeWalle, 1999), their behavior rides on what information they get from their social environment and they would evaluate what they should do in the work context according the information they possess.

As organizational change might cause a state of uncertainty, including loss of status, work overload, role conflict and reduction of resources, employees need to have confidence and the relevant information to make reasonable and justifiable decisions under the volatile and ever-changing business environment. Thus, employees' self-regulation is essential for how they perceive and react to external opportunities and threats and regulatory focus is critical in regulating cognitive processing and behavioral responses for goal pursuit (Higgins, 2001; Lanaj et al., 2012).

Since some employees may view themselves as unready to handle new responsibilities or have other reasons for not wanting to take on more empowered roles. Therefore, not all employees are

empowered to take risk to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Some conditions have to be fulfilled and it is of my interest to examine how regulatory focus will affect empowering leaders' influence on willingness to take risk.

It is notably that useful information can facilitate rational decision making while information acquisition, processing and usage are characteristics of regulatory focus which is about the pursuit of strategies to attain the goals. Before the adoption of certain strategies, one must have to make decision to determine which strategies are optimal for the attainment of goals riding on the information on hand. Some studies already demonstrated the impact of regulatory focus on risky decision-making (Higgins, 2002) that people with promotion focus are inclined to perceive commission risk as positive risk and omission risk as negative risk while people with prevention focus do not perceive commission risk as positive risk, or do not perceive omission risk as negative risk.

Given empowering leaders share information and knowledge to the employees (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000), their sharing of information and knowledge to the employees would provide with them the cognitive resources to facilitate their decision making. It is arguably that when employees with promotion focus are motivated or empowered with autonomy and power, and their leaders share with them the useful and relevant information, they are motivated to search for solutions to make decision and therefore, they tend to be willing to take risk to pursue their goals and solve the problems. On the other hand, when employees with prevention focus who are duty oriented and compliance focused are empowered, they will feel the stress if they deviate from

the rules and guidelines because they less likely want to be empowered and they don't want to have the autonomy.

In this connection, I argue that empowering leadership can activates employees' values that are focused on nurturance, growth, achievement and positive outcomes because of their natural inclination to approaching new things. Thus, employees with a higher level of promotion focus will interact with empowering leader to have more motivation to take risk than the employees with lower levels of promotion focus. On the other hand, since employees with prevention focus avoid negative outcome and they focus in duties, responsibilities and obligations, they might not welcome autonomy or empowerment as they would like to follow the rules and regulations strictly. They would focus in information that is specific to their roles and responsibilities and will make decision to seek solution to avoid any risk. In this regard, employees with a higher level of prevention focus will interact with empowering leadership to a lesser extent and hence have less motivation to take risk than the employees with lower levels of prevention focus.

Given employees' regulatory focus at work is moderately stable over time (Wallace & Chen, 2006), which is similar to other work-related orientations, for instance, work goal orientation, regulatory focus can be considered as a moderator. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a:

The positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when employee promotion focus is high than when it is low

Hypothesis 6b:

The positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is weaker when employee prevention focus is high than when it is low

3.3.4 The Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support on the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Willingness to Take Risk

According to previous studies on perceived organizational support, outcome expectancy is one of the mechanisms to explain the effects of organizational support on employee work outcomes (Yu & Frenkel, 2013). Since outcome expectancies, which is one of the determinants of social cognitive theory (See Figure 1), are the beliefs about the possible consequences of one's action which encourages people to make decision to change their behavior, employees would weigh the pros and cons of a certain behavior before engaging in a particular behavior. The benefits that the employee takes into consideration during their cognitive process may include the positive or negative perceived organizational support in addition to the other material costs and benefits and therefore, employees would engage in a particular behavior when they perceive that the pursuit of such behavior would have more disadvantages than advantages.

Therefore, organizations with a high level of perceived organizational support provide contexts in which employees feel safe in taking personal initiative and prompt their employees to experience the personal feelings of moral obligation or responsibility to perform or refuse to perform a certain behavior.

Since risk taking involves actions having an uncertain outcome, it is true that employees who are willing to take risk often encounter consequential risk because of the possibility of failure and the possible ruin in working relationship with leader and peer. Besides, performing organizational citizenship behavior might require employees to perform multiple roles beyond their prescribed roles simultaneously, they might find it stressful. Therefore, apart from self-confidence and perceived competence, whether the employees are willing to take the risks are also subject to the organizational atmosphere of trust and safety. It is because when employees are lacking of the encouragement to take risk or they have the fear of failure, employees' willingness to take risk may become less. Some scholars indicate when employees perceive their organization treasures their contribution and cares about their work life and personal life, their trust in the organization will increase and they will respond to failure with risk with positive mindset (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

Moreover, some studies delineate that building a mutually beneficial employment relationship requires leaders to provide employees with valued extrinsic and intrinsic rewards which are reciprocated with enhanced performance and citizenship because previous studies demonstrate that the effect of a social exchange relationship is contingent on individual differences as well as social factors (Lam et al., 2015). Therefore, it is arguably that with different level of perceived organizational support, employees are motivated to exert different level of willingness to take risk to pursue change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Since organizations with a high level of perceived organizational support are more likely to tolerate employee failures or errors during the implementation of new methods, employees of this

organization will perceive that their risk-taking behavior is supported by their organizations. It is arguably that the higher level of perceived organizational support to treasure employees' work efforts, employees tend to experience more trust and confidence which reinforce their willingness to take risk further to pursue change-oriented citizenship behaviors.

Organizational citizenship behavior has been considered as a factor that can contribute to organizational effectiveness by maintaining and enhancing the organization's social and psychological context (Organ, 1998). Many research elucidate that organizations cannot enforce employee's participation in organizational citizenship behaviors using formal role obligations or contractual guarantees or through compensation that benefits them (Organ, 1990). Therefore, when employees perceive their organization treasure their extra-role behavior by concerning about their work life or offering them career advancement, trust will be uplifted between leader and their employees which leads to strong belief that organization would support their extra-role behavior and they will exhibit such behavior in return to benefit the organization on the basis of the reciprocity norm. According to a meta-analytic research on perceived organizational support (Rhoads and Eisenberger, 2002), some consequences of perceived organizational support were organizational commitment, job satisfaction, positive mood, job involvement, performance, strains, desire to remain and withdrawal behavior and hence perceived organizational support can predict organizational citizenship behavior directly (Shore and Wayne, 1993).

However, it is notably that according to Baron and Kenny (1986), a moderator is a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable while according to Sharma, Durand and Gur-Arie (1981), a more specific conceptualization for moderator is that it should have independent effect on the

dependent variable. In this regard, I would consider to treat perceived organizational support as the first stage moderator only because in view of the arguments in the paragraphs above, it was supposed that perceived organizational support would facilitate or provide the boundary condition that empowering leadership behaviors are beneficial to them such that employees would weigh the benefits higher than the cost when they evaluate the outcome expectation, which is the underlying characteristic of willingness to take risk, before they pursue for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 7:

Perceived organizational support positively moderates the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk such that the relationship is stronger when perceived organizational support is high than when it is low

Chapter 4 Method

4.1 Research Design

This research study has been carried out in the form of quantitative analysis using dyads as units of analysis. The data collection was conducted from Feb 2018 to April 2018 and data was collected from two sources: employees and their supervisors from nine different financial institutions in Hong Kong. A three-wave time-lag study was carried out to examine the responses of different participants at different points in time and the collection of these variables was separated by a temporal span of three weeks.

The questionnaire was developed in three phases. In the first phase, the questionnaire, with measurement scales adapted from the literature, was translated into Chinese and then reviewed by a bilingual teacher before being translated back into English following the standard procedures (Brislin, 1986). The full translated version was then reviewed by five employees and their respective managers to develop an understanding of how change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior is viewed in the organization and to determine what specific behaviors are seen critical to the change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Comment on the questionnaire has been sought from an academic professional. The second phase involved the pilot test of the questionnaire, which was conducted after making adjustment according to the comments from the employees, managers and academic professional. Since two measurement scales were used for willingness to take risk and three measurement scales were used for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in the first phase, some items have been removed due

to duplication of meaning or redundancy during the second phrase of pilot test. Details about the measurement adopted in the questionnaire are discussed in section 4.3. The third phrase involved the final revision of the survey instrument. The adopted three-phase procedure was similar to that of Dillman (2009). The questions were communicated in both English and Chinese.

4.2 Sampling and Procedure

Data were collected in three waves to minimize common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In the first-wave survey, employees were asked to provide self-rating on their regulatory focus and the rating on their supervisor's empowering leadership behavior, and the basic demographic information such as gender, age, job nature, tenure with the organization and tenure with their existing supervisor. Three weeks later (Time 2), employees evaluated their willingness to take risk and perceived organizational support. Consistent with prior studies (Neves and Eisenberger, 2014, Tjosvold and Yu, 2007, Wallace et al., 2009), I used self-reported willingness to take risk and regulatory focus measures because attitude towards risk and pursuit of goals are difficult for others to observe. Three weeks later (Time 3), their supervisors evaluated the change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior of their employees.

To further minimize the common method bias, I promised participants about the confidentiality of responses to limit their evaluation apprehension and socially desirability and created psychological separation between the measures in my surveys by putting variables in different waves of the survey (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

340 sets of survey have been given to the designated coordinators from different financial institutions and they randomly selected the respondents in their respective financial institutions to participate in the study and they subsequently returned the completed questionnaires to the researcher. Informed consent was obtained before the study began and a cover letter has been attached with each questionnaire to specify the confidentiality of the response. To ensure the confidentiality of the data collection process, a sealed envelope was attached with each questionnaire. In order to boost the response rate, briefing has been arranged to the coordinators to make sure that they understood the purpose of the survey as well as the logistics for the arrangement of the 3-wave time lag survey.

To ensure the correct matching of questionnaires from the employees with their respective supervisors in view of studying dyad relationship, coding has been arranged for each set of questionnaires. Each team had only one supervisor. At Time 1, 183 completed questionnaires from 44 teams were returned from the employees, yielding a response rate of 53.82% (183 out of 340 questionnaires) for employees. Time 2 questionnaires were distributed to the same 183 employees and they all returned the completed questionnaires yielding a response rate of 100%. Finally, at Time 3, the questionnaires asking supervisors to rate their subordinates' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior were distributed to 44 supervisors of those 183 employees who had responded to the questionnaires for both Time 1 and Time 2. All 44 supervisors returned the questionnaires and thus, the response rate from supervisors at Time 3 was 64.71% (44 out of 68). The sample of this study thus consisted of 183 employees and their 44 supervisors and all of them were Chinese. We assured the participants that the study was conducted purely for research purpose and the participation was voluntary.

Due to the missing data for some questions, these questionnaires were removed from analysis and there were 176 completed paired relationships from 44 teams were remained for analysis and therefore the response rates for employees and supervisors were 51.76% and 64.71% respectively. According to the scholar Schlevogt (2002), response rates in Chinese societies can be below 2%. Therefore, the response rate of 51.76% of this current study which was carried out in a predominately Chinese society was deemed acceptable.

In view of the nested nature of the data, three teams having only one teammate have been removed and therefore, in the final sample, there were 41 teams (response rate of 60.29%) with a total of 173 employees (response rate of 50.88%). The employees were predominantly female (N = 92, 53.20%), and their average age was 34.08 years old. Employees' average organizational tenure was 2.86 years and their average tenure with their supervisor was 2.37 years. With regard to education, majority of them have obtained Bachelor's Degree (N = 119, 68.80%), (N=26, 15%) reported master degree, (N=9, 5.2%) reported diploma and (N=19, 11%) were secondary school graduates. Majority of the employees have a tenure with the present employer of 3 – 5 years (N = 72, 41.6%) and below one year (N = 68, 39.30%). Majority of the employees (N=70, 40.5%) are from Credit Management, Finance, Risk Management, Financial Crime Compliance, Internal Audit, Legal, Regulatory Compliance and Research Departments and (N=44, 25.4%) are from Training, Sales, Marketing, Corporate Communication and Investment Advisory Departments. The categorization of job natures in this study depended on the roles and responsibilities of each department, and whether they are client-facing, and whether innovation is needed, as well as their roles delineated in the risk management regime in respect of the Three Lines of Defense Model of the largest local bank in Hong Kong.

For the supervisor, the participants were predominantly male (N = 23, 56.10%), and majority of them fell in the age group of 40 – 50 years old (N=17, 41.5%). The 41 immediate supervisors of the employees participated the survey by providing ratings of the change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior on each of their direct reports during the third wave (Time 3). On average, each supervisor oversaw the performance of 4.22 employees. Majority of the supervisors oversaw 5 employees. The largest team size was 13 employees while the smallest team size was 1 employee in the sample and three teams having only one teammate were removed from analysis. Their average tenure with the organization was 3.76 years and majority of them had an average tenure with the organization from 3-5 years (N=16, 39%).

Table 4 provides the means and standard deviations of the demographic information measured in this study, including age, education, gender, job nature and organizational tenure.

4.3 Measures

In this study, a 5-point Likert scale (1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree) was used for all study items. The items were obtained from various journal sources with good academic standing and the scales were of stringent reliability and validity measures that grasped the variables of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, regulatory focus and perceived organizational support.

Empowering leadership – 12-item scale by Ahearne, et al. (2005) which has been extensively adopted in previous research (Cheong et al., 2016; Li et al., 2015) and this 12-item scale has been used in Chinese context (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). This scale includes four dimensions: i) enhance the meaningfulness of work with a sample item of “My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company”, ii) foster participation in decision making with a sample item of “My manager often consults me on strategic decisions”), iii) express confidence in decision making with a sample item of “My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks”, and iv) perform autonomy from bureaucratic constraints with a sample of “My manager allows me to do my job my way”. The Cronbach’s alpha values for each dimension itself were all over 0.80 and the Cronbach’s value for the overall measurement scale of 12 items was 0.894.

Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior – As mentioned in Chapter 2.2, there is slight difference in the definition of change-oriented organizational citizenship by different scholars for their empirical studies. Despite there are slight differences in connotations, they all represent employee behavior that is intended to make constructive changes in the work and task environment.

According to Morrison and Phelps (1999), taking charge is characterized as proactive, challenging, change-oriented and risky (Li et al., 2012) and empirical studies indicate that empowering leadership is associated with taking charge behavior (Li et al., 2012; Moon et al., 2008). In this regard, I made references to the 10-item measurement scale of taking charge during the design of the questionnaire. Besides, I also made references to the 4-item measurement scale on change-

oriented organizational citizenship behavior developed by Choi (2007). In addition, according to LePine & Van Dyne (2001), voice is a promotive and challenging form of proactive behavior and empirical studies indicated that voice behavior tends to seek opportunities for improvement and challenges the status quo (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001); therefore, I also made references to the 10-item measurement of scale for voice developed by Liang et al., 2012 which has been adopted in previous empirical studies (Wei et al., 2015; Chin, 2013) during the 1st phase of the development of the questionnaire.

During the pilot test, that is, 2nd phase of the development of the questionnaire, 5 employees and their supervisor opined that there were overlapping of statements quoted from the three abovementioned measurement scales – taking charge, change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and voice. After several rounds of discussion and review, in view of face validity, I finally adopted 3 items extracted from Choi (2007) with example questions “ I frequently come up with new ideas or new work methods to perform my task” and “ I often suggest work improvement ideas to others” ; 2 items extracted from Liang et al. (2012) with example questions “I proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the team” and “I dare to point out problems when they appear in the team, even if that would hamper relationships with colleagues”; and 7 items extracted from Morrison and Phelps (1999) with example questions “This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive”.

Exploratory factor analysis has been conducted to assess how 12-item of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior extracted from the three abovementioned measurement scales

clustered. Based on the eigenvalues over 1 criterion, the first component explains 59.244% of the variance and majority of the pairs of items have a high to relatively high correlation, that is > 0.40 with factor loading larger than 0.59. Therefore, the 12-items for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior adopted in the questionnaire are substantially related to other items and can be aggregated as the measurement scale for this study.

In addition, confirmatory factor analysis using Mplus (Version 7.3; Muthen & Muthen, 2012) has been conducted. Considering the number of items for the measurement scale on taking charge developed by Morrison and Phelps (1999), I used item parceling to reduce the number of items from 7 to 4 using the method recommended by Hall (1999) while two items on voice and three items on change-oriented organizational behavior were used for confirmatory factor analysis. One-factor model demonstrated acceptable fit: $\chi^2(27, N = 178) = 74.339, p < 0.001$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.96, Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.946, Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.099, Standardized Root-Mean-Square Residual (SRMR) = 0.032, and all factor loadings were significant. Since Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) had values below 0.06 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was just a bit slightly higher 0.08 respectively, it demonstrated that the indicators were of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) were reported with values above and near 0.95 respectively, it demonstrated that the indicators were of acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, the measurement scale for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior was valid. The Cronbach’s alpha value for the aggregated 12-item adopted for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior adopted in this study was 0.937.

Regulatory focus –In this study, I adopted 18-item scale by Neubert and et al. (2008) which has been adopted in previous empirical studies (Petrou, et al., 2015; Roczniowska, et al., 2013). There were two dimensions – 9 items for prevention focus and 9 items for promotion focus. Example questions are “I focus on my work accomplishments”, “I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security”, “I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities” and “If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project, I would definitely take it”. The Cronbach’s alpha values for prevention focus and promotion focus were 0.847 and 0.829 respectively. The Cronbach’s alpha value for the overall measurement scale of 18 items was 0.807.

Willingness to take risk – It is notably that risk taking has been studied in the behavioral decision domain for decades; however, despite individuals have stable risk trait, there is variation in the risk preference towards different contexts. Therefore, my study made use of domain-specific or context-specific to measure employees’ willingness to take risk in the work context rather than the conventional measurement of general risk questions which is of the same risk attitudes for all aspects, in order to have a more effective predictive power of the employees’ willingness to take risk in the work context.

There are very few measurement scales on context-specific willingness to take risk. One is 6-item scale by Rybowskiak et al. (1998) of which previous empirical research has also adopted this measurement scale (Tjosvold and Yu, 2007) while the other is 4-item scale was developed by Neves and Eisenberger in 2013. However, the scale developed by Rybowskiak et al. (1998) focuses

in recovery from error, of which the dimension is different from the dimension of willingness to take risk in this study which is about the attitude towards risk in trying new procedures, accepting difficult tasks with a high probability of failure or being honest about mistakes. In this regard, I adopted the 4-item measurement scale developed by Neves and Eisenberger (2013) with fine tuning in the questions to specify attitude towards risk rather than risk taking behavior. The questions are “The employee is willing to accept tasks having a high likelihood of problems”, “The employee is willing to put himself/herself in a position of risk to help this organization”, “The employee is willing to tell me he/she has made a mistake that he/she could easily hide.” and “The employee values taking a chance on new products, services or procedures.”.

Exploratory factor analysis has been conducted to assess whether 4-item of willingness to take risk clustered. Based on the eigenvalues over 1 criterion, the first component explains 43.167% of the variance and majority of the pairs of items have a moderate to high correlation, that is from 0.352 to 0.521. Therefore, the 4-items for willingness to take risk adopted in the questionnaire are substantially related to other items and can be treated as the measurement scale for this study. The Cronbach’s value is 0.56, which is similar to the value of 0.61 developed by the scholar in 2013.

Perceived organizational support – In this study, we used a short form developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) – 10-item of which previous empirical study has also adopted this extracted measurement scale (Neves and Eisenberger, 2014). Example questions are “My organization takes pride in my accomplishment at work”, “Even I did the best job possible, my organization would

fail to notice”, “My organization cares about my general satisfaction at work” and “The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.”

Based on the eigenvalues over 1 criterion, the first component explains 54.93% of the variance and majority of the pairs of items have a high to relatively high correlation, that is > 0.40 with factor loading larger than 0.583. Therefore, the 10-items extracted for perceived organizational support adopted in the questionnaire are substantially related to other items. The Cronbach's value was 0.904.

Control Variables – To reduce the likelihood that other variables would influence change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and would confound the relationships examined in this research, I controlled for several variables in the statistical analysis. First, following other researchers (Byrnes et al., 1999; Choi, 2007; Liang et al., 2012), I controlled for individual-level variables such as age, gender and tenure with supervisor which were served as the primary control variables because male has been found more likely to take risks than female participants (Byrnes et al., 1999) while tenure with supervisor provide proxies for knowledge and experience with their supervisors (Tierney & Farmer, 2002) and have been related to individual creativity (Amabile, 1983). Besides, the length of the supervisor's and subordinate's working relationship influences supervisor ratings of subordinates (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994). Gender was dummy coded as 1 = male, 0 = female. The length of the dyadic relationship was measured for its potential effects on the quality of supervisor-subordinate relationships.

Previous research has suggested that politics perception essentially function as an environment stressor (Ferris et al., 1998). Empirical study indicated that employees experience more negative outcomes when they responded to organizational politics perceived as threatening (Valle and Perrewé (2000). In view of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) and social exchange theory (Organ, 1990), employees' behavior would be affected by the environment and when their cognitive evaluation toward the environment is negative, they will not engage in extra-role activities. Previous empirical research indicated that perceived politics has a significant negative relationship with extra-role behaviour (Bodla et al., 2014).

Perception of organizational politics is the degree to which respondents view their work environment as political and therefore unjust and unfair (Ferris, Russ & Fandit, 1989). In this study, politics perception with 6-items developed by Hochwarter, et al. (2003) was adopted as control variable in this study. Previous empirical study has also adopted this measurement scale (Rosen and Hochwarter, 2014) and some example questions were "People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them", "There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on" and "People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie". The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.907.

Since the participants held a number of organizational functions and the choice for engaging in promotion or prevention work focus likely depends on situation and task demands (Brockner & Higgins, 2001), this study examined one-way analysis of variance to determine whether there were differences between job types on willingness to take risk, prevention focus, promotion focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. No significant differences were found

between job types for empowering leadership ($F = 0.667$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$), willingness to take risk ($F = 0.493$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$), prevention focus ($F = 0.665$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$), promotion focus ($F = 0.941$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$), perceived organizational support ($F = 0.293$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$) and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($F = 1.022$, $df = 4$, 168 , $\rho > 0.05$). In addition, since job nature was not correlated with any of the variables, this study excluded job nature as control variable.

A summary of the measured variables is included in Appendix A.

4.4 Data Analysis

In this study, Mplus (Version 7.3; Muthén & Muthén, 2012) was used for the confirmatory factor analysis to assess the model fit and the testing of the hypotheses about the impact from empowering leadership, the predictive attribute of the predictors on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and the moderating and mediating effects using hierarchical linear modelling in view of the nested nature of the data (HLM; Raudenbush, et al., 2004).

4.5 Data Cleaning

Before running the descriptive analysis, data cleaning and transformation such as reviewing the questionnaires to check if there were any reversed coded items to be conducted. The returned

questionnaires were examined to verify whether there were any missing data. Missing data were dealt with using appropriate techniques such as case substitution and means substitution. Outliers were also checked to avoid distortion of the data analysis and conclusions (Hair et al., 2010).

4.6 Reliability Analysis

The collected data were analyzed after data cleaning to ensure that all of the items included in the confirmatory factor analysis are reliable and the constructs are reasonably correlated. Table 5 summarizes the number of items in the scale for each variable, the mean of each variable, the standard deviation of the mean and the reliability of scale. Majority of the Cronbach's alpha values are found to be greater than 0.70, which is the threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2010) except the value of 0.56 for willingness to take risk which is similar to the value of 0,61 developed by the scholar (Neves and Eisenberger, 2013).

Since the correlation among items for majority of variables was moderately high to high (that is >0.40), the items made good component for a summated rating scale. I can conclude that majority of variables have good internal consistency given their Cronbach's alpha were over 0.80.

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Analytical Strategy

Considering the nested nature of the data, that is, a single supervisor provided behavioral assessments for two or more subordinates, and there is widespread agreement among organizational researchers that both individual and environmental factors affect individual behavior in organizations (Hong, et al., 2016), I used hierarchical linear modeling (HLM: Randenbush, Bryk, Cheong, Congdon, du Toit, 2004) in Mplus (Version 7.3; Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to test the hypotheses by controlling the group variances. According to Mass and Hox (2004), as a rule of thumb, 30 heterogenous samples are more appropriate to examine the contextual effects. In view of three teams having one teammate only, I removed these three teams from the analysis of nested data (Lam et al., 2015) and the final data sample for CFA model fit testing and hypotheses testing was composed of 173 employees from 41 teams with an average team size of 4.22.

ANOVA results suggested that the between-group variance in empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, promotion focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior was significant as per Table 6, thereby justifying the use of HLM to test the hypotheses. However, it was non-significant for prevention focus, perceived organizational support and perceived organizational politics.

As illustrated in Table 7, I also calculated the inter-member reliability (ICC1 and ICC2) and tested whether average scores differed significantly across teams as indicated by *F* test from a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) contrasting team means on each variable. ICC1 indicates the proportion of variance in ratings due to team membership, whereas ICC2 indicates the reliability of team mean differences (Bliese, 2000). For empowering leadership, I obtained good support for aggregation (ICC1= 0.1812, ICC2 =0.4828), $F(40,172) = 1.935$, $p < .05$. For promotion focus, ICC1= 0.1635, ICC2 =0.4521, $F(40,172) = 1.824$, $p < .05$. For willingness to take risk, ICC1=0.1870, ICC2=0.4925, $F(40,172) = 1.969$, $p < .05$. Since the between-group variances for prevention focus and perceived organizational support were non-significant while some research indicate that perceived organizational support is an individual-level construct, and the perceptions of organizational support may be different among employees because of the difference in their individual attributes or experiences in the organization even though they belong to the same organization (Eisenberger, et al., 1986); therefore, only empowering leadership, willingness to take risk and promotion focus were grand mean centered, that is, the overall mean of each predictor was subtracted from every case of that variables to reduce multicollinearity (Hofmann & Gavin, 1982).

5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using Mplus (Version 7.3; Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to evaluate the discriminant validity of the variables and the model fit (Hair et al., 2010). Considering the sample size, I used item parceling to reduce the number of indicators of each construct. As recommended, I combined the two items from each

scale with the highest and lowest factor loadings first and then repeated the method until it produced three indicators for each construct (Hall, 1999). In view of the four dimensions of empowering leadership, mean value of items from each dimension has been adopted as the indicator for each dimension. Since there were only four items for willingness to take risk, no item parceling was needed. The hypothesized six-factor model with factors namely, empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, prevention focus, promotion focus, and perceived organizational support and change-oriented organizational support demonstrated acceptable fit: $\chi^2(155, N = 173) = 252,344, p < 0.001$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.943, Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.93, Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.06, Standardized Root-Mean-Square Residual (SRMR) = 0.057, and all factor loadings were significant. Since both Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) had values below 0.06 and 0.08 respectively, it demonstrated that the indicators were of good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) were reported with values near to 0.95, it demonstrated that the indicators were of acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Comparing with other five alternative models, it revealed that the six-factor model fit the data considerably better. I also tested for the presence of a common method effect because the data of empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, prevention focus, promotion focus and perceived organizational support were collected from a single source, that is, from the employees. The confirmatory factor analysis showed that the single-factor model did not fit the data, $\chi^2(170, N = 173) = 1308.455$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.252, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = 0.252, root-

mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.197, standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = 0.157.

In addition, I conducted a Harman's single-factor test of all major variables from employees' rating (44 items) in this study using varimax rotation (Xue, Bradley, & Liang, 2011) and it was found that 11 factors were extracted with eigenvalue greater than 1, the accumulated amount of explanatory variance was 67.567%, and the largest factor did not account for a majority of the variance (20.868%). Therefore, no single dominant factor was found and thus common method variance was not a pervasive problem.

Table 7 illustrated that Model 1 reflected my hypothesized approach which fit the data well and was most parsimonious.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of the variables are presented in Table 8. As shown in Table 8, empowering leadership ($r = 0.286, \rho < 0.01$), willingness to take risk ($r = 0.178, \rho < 0.05$) and promotion focus ($r = 0.272, \rho < 0.01$) were positively correlated with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. The bivariate results provided preliminary support for majority of the hypothesized relationships.

5.4 Hypotheses Testing

A series of regression analysis on nested data using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Raudenbush, et al., 2004) has been conducted to examine all the hypotheses with individual as unit of analysis. The proposed relationships were studied while controlling for demographic information such as employees' gender, age, tenure with their supervisors, and politics perception. This chapter presents the results of the hypotheses testing which were displayed in Table 9. Model 1 is the null model with control variables and the dependent variable, change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

5.4.1 The Direct Effect of Empowering Leadership on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Consistent with my predictions, Model 2 in Table 9 shows that empowering leadership was positively correlated with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($b = 0.195$, $SE = 0.072$ $p < 0.01$) after controlling for demographic information and politics perception. Therefore, the result supported Hypothesis 1.

5.4.2 The Direct Effect of Willingness to Take Risk on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As shown in Model 3 in Table 9, after controlling for demographic information and politics perception, it delineated that willingness to take risk was positively correlated with change-

oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($b = 0.273$, $SE = 0.098$ $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the result supports Hypothesis 2.

5.4.3 The Mediating Effect of Willingness to Take Risk on the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the positive association between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior is mediated by willingness to take risk. This study applied the mediation analysis method of Baron and Kenny (1986) to evaluate the mediating effect of willingness to take risk. The approach requires testing whether the independent variable X is significantly related to dependent variable Y, followed by testing whether the independent variable is significantly related to the mediating variable M. The third step is to test whether the mediating variable is significantly related to the dependent variable Y, as shown in Figure 4.

When controlling the effects of the mediating variable M on the dependent variable Y, the effect of the independent variable X on the dependent variable Y should no longer be significant.

In view of the above mechanism, I entered the variables into model in three steps. The control variables were entered first, followed by the independent variable of empowering leadership and, finally, the mediator of willingness to take risk was entered to test the mediation effect.

As shown in Model 4 in Table 9, the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is statistically significant ($b = 0.196$, $SE = 0.095$ $p < 0.05$) When willingness to take risk was entered in the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, the relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (Model 7) became less significant ($b = 0.179$, $SE = 0.112$ $p < 0.01$), whereas willingness to take risk was still found to be positively related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($b = 0.211$, $SE = 0.119$ $p < 0.05$). The result demonstrates partial mediation effect. Since all conditions of mediation analysis method of Baron and Kenny (1986) prevailed, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

5.4.4 The Direct Effect of Regulatory Focus on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

There are two dimensions for regulatory focus which are promotion focus and prevention focus (Wallace, 2010). As show in Model 8 in Table 9, it posited that promotion focus was positively related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($b = 0.200$, $SE = 0.05$ $p < 0.001$), while in Model 9, the negative relationship between prevention focus change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior was not significant ($b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.059$ $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the results supported Hypothesis 4a but did not support Hypothesis 4b.

5.4.5 The Direct Effect of Regulatory Focus on Willingness to Take Risk

There are two dimensions for regulatory focus which are promotion focus and prevention focus (Wallace, 2010). As show in Model 11 in Table 9, it posited that promotion focus was positively related to willingness to take risk ($b = 0.449$, $SE = 0.05$ $p < 0.001$), while in Model 12, the negative relationship between prevention focus change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior was not significant ($b = -0.037$, $SE = 0.105$ $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the results supported Hypothesis 5a but did not support Hypothesis 5b.

5.4.6 Post Hoc Data Analysis - Mediating Effect of Willingness to Take Risk on the Relationship between Regulatory Focus and Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Since the relationship between promotion focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and willingness to take risk were statistically significant respectively as illustrated in Section 5.3.5 and Section 5.3.6, post hoc data analysis was conducted to examine whether willingness to take risk will mediate the relationship between promotion focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. As per Model 13 in Table 9, despite the relationship between promotion focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior was still significant when willingness to take risk was entered in analysis ($b = 0.292$, $SE = 0.121$, $p < 0.01$), willingness to take risk itself was no longer related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior ($b = 0.134$, $SE = 0.128$, $p > 0.05$). In addition, post hoc data analysis was also conducted to examine the mediation effects from willingness to take risk on the relationship between prevention focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior as per Model 14 in Table 9 and the result

was non-significant. Therefore, in summary, in view of the results for H4a, H4b, H5a, H5b and post hoc data analysis on the mediating effect from willingness to take risk on the relationship between regulatory focus and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, only promotion focus was significantly related to willingness to take risk and no mediation effect from willingness to take risk can be found. Thus, promotion focus can be treated as predictor of willingness to take risk.

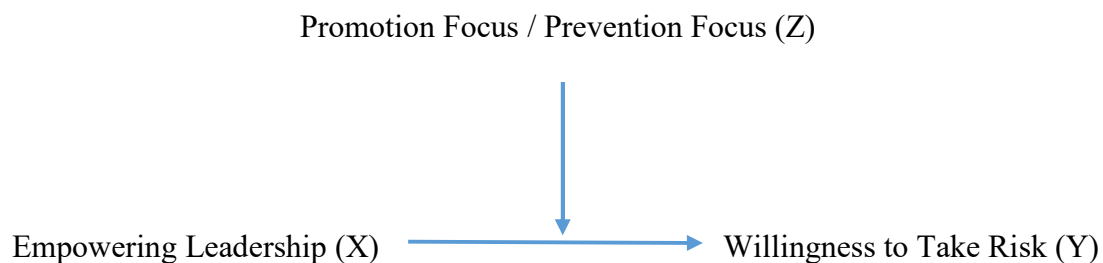
5.4.7 The Moderating Effect of Regulatory Focus on the Relationship between Empowering Leadership and Willingness to Take Risk

Hypothesis 6a proposed that the positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when employee promotion focus is high than when it is low while Hypothesis 6b proposed that the positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when employee prevention focus is low than when it is high.

As shown in Model 5 in Table 9, the interaction effect between empowering leadership and promotion focus on willingness to take risk was significant ($b = -0.345$, $SE = 0.118$ $p < 0.01$) and thus, promotion focus is a moderator for the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk (Figure 5) and the positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when employee's promotion focus is low than when it is high. Therefore, Hypothesis 6a was partially supported.

Hypothesis 6b proposed that the positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when prevention focus is low than when it is high. As shown in Model 6 in Table 9, the interaction effect between empowering leadership and prevention focus on willingness to take risk is significant ($b = -0.324$, $SE = 0.175$ $p < 0.05$).

I plotted the interaction effects using Stone and Hollenbeck's (1989) procedure at high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) values of promotion focus and prevention focus.



Equation: $Y = b_1X + b_2Z + b_3XZ + b_0$

Restructured: $Y = (b_1 + b_3Z)X + (b_2Z + b_0)$
 ($b_1 + b_3Z$ is the slope of Y on X at Z level)

Regression Coefficients:

b_1 , b_2 , b_3 , & b_0 are the regression coefficients of X, Z, XZ, & Y-intercept respectively

As a guideline (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), the values of high Z & low Z are suggested as below:

- (1) One standard deviation above the mean of Z
- (2) One standard deviation below the mean of Z

Indeed, simple slope analysis demonstrated that when promotion focus was high (i.e. 1 SD above the mean), empowering leadership and willingness to take risk demonstrated a non-significant

relationship ($b = -0.047$, $SE = 0.078$, ns) whereas when promotion focus was low (i.e. 1 SD below the mean), empowering leadership had a significant positive relationship with willingness to take risk ($b = 0.338$, $SE = 0.112$, $\rho < 0.01$).

As shown in Figure 5a and together with the simple slope test, the positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk was stronger when promotion focus is low than when it is high.

Therefore, Hypothesis 6a was partially supported.

In view of simple slope analysis for prevention focus as the moderator, it demonstrated that when prevention focus was high (i.e. 1 SD above the mean), empowering leadership and willingness to take risk exhibited a non-significant relationship ($b = 0.110$, $SE = 0.133$, $\rho < 0.05$) whereas when prevention focus was low (i.e. 1 SD below the mean), empowering leadership had a significant positive relationship with willingness to take risk ($b = 0.428$, $SE = 0.99$, $\rho < 0.001$).

As shown in Figure 5b and together with the simple slope test, the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk was positive and stronger when prevention focus is low than it is high.

Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was supported.

5.4.8 The Moderating Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on Willingness to Take Risk

Hypothesis 7 proposed that perceived organizational support would positively moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk such that the relationship is stronger when perceived organizational support is low than when it is high. As shown in Model 10 in Table 9, the interaction effect between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk was negative and significant ($b = -0.201$, $SE = 0.101$, $p < 0.05$).

Indeed, simple slope analysis demonstrated that when perceived organizational support was high (i.e. 1 SD above the mean), empowering leadership and willingness to take risk demonstrated a non-significant relationship ($b = -0.183$, $SE = 0.075$, ns) whereas when prevention focus was low (i.e. 1 SD below the mean), empowering leadership had a significant positive relationship with willingness to take risk ($b = 0.042$, $SE = 0.085$, $p < 0.05$).

As shown in Figure 6 and together with the simple slope test, the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk was positive and stronger when perceived organizational support is low than when it is high.

Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was partially supported.

Please refer to Table 10 for the summary of hypotheses results and Figure 7 for the results of the hypothesized model.

Chapter 6 Discussion

In the contemporary business environment with remarkable changes in technology, surging customer demands and the evolution of regulatory changes, the development of a flexible and innovative workforce is a critical condition for the sustainability of an organization. Therefore, organizations have to rely on their employees to come up with ideas and take initiative to improve the existing methods, procedures and policies, particularly when they are misaligned with a changing task environment and rapidly become ineffective or even counterproductive (Bettencourt, 2004). Since leadership behavior will influence employee's attitude and behavior while empirical study indicated empowering leadership would uplift their competency in handling challenging tasks (Li et al., 2015), both empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior were the focus of this study.

The goal of this study is to advance the growing body of literature regarding the effect of leadership on employee's proactive behavior (Li et al., 2015) by examining why and when empowering leadership promote employees' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. It is because most existing studies of organizational citizenship behavior or contextual performance have been focused on affiliative forms that maintain or strengthen the status quo, in the form of either existing working relationships or work processes while there is little attention on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, the results from some empirical studies on empowering leadership are conflicting. Therefore, by drawing on social cognitive theory as an overarching theory, I proposed that there would be mediation process and there were several predictors which have not been covered in prior studies for change-oriented organizational

citizenship behavior. Nevertheless, the results of this study can extend the empowering leadership literature and organizational citizenship behavior literature by identifying a set of antecedents, intervening processes and boundary conditions that affect change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior through the individual level cognitive process.

My findings indicated that empowering leadership, willingness to take risk, promotion focus are positively correlated to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior uniquely and differentially with willingness to take risk has the strongest predictive power while empowering leadership has the second strongest predictive power. The results also indicated that willingness to take risk as the mediating mechanism, while promotion focus, prevention focus and perceived organizational support as the boundary conditions have influence on the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk which facilitates change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. As described in the sections below, these findings have some interesting theoretical and managerial implications.

6.1 Theoretical Contributions

The key contribution is that this study developed insights for understanding employee's cognitive process in the participation of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior from empowering leadership's perspective. With respect to the leadership literature, a growing body of research has taken a multilevel perspective to delineate the spillover process by which a leader's team-directed behaviors can influence individual followers (Chen et al., 2007) and therefore I controlled the group variables when examines the hypotheses at individual level. In addition, the

results of this study contribute to the management discipline and reconcile the mixed findings in the literature in the following ways.

Firstly, there were inconclusive results among different scholars about the direct effect of leadership on citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al, 2000; Morhart et al. 2009) and there were only a few studies (Auh et al., 2014) to examine the influence of leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. To my best knowledge, only a few studies have examined the impact of leader-member exchange (LMX) (Vigoda-Gadot and Beerli, 2011) and support from leaders (Choi, 2007) on organizational citizenship behavior, and so far, only one study has been done on the direct relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in 2016. Therefore, this study has addressed the call from the scholars to study other antecedents for organizational citizenship behavior (Kark et al., 2015).

Undoubtedly, this study did find a significant, direct and positive impact of empowering leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. As mentioned in the section of Literature Review, empowering leadership may be more effective in explaining extra-role behaviors, especially change-oriented behaviors because such kind of leadership behavior underscores autonomy, delegation of decision making, informing, coaching and expression of confidence in the employees, which can uplift the employee's confidence and competence to challenge the status quo and take initiative to express idea and implement changes for the work flow, procedures and policies for the betterment of the organization.

Further, the findings of this study demonstrate that empowering leadership affects change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior through the mediation mechanism, willingness to take risk while there are moderating factors of promotion focus, prevention focus and perceived organizational support on the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk, which no other study has established before. This positive effect is enlightening in view of the previous researchers have suggested that leadership has influence on employee's attitude and behavior (Kark et al., 2015). The results echo some research studies which indicate that the quality of leadership that employees experience, especially empowering leader, has a significant impact on their attitudes and behaviors (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). In this regard, this study advances the social cognitive theory by studying how empowering leadership is related to employees' cognitive decision process in the participation of change-oriented organizational behaviors through their willingness to take risk, regulatory focus and perceived organizational support.

This study also examines the unique effect of different antecedents of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. The results are promising that willingness to take risk and promotion focus are positively correlated to the change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. It is enlightening that these variables have not been examined before and now can be confirmed in this study as the antecedents of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. In this respect, this study enriches the literature for change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Regulatory foci are essential in individual's goal pursuit and are proximal and fundamental in influencing work-related outcomes (Lanaj et al., 2012). However, only one study focused on how regulatory focus influenced change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. It is noteworthy that the present study specifically focuses on how employee's characteristics influence the leadership process, or, in other words, moderate the influence that leaders exert on the employee's action. My choice of regulatory focus as moderator has shed some lights and provided empirical support to the argument that the influence of empowering leadership is effective under certain situation.

It is interesting that promotion focus not only is a predictor of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, but also provide moderating effect to the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk but the relationship is significant when promotion focus is of low level. Interestingly, it is also a predictor of willingness to take risk.

Perhaps one reason for these results is that promotion focus can emerge as both a chronic (personal disposition) and a situational (Context-induced) component and therefore, since employee with promotion focus is very clear about their pursuit of strategies and have confidence to achieve the goal and this direct effect is dominant, it is a predictor of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior when it is strong. While at the same time, empowering leadership can exert their influence on the employees by eliciting situational promotion focus by providing a perspective of autonomy and confidence in their decision making to facilitate them to pursue the desired end-status. Since promotion focus can result in employees' creativity, eagerness,

attentiveness to positive outcomes, risk taking and innovative behavior (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007), it can be induced by the empowering leadership to pursue change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior when they are of low promotion focus and therefore it can play the role of a moderator as well. In addition, since regulatory focus refers to the cognitive processes that guide the selection of behaviors towards desired outcomes and away from undesired outcomes, employees should possess the self-efficacy to adopt the necessary methods to accomplish the tasks, the result of this study elucidated that promotion focus is a predictor of willingness to take risk which is consistent with the findings from Lanaj, et al. (2012), that personality traits had effects on job attitude and work behaviors via regulatory focus.

Result also shows that employee with prevention focus can moderate the influence of empowering leadership on change-oriented citizenship behavior and the relationship is stronger when prevention focus is low. These provide additional insights that employees with prevention focus do not necessarily reject any possibility of risk and their behavior to pursue for changes can be influenced or motivated by their leaders. This idea seems in contrast to prior research suggesting that transformational and charismatic leaders are more likely to influence employees with a promotion focus (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007) while employees with prevention focus are keen on safety, security and compliance. Perhaps employee with low prevention focus can be influenced by their supervisors to uplift their confidence and competence such that their willingness to take risk will become higher and in turn engage in challenging or risky behavior such as change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior when there is regulatory fit.

Of course, this research did not preclude the idea that certain types of leadership should be more influential for promotion-focused and prevention-focused employees. In fact, this issue is particularly relevant in light of the practical implications that the present results entail.

Another notable finding in this research is that employees tend to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior when they believe they are competent enough to perform these behaviors (Organ et al., 2006) after cognitively accessing the potential costs and benefits, reflected by willingness to take risk (Nora et al., 2011). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediators explain how the external physical events take on internal psychological significance and in view of the finding of this study, willingness to take risk can mediate the influence of empowering leadership on change-oriented organizational citizenship. Therefore, this study advances the research on behavioral decision in the aspect of risk taking.

Another result in this study indicates that perceived organizational support can moderate the relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk when it is of low level. It might be due to the reason that, empowering leadership cares about their employees and express confidence in what they are doing. Therefore, even low level of perceived organizational support can provide the boundary condition to enhance the employee's cognitive ability to facilitate their evaluation of the potential benefits and associated risk before pursuing a particular behavior. However, when perceived organizational support is high, they may stay in the comfort zone and would not take any risk to challenge the status quo.

Despite that theoretically, employees will reciprocate with behaviors which benefit their organizations when they receive support from their organizations from the perspective of social exchange, some empirical studies delineate that when the organizational support is abundant or there are a lot of resources provided by the organizations, employees will stay in the comfort zone and would not take any initiatives. On the other hand, some other empirical studies elucidate there is negative relationship perceived organizational support and extra-role behaviors. In this regard, the result of this study echoes the mixed findings of previous research and future research can further investigate perceived organizational support.

Financial industry, especially the retail banking, wealth management and private banking sectors, always has high turnover ratio. It is because that there is shortage of talents in the market and financial institutions has to compete for talents by providing higher salary. Therefore, employees' tenure with the organizations or with their immediate supervisors are not long. According to the data from the questionnaires received, majority of the employees in this study had a short relationship with their supervisors of less than a year (39.9%). Therefore, their trust in their supervisor, especially the failure-related trust among the employees and their supervisor was not strong and thus from a reciprocal perspective, they were unlikely to exhibit a higher level of willingness to take risk to pursue risk-related behavior in view of the potential undesirable consequences from challenging the status quo such as failure in the process of new ideas exploration, new ideas implementation or methods implementation, and ruin in the relationship with peers and supervisors. In addition, employees' tenure with the organization less than five years was 74% of the sample size and therefore their perception of organizational support may be

a doubt. Nonetheless, the result did not necessarily disconfirm the importance of the contributions from this study.

6.2 Practical Significance

In view of the practical implication, this study provides insights to the organizations which require flexible workforce for high adaptability towards drastic market changes and surging customer demands and the deployment of business transformation. According to Parker et al. (2010), employees will engage in extra-role behaviors when they perceive that they can carry out this behavior successfully in a safe environment and it is therefore largely dependent on managerial practices and the form of leadership in an organization.

The current empirical results demonstrate that empowering leadership with the attributes of encouraging employee autonomy, enhancing meaningfulness of the work, expressing confidence in the employee, and self-direction can influence employee to cognitively engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Provision of effective employee training programs to develop leaders' empowering leadership behaviors can cultivate a promising contextual factor to facilitate change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

Specifically, the findings of this study suggest that leaders and organizations could utilize both selection and managerial interventions to better encourage the employee to engage in change-

oriented organizational citizenship behavior by triggering their cognitive process and regulatory focus mechanisms and it is notably that employees with promotion focus tend to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior while employee with low prevention focus and low promotion focus can be influenced by the empowering leader to uplift their willingness to take risk to participate in such behavior. Therefore, effective training aimed at managing employees' prevention and promotion foci might instill in them a higher willingness to take risk when they perceive potential risks as opportunities to initiate constructive efforts and make good decision choices for the betterment of the organizations (Krueger and Dickson, 1994).

Organizations can also arrange specific training programs to develop the employees' confidence and competence with the acquisition of the relevant skill sets and mentality change to cope with the ever-changing business landscape and motivate them to face the potential risks when they encounter problems or challenges in their workplace by setting up a robust risk management regime which can cultivate a healthy risk attitude and culture. All these can result in their exhibition of extra-role behaviors courageously.

Undoubtedly, effective human resources strategies can recruit the leaders and employees with certain personality traits, attitude, goal orientations or regulatory focus that reflect a positive attitude of willingness to take risk and provide them with the necessary resources such as support and motivation to drive the success of the individuals and the competitive advantage of the organizations (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999).

In addition, it is recommended to incorporate empowering leadership behaviors as part of an organization's evaluation and reward system for career advancement to reinforce the importance of this leadership style in the organization. Demonstration of extra-role behaviors can be also one of the factors for career advancement and this item can be included in the performance appraisal to encourage the employees to courageously take risk to make constructive change and act for the interest of the organization.

In summary, from a managerial standpoint, new knowledge about predictors or antecedents of change-oriented citizenship can help practitioners design interventions for promoting employees' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. This study will contribute to the management and human resources domains by understanding the perfect mix of a workforce for those activities which requires the employees to take initiatives and expects them to have an attitude of willingness to take risk to tackle the challenges.

In a nutshell, this study is meant to address all the issues, with an attempt to confirm the conventional wisdom that recruiting the right people with the provision of the right atmosphere, culture and psychological factors can facilitate employees to engage in behaviors which can help the organizations to sustain in the playing ground.

6.3 Limitation and Future Research

Several limitations should be noted when interpreting the results from this study and they could be addressed by future research. First, although my three-wave time-lagged research design offers benefits over cross-sectional designs, in view of time constraint, the temporal span of 3 weeks for each wave was short and the study still cannot determine the causality effect. Therefore, it is recommended that future research could use longitudinal research to rule out the possibility of reciprocal relationships between empowering leadership, willingness to take risk and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Since there were Chinese New Year and Easter Holidays during the data collection period, some employees were out of town and may affect the sample size.

Secondly, the data was obtained in a Chinese context and the generalizability of my results to Western countries remain unclear. Although an increasing amount of organizational research is being conducted in China with relatively similar findings to the West (Chen, Tjosvold, & Lu, 2006), it is important to consider the extent to which my findings may be culture specific. For instance, as a country with high social desirability and high distance power, Chinese employees are more reluctant to engage in proactive and challenging behaviors than western employees as they dare not to ruin the relationship with others. Thus, the role of empowering leadership in promoting employees' change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior may be distinct in the Chinese society.

Thirdly, majority of the measures on employees were collected from a single source which presents a risk that common method variance may have influenced my results. However, multiple aspects of these studies increase my confidence that common method variance is not a major driver of my observed effects.

Fourthly, in view of the three moderators, namely promotion focus, prevention focus and perceived organizational support, which were chosen on the basis of the theoretical framework, all three of them have been found to have moderating effect.

Fifthly, the issue of omitted variables, failing to include important control variables, could result in estimated coefficients of regression inconsistency. To address this issue, I have included several control variables such as gender, age, tenure with supervisor and politics perception in order to minimize the issue in my model. Other control variables such as Big Five personality traits which may affect the variables such as regulatory focus (Wallace, et al., 2006) can be included for the future research.

Finally, from the perspective of levels of analysis in the domain of leadership, the current study only examined the influence of empowering leadership at the individual level with the matched data from dyad relationship. A better study would include all sources to report about all variables so that multiple levels of analysis such as group level and team level in empowering leadership could be tested.

It is recommended that future research can also study the potential moderating effects of other organizational context such as task routinization and intrinsically satisfying tasks, power distance orientation, procedural justice which have been found to influence organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000) but still no idea in the area of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.

In addition, future research can investigate the potential moderating effects of individual differences such as felt responsibility for change, accountability, psychological safety, power distance climate and role breath self-efficacy. It seems plausible that understanding the employee's cognitive decision process can enrich the literature in behavioral decision domain and foster more effective human resources and management practices.

Moreover, assessing multiple mediators in a single study might help determine which of these possibilities is accurate. Previous research suggests that felt responsibility for change and trust in supervisor might have an imperceptible influence on change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (Choi, 2007).

Since empirical studies indicated that organizational citizenship behavior does influence work-group and unit performance (Podsakoff and MacMenzie, 1997) and according to Maynard et al. (2013), it is unclear whether competent teams or groups are likely to embrace or resist empowering initiatives, future research should also examine whether empowering leadership can influence change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior with team-level as unit of analysis.

In view of the overlapping conceptual definitions of change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior mentioned earlier, it is essential for future research to test rigorously for the discriminant validity of the constructs and their measures. Future research needs to provide evidence not only of whether the measure is reliable and valid, but also whether they are distinct from measures of closely related construct.

Future research should also consider applying a longitudinal design in the study of willingness to take risk to increase the internal validity of the relationships tested in the present study. A longitudinal design could further explicate the causal link between willingness to take risk and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and study the causal relationship.

Given the important role of relationship in the Chinese culture, the involvement of Chinese respondents may have affected the findings (Farth et al., 1998). It is recommended to study the model in other industries to confirm generalizability at least in the Chinese context.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

To conclude, the research results from the matched data on employees and their supervisors demonstrate the importance of empowering leadership on employee's cognitive process to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the results show that the antecedents predict change-organizational citizenship behavior uniquely, differentially and interactively. From a scholarly perspective, information highlighting the under-investigated predictors can enrich the existing literature and facilitate future research.

In addition, from management perspective, the research results provide the leaders, senior management and human resources managers with more understanding of empowering leadership and its effects on employee's attitudes and organizational behavior. These can provide grounds for them to develop their people strategy more effectively. More importantly, this study would be welcomed by organizations doing business in Hong Kong or companies with similar culture to foster a social and psychological work environment conducive to the accomplishment of organizational goals by creating opportunities for the suitable employees to perform their change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors which are beneficial to the sustainability and viability of the organizations.

From the perspective of financial industry, my research frame is relevant to the playing ground because financial institutions are facing severe challenges from the competitors, regulators, disruptive technology and the customers. It is undoubtedly that they should have high adaptability

towards the dynamic business landscape by riding on the skills and knowledge of their employees who understands more about the daily business and operations. Since not all employees are likely to be empowered and not all leaders are willing to empower their employees, it is crucial for the financial institutions to recruit, train and forge a flexible and dynamic team which has the cognitive ability and willingness to take risk to speak up courageously, challenge the status quo and make constructive change to avoid any breach in regulatory compliance, default in operations, malfunctions, product defects, error in transactions, etc. which may lead to huge financial loss, regulators' reprimand and impose of penalty, loss in customers' trust and reputational risk.

I encourage future research to investigate these extensions and hope the present research stimulates future development on empowering leadership, change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, regulatory focus as well as the domain of behavioral decision.

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List of Tables

Table 1 - Summary of Empowering Leadership Effects on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Construct	No. of Study	Citation
Organizational citizenship behaviors	3	Aug, Menguc, and Jung (2014) Raub and Robert (2010) Humborstad et al. (2014)
Creativity	1	Harris et al. (2014)
Innovative behaviors	1	Chen et al. (2011)
Taking charge	3	Li, et al. (2015) Zhang and Bartol (2010) Zhang and Zhou (2014)
Voice	1	Raub and Robert (2013)
Creative process engagement	2	Harris et al. (2014) Zhang and Bartol (2010)
Efficacy	1	Zhang and Zhou (2014)
Risky behavior	1	Martinez-Coroles, Gracia, Tomas, Peiro, and Schobel (2013)

Table 2 - Review of Some Empirical Studies on Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Study	Type of Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Design & Samples	Constructs related to the Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Theories
Scott & Bruce (1994)	Innovative Behavior	172 engineers, scientists and technicians, 26 managers, two waves, cross-sectional	Quality of leader-member exchange, leader role expectation	LMX Theory Mediators: Perceptions of the climate for innovation
Dyne & LePine (1998)	Voice	597 employees and their supervisors, longitudinal study, multiple sources	Helping behavior, performance	
Morrison & Phelps (1999)	Taking Charge	275 white-collar employees, cross-sectional, two sources	Felt responsibility, self-efficacy, perception of top management openness, group norms that support change, expert power	Expectancy Theory
Elizabeth & Corey (1999)	Taking Charge	275 white-collar employees, single source, cross-sectional	Perceptions of top management openness, self-efficacy,	
Fay & Frese (2001)	Personal Initiative	373 employees, longitudinal	Cognitive ability, self-efficacy, readiness to change at work	
Bettencourt (2004)	Change-Oriented Organization Citizenship Behavior	183 retail associates from a nationwide retail chain.	Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, LMX, contingent reward leadership	Moderator: Goal orientation
Chiaburu & Baker (2006)	Taking Charge	211 employees in an organization in United States, cross-sectional, single source	Propensity to trust, supervisor's process control, supervisor's output control	Moderators: Exchange ideology
Fuller, Marler & Hester (2006)	Proactive Behavior	120 employees and their supervisors in the southern United States, longitudinal, multiple sources	Felt responsibility for change, voice behavior, continuous improvement	
Choi (2007)	Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	2040 employees from a large electronics company in Korea. Two-wave	Strong vision, Innovative climate, supportive leadership,	Mediators: Psychological empowerment, felt responsibility to change

McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban (2007)	Taking Charge	225 engineers and their supervisors, cross-sectional, single source	Role perception/ perceived role instrumentality, perceived role efficacy	Social exchange theory, role identity theory Moderators: Perceived role breadth self-efficacy, perceived role discretion
Moon, Kamdar, Mayer, & Takeuchi (2008)	Taking Charge	Study 1, 432 employees, cross-sectional, two sources; Study 2, 253 engineers in an oil refinery, cross-sectional, multisource	Duty, achievement striving, procedural justice, distributive justice	Theory of conscientiousness
Lipponen et al. (2010)	Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	184 employees from a retail chain and social service organization in Finland. Cross-sectional	Openness to change value climate, identification, sense of power	
Escribano & Espejo (2010)	Taking Charge	700 employees in 8 Chilean organizations, cross-sectional, single source	Affective commitment, trust in immediate supervisor, openness to experience, perceived value for innovation	Social exchange theory
Crant, Kim & Wong (2011)	Voice Behavior	244 MBA and undergraduate students, single source, Longitudinal	Extraversion and conscientiousness, proactive personality	
Harrison, Sluss, & Ashforth (2011)	Taking Charge	123 newcomers in 12 telemarketing organizations, cross-sectional, single source	Diversity curiosity	Newcomer adaption theory Mediator: Positive framing
Ike & Elizabeth (2012)	Taking Charge	201 bank workers, single source, cross-sectional	Self-efficacy, perceived organizational support	Expectancy theory
Lopez-Dominguez et al (2013)	Change-Oriented Organizational Behavior	Single source, cross-sectional	Transformational Leadership	Transformational leadership theory Mediators: Innovative organizational climate, role-breadth self-efficacy, felt responsibility for constructive change

Ning, Dan, Bradley, Mereith (2013)	Taking Charge	196 employees and their leaders in 55 workgroups in 2 Chinese organizations, two sources, cross-sectional	Group-focused transformational leadership	Transformational leadership theory Moderators: Employees' perceptions of leader prototypicality, employees' team identification, employees' traditionality, employees' learning goal orientation
Shao, Wei, Kai & Li (2015)	Taking Charge	310 full-time employees in 81 work groups, single source, cross-sectional	Empowering Leadership	Cultural self-representation model Mediators: Role Breath Self-Efficacy, Moderator: Differentiated empowering leadership, individual power distance orientation
Meredith, Dan, Debra & Ning (2015)	Taking charge	89 dyads two sources, cross-sectional	Perceived organizational support	Social exchange theory Moderator: Anticipated cost to taking charge
Tae, Zhiqiang & James (2015)	Taking charge	212 employee-supervisor pairs, two sources, cross-sectional	Leader-member exchange, job performance	Moderator: Organizational tenure Mediator: Psychological empowerment
Simo et al. (2016)	Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	251 lecturers and professors of a Spanish public university. Cross-sectional	Promotion Focus	Regulatory Focus Theory

Table 3 - Definition of Variables and Other Terminology

Variable	Description
Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Change-oriented citizenship behavior is defined as proactive actions aimed at identifying and implementing changes in work processes, products, and services (Bettencourt, 2004; Choi, 2007; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995)
Empowering Leadership	Empowering leadership is defined as the process of implementing conditions that enable sharing power with an employee by delineating the significance of the employee's job, providing greater decision-making autonomy, expressing confidence in the employee's capabilities, and removing hindrances to performance (Zhang & Bartol, 2010)
Willingness to Take Risk	Willingness to take risk represents the willingness to withstand uncertainty and mistakes as one explores new ideas, advocates unconventional or unpopular positions, or tackles extremely challenging problems without obvious solutions, in order to increase the likelihood of accomplishment (Neves and Eisenberger, 2014) Willingness to take risk represents the willingness to take action and make decision to accomplish goals with the clear recognition that mistakes and errors might be made (Rybowiak et al., 1998)
Regulatory Focus	Regulatory focus refers to an individual's strategic orientation with respect to how to regulate his or her behavior to strive for desired outcomes (Higgins, 1997)
Promotion Focus	Promotion focus is the orientation toward seeking pleasure that entails motivation to attain nurturance (Higgins, 1997, 1998)
Prevention Focus	Prevention focus is the orientation toward avoiding pain which entails motivation to attain security (Higgins, 1997, 1998)
Perceived Organizational Support	Perceived organizational support refers to employees' belief concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, 1986)
Other Terminology	Description
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Organ (1988, 1990) provided one of the early conceptualizations of extra-role behaviors (ERB) - organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). OCBs are defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantees or recompense"
Cognitive Process	Thinking processes involved in the acquisition, organization and use of information (Bandura, 1994)
Participation	A process which allow employees to exert some influences over their work and the conditions under which they work (Strauss, 1998)
Regulatory Fit	The subconscious process of adaptation in which people adjust their thinking to become more congruent with the demands of their environment (Higgins, 2000)

Table 4 – Demographic Information of Participants

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EGENDER	173	0	1	.47	.500
EAGE	173	5	1	1.84	.845
EJOB NAT	173	1	5	2.86	1.282
ETENOR	173	1	5	2.86	1.282
E-STENOR	173	1	5	2.37	1.230
EEDUCAT	173	1	4	2.88	.794
SGENDER	41	0	1	.56	.252
SJOB NAT	41	1	5	2.61	.92
STENOR	41	1	5	3.76	0.4
SEDUCAT	41	1	5	3.146	.853
SAGE	41	1	4	2.902	.943

Notes:

EGENDER – Gender of employee. Female – “0” and Male – “1”

EAGE – Age of employee. There were five categories:

1; 19-30/ 2: 31-40/ 3: 41-50 /4: 51-60/ 5: Over 60

EJOB NAT – Job nature of employee. Employees were from different functions and these functions were categorized according to the job nature such as client facing, interaction with regulators, relatedness to system, etc. There were five categories:

HR/Admin/Accounting/Others: 1

Credit Mänge/Finance/Risk Management/FCC/Internal Audit/Legal/RC/Research: 2

Branch Manager/Operations/Fund Management/Product Management/Purchasing: 3

Training/Sales/Marketing/Corporate Communication/Investment Advisory: 4

Information Technology/Product Development: 5

ETENOR – Employee’s tenure with the organization. There were five levels: 1: Less than 1 year / 2: 1-3 Year / 3: 3- 5 year / 4: 5 - 10 year / 5: Over 10 years

E-STENOR – Employee’s tenure with his/her immediate supervisors. There were five levels: 1: Less than 1 year / 2: 1-3 Year / 3: 3- 5 year / 4: 5 - 10 year / 5: Over 10 years

EEDUCAT – Education level of employee. There were 5 levels: 1: Secondary School/ 2: Diploma/ 3: Bachelor Degree/ 4: Master Degree/ 5: Others

SGENDER - Gender of supervisor. Female – “0” and Male – “1”

SJOB NAT – Job nature of supervisor. Supervisors were from different functions and these functions were categorized according to the job nature such as client facing, interaction with regulators, relatedness to system, etc. There were five categories:

HR/Admin/Accounting/Others: 1

Credit Mänge/Finance/Risk Management/FCC/Internal Audit/Legal/RC/Research: 2

Branch Manager/Operations/Fund Management/Product Management/Purchasing: 3

Training/Sales/Marketing/Corporate Communication/Investment Advisory: 4

Information Technology/Product Development: 5

STENOR – Supervisor’s tenure with the organization. There were five levels: 1: Less than 1 year / 2: 1-3 Year / 3: 3- 5 year / 4: 5 - 10 year / 5: Over 10 years

EEDUCAT - Education level of supervisor. There were 5 levels: 1: Secondary School/ 2: Diploma/ 3: Bachelor Degree/ 4: Master Degree/ 5: Others

SAGE – Age range of supervisor. There were four levels: 1: 20-30/ 2: 30-40/ 3: 40-50/ 4: Over 50

Table 5 – Reliability Analysis

Variable Name	Number of Items	Mean	Variance	Reliability
Empowering Leadership	12	3.858	.699	0.894
Prevention Focus	9	4.061	.533	0.847
Promotion Focus	9	3.667	.736	0.829
Willingness to Take Risk	4	3.528	.668	0.560
Perceived Organizational Support	10	3.298	.603	0.904
Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	12	3.236	.961	0.937
Perception of Organizational Politics	6	3.115	.927	0.902

Table 6 – Aggregation Statistics

	One-Way ANOVA Result			ICC Testing		rWGj (Median)
	F-Value	Degree of Freedom	Significance	ICC1	ICC2	
Empowering Leadership	1.935	40, 172	0.003	0.1812	0.4828	0.9865
Willingness to Take Risk	1.969	40, 172	0.002	0.1870	0.4925	0.9231
Prevention Focus	1.278	40, 172	0.153	0.0617	0.2172	0.9721
Promotion Focus	1.824	40, 172	0.006	0.1635	0.4521	0.9553
Perceived Organizational Support	1.067	40, 172	0.382	0.0109	0.0444	0.9719
Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior	2.359	40, 172	0.000	0.2433	0.5758	0.9710

Table 7 - Comparison of Measurement Models for Study Variables

Model	Description	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	Change from Model 1	
								$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Model 1	Hypothesized six-factor model	252.344	155	0.943	0.93	0.06	0.057		
Model 2	Five-factor model	466.878	160	0.82	0.786	0.105	0.129	214.534***	5
Model 3	Four-factor model	834.038	164	0.606	0.544	0.154	0.162	581.694***	9
Model 4	Three-factor model	699.336	167	0.705	0.664	0.132	0.119	446.992***	12
Model 5	Two-factor model	1150.55	169	0.423	0.351	0.183	0.152	898.206***	14
Model 6	One-factor model	1308.455	170	0.331	0.252	0.197	0.157	1056.111***	15

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation

SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

*** p < .001

- a. Five-factors: empowering leadership and prevention focus combined; willingness to take risk; promotion focus; perceived organizational support; change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior
- b. Four-factors: empowering leadership, prevention focus and promotion focus combined; willingness to take risk; perceived organizational support; change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior
- c. Three-factors: empowering leadership, prevention focus, promotion focus and perceived organizational support combined; willingness to take risk; change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior
- d. Two-factors: empowering leadership, prevention focus, promotion focus, perceived organizational support and willingness to take risk combined; change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior

Table 8 - Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 EGENDER	1									
2 EAGE	-.019	1								
3 E-STENOR	-.047	.593**	1							
4 EL	.060	-.189*	-.099	1						
5 WL	.125	-.048	-.168*	.171*	1					
6 PREV	-.092	-.114	.026	.161*	-.099	1				
7 PROM	.205**	.077	-.174*	.246**	.468**	.081	1			
8 POS	-.001	-.024	-.149	.167*	.182*	-.009	.276**	1		
9 CHOCCB	.052	.080	-.136	.286**	.178*	-.030	.272**	.113	1	
10 PP	.029	.196**	.069	-.134	.059	-.086	.134	.071	-.021	1

Notes:

N= 173 at the individual level* p <.05 ** p <.01 (Two-tailed)

EL	Empowering Leadership
WL	Willingness to Take Risk
PREV	Prevention Focus
PROM	Promotion Focus
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
CHOCCB	Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior
EGENDER	Gender of Employee
EAGE	Age of Employee
E-STENOR	Tenure with Supervisor
PP	Politics Perception

Table 9 – Hierarchical Linear Modelling Results on Individual-Level

Dependent Variable	Dependent variables									
	Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior				Willingness to take risk		Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior			Willingness to take risk
	Models	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9
Hypothesis	Null Model	H1	H2	H3	H6a	H6b	H3	H5a	H5b	H7
<i>Control variables</i>										
Gender	0.089	0.076	0.068	0.078	-0.003	0.083	0.042	0.208	-0.092	0.039**
Age	-0.094	-0.088	-0.068	-0.073	0.010	-0.069	0.042	-0.145***	-0.008	-0.074
Tenure with supervisor	0.048	-0.040	0.06	-0.046	-0.053	-0.043	0.063	0.034	-0.073*	-0.054
Politics perception	-0.045	-0.084	-0.063	-0.08	0.024	0.073	-0.028	0.087	-0.030	-0.171*
<i>Predictors</i>										
Empowering leadership		0.195**		0.196*	0.145*	0.269**	0.179**			-0.070
Willingness to take risk			0.273**				0.211*			
Promotion focus					0.434***			0.20***		
Prevention focus						-0.089			0.012	
Perceived organizational support										0.141
<i>Interaction Effect</i>										
EL x POS										-0.201*
EL x PROM					-0.345**					
EL x PREV						-0.324*				
Residual Variances										
	0.416	0.241	0.403	0.211	0.17	0.209	0.416 CHOCB 0.222 WL	0.236	0.221	0.233

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

EL = Empowering Leadership
 WL = Willingness to Take Risk
 PROM = Promotion Focus
 PREV = Prevention Focus
 POS = Perceived Organizational Support
 CHOCB = Change-Oriented Organizational Support

Table 9 - Hierarchical Linear Modelling Results on Individual-Level (Continue)

Variable	Dependent variables		Change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior	
	Willingness to take risk			
	M11	M12	M13	M14
	H5a	H5b	Post Hoc Data Analysis on the mediating effect from WL on the relationship between PROM and CHO CB, and between PREV and CHO CB was conducted. Nil result found.	
<i>Control variables</i>				
Gender	0.007	0.096	0.017	-0.014
Age	-0.027	-0.09	-0.045	0.013
Tenure with Supervisor	-0.052	-0.052	0.051	0.005
Politics perception	0.030	0.058	-0.070	0.005
<i>Predictors</i>				
Empowering leadership				
Willingness to take risk			0.134	0.039
Promotion focus	0.449***		0.292**	
Prevention focus		-0.037		0.082*
<i>Interaction effect</i>				
EL x PROM				
EL x PREV				
EL x POS				
Residual variance				
	0.182	0.221	0.421	0.421
			CHO CB	CHO CB
			0.191	0.201
			WL	WL

Notes: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

EL = Empowering Leadership
 WL = Willingness to Take Risk
 PROM = Promotion Focus
 PREV = Prevention Focus
 POS = Perceived Organizational Support
 CHO CB = Change-Oriented Organizational Support

Table 10 – Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 supported. *Empowering leadership is positively related to change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.*

Hypothesis 2 supported. *Willingness to take risk has positive relationship with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.*

Hypothesis 3 supported. *Willingness to take risk mediates the positive relationship between empowering leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior. (Partial Mediation Effect)*

Hypothesis 4a supported. *Employee promotion focus is positively related with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.*

Hypothesis 4b not supported. *Employee prevention focus is negatively related with change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior.*

Hypothesis 5a supported. *Employee promotion focus is positively related with willingness to take risk.*

Hypothesis 5b not supported. *Employee prevention focus is negatively related with willingness to take risk.*

Hypothesis 6 partially supported. *The positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when employee promotion focus is low than when it is high.*

Hypothesis 6b supported. *The positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when prevention focus is low than when it is high.*

Hypothesis 7 partially supported. *The positive relationship between empowering leadership and willingness to take risk is stronger when perceived organizational support is low than when it is high.*

List of Figures

Figure 1 – Triadic Reciprocal Casual Model of Social Cognitive Theory

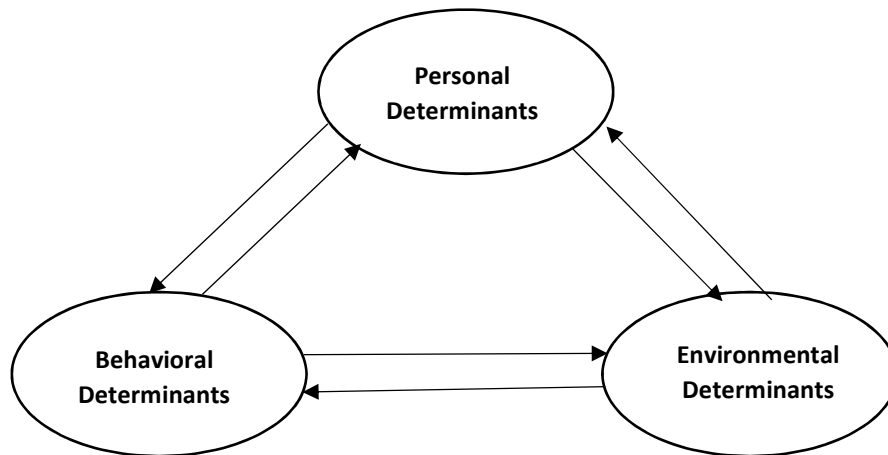


Figure 2 – An Illustration of Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 2000b)

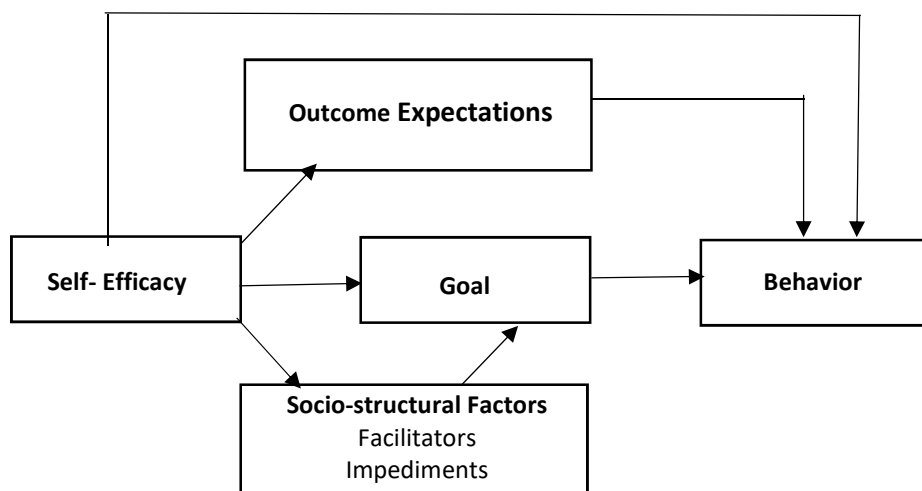


Figure 3 - Research Model - Interactive Effects between Empowering Leadership, Regulatory Focus, Perceived Organizational Support and Willingness to Take Risk

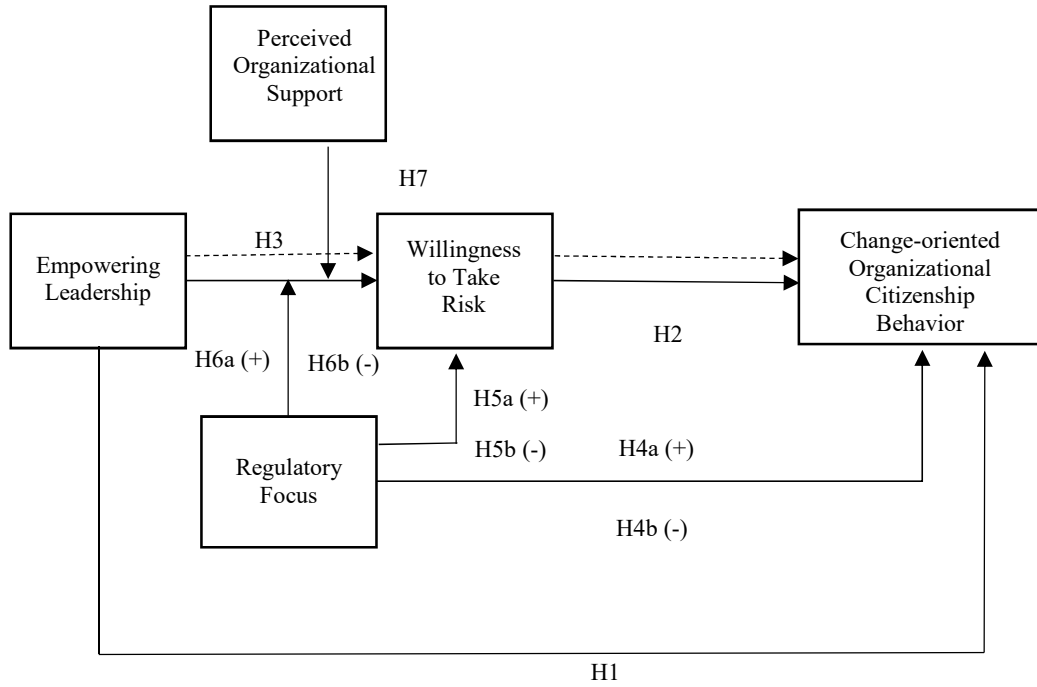
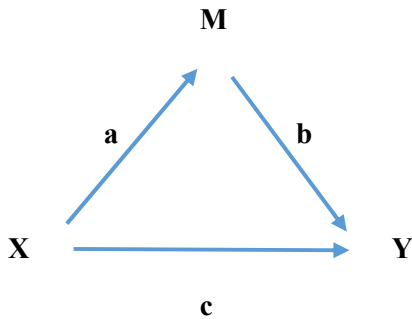


Figure 4– Diagrammatic Illustration of Mediation



Mediation analysis method by Baron and Kenny (1986)

Figure 5a - The Effects of Empowering Leadership on Willingness to Take Risk at Low and High Levels of Promotion Focus

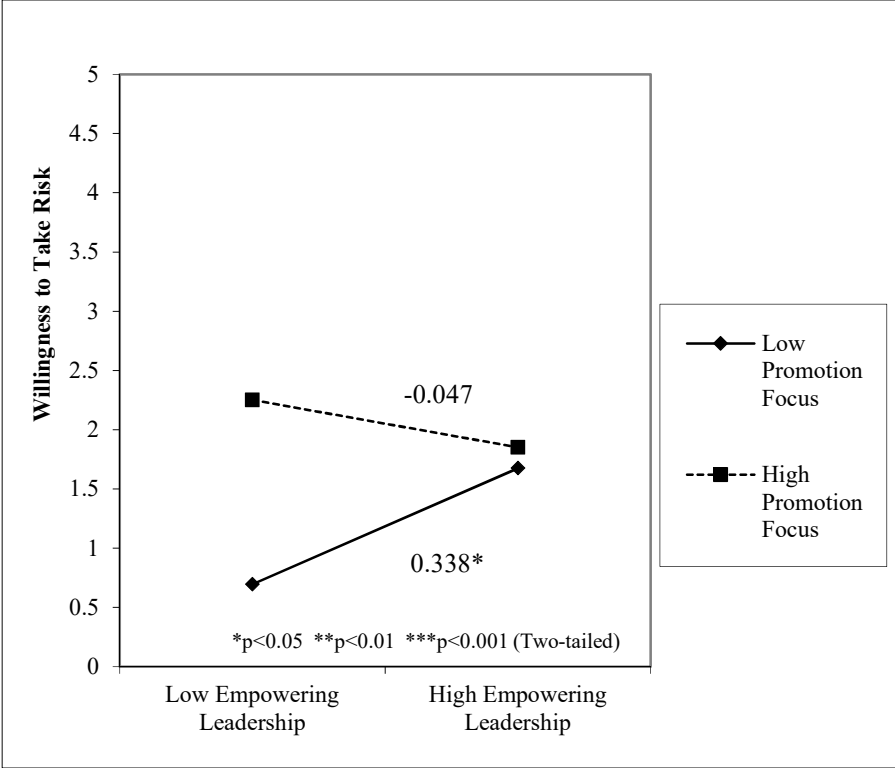


Figure 5b - The Effects of Empowering Leadership on Willingness to Take Risk at Low and High Levels of Prevention Focus

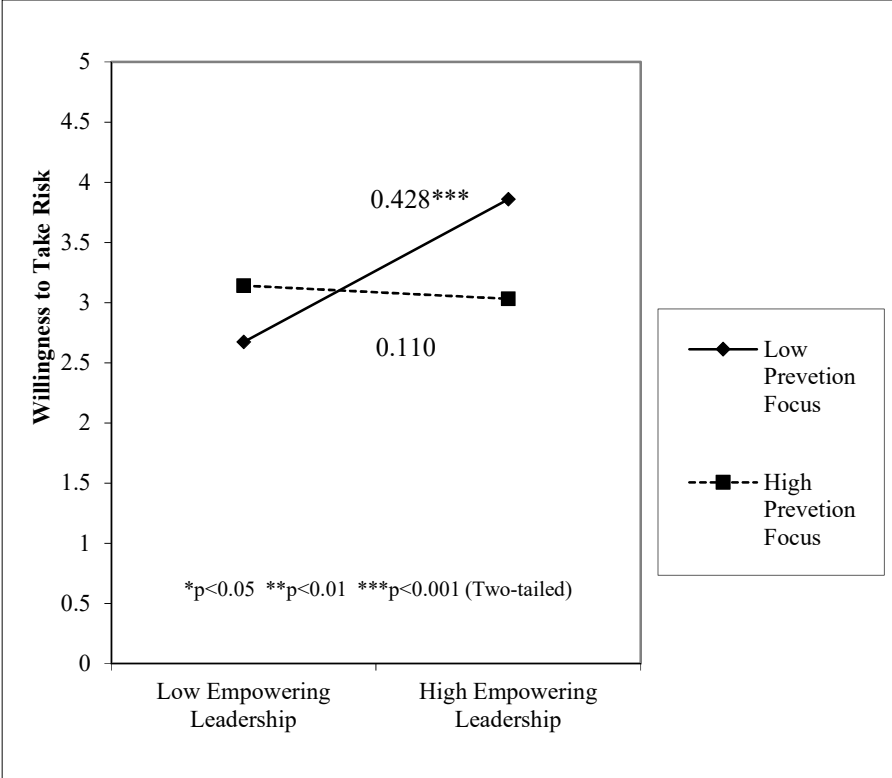


Figure 6 - The Effects of Empowering Leadership on Willingness to Take Risk at Low and High Levels of Perceived Organizational Support

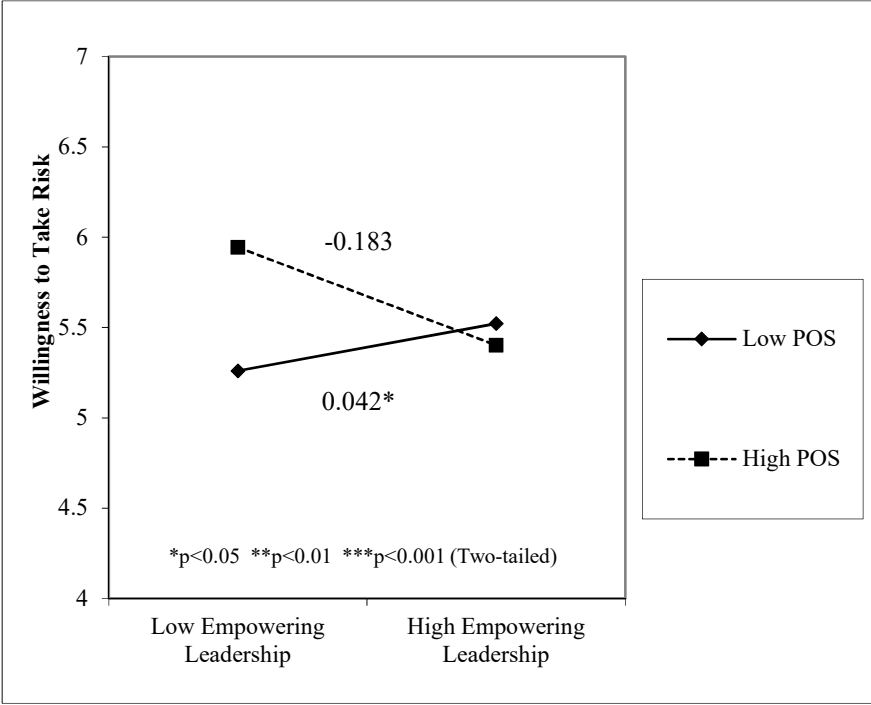
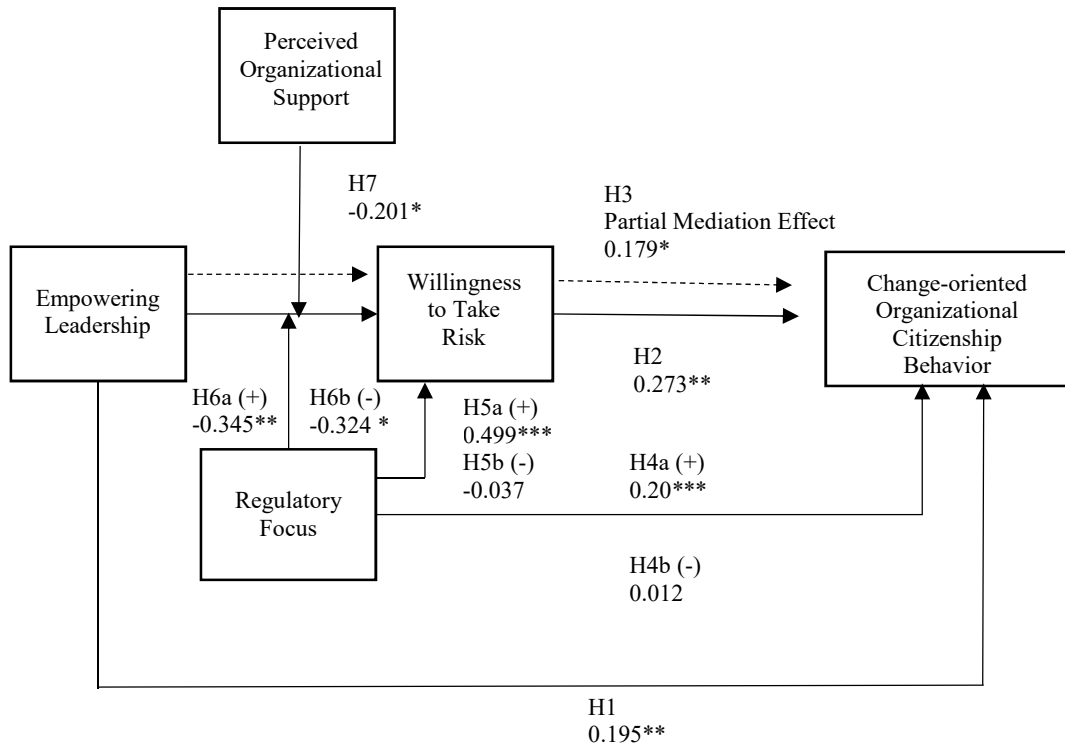


Figure 7 – Results of the Hypothesized Model



Notes: The model does not show error terms and control variables

$\rho < 0.05^*$ $\rho < 0.01^{**}$ $\rho < 0.001^{***}$

Appendices

Appendix A – Summary of the Measurement Items

Scale Item	Questions
Extracted 3 items from 4-item of Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Choi, 2007) Extracted 2 items from 10-item of Voice (Liang et al., 2012) Extracted 7 items from 10-item of Taking Charge (Morrison and Phelps, 1999)	
CO1	I frequently come up with new ideas or new work methods to perform my task
CO2	I often suggest changes to unproductive rules or policies
CO3	I often change the way I work to improve efficiency
CO4	I proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the team
CO5	I dare to point out problems when they appear in the team, even if that would hamper relationships with colleagues
CO6	This person often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job.
CO7	This person often tries to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective
CO8	This person often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive
CO9	This person often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization
CO10	This person often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice
CO11	This person often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures
CO12	This person often tries to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.
Empowering Leadership (Ahearne et al., 2005) – 12 items	
Enhance the Meaningfulness of Work:	
EL1	My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company
EL2	My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company
EL3	My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture
Participate in Decision Making:	

EL4	My manager makes may decision together with me
EL5	My manager often consults me on strategic decisions
EL6	My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that affect me
Express Confidence:	
EL7	My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks
EL8	My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes
EL9	My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at high level
Perform Autonomy:	
EL10	My manager allows me to do my job my way
EL11	My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple
EL12	My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy the stakeholder/customer needs
Willingness to Take Risk (Neves and Eisenberger, 2013) – 4-item	
WTR1	I am willing to accept tasks having a high likelihood of problems
WTR2	I am willing to put myself in a position of risk to help my organization
WTR3	I am willing to tell my manager that I have made a mistake that I could easily hide
WTR4	I consider to take a chance on new products, services or procedures
Regulatory Focus (Neubert & et al., 2008) – 18-item	
RF1	I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security
RF2	At work, I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities
RF3	Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me
RF4	At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others
RF5	At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security
RF6	I do everything I can to avoid loss at work
RF7	Job security is an important factor for me in any job search
RF8	I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work
RF9	I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work

RF10	I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement
RF11	I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success
RF12	If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project, I would definitely take it
RF13	If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one
RF14	A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job
RF15	I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement
RF16	I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations
RF17	My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to
RF18	At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations
Short version of Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) – 10-item	
POS1	My organization values my contribution to its well-being
POS2	My organization fails to appreciate my extra effort from me
POS3	My organization would ignore any complaint from me
POS4	My organization really cares about my well-being
POS5	My organization shows very little concern for me
POS6	My organization takes pride in my accomplishment at work
POS7	Even I did the best job possible, my organization would fail to notice
POS8	My organization cares about my general satisfaction at work
POS9	The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible
POS10	The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability
Politics Perception (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, et al., 2003) – 6 items	
PP1	There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on
PP2	People do what is best for them, not what is best for the organization
PP3	People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them
PP4	People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie
PP5	Many employees are trying to maneuver their way into the in-group
PP6	Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others

Appendix B – Sample Questionnaires



Survey – Wave 1

Dear Respondent,

I am currently conducting an academic research study to partially fulfill the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Business Administration (“DBA”) at Hong Kong Baptist University (“HKBU”).

In this regard, my sincere friend, who is your colleague or friend, will request your valuable time to provide your feedback toward different personal, situational and organizational situations that you have/may come across. The survey would take approximately twenty minutes to complete. It is anonymous with coding to match the data for Time Series 2 and any information or opinions provided will remain strictly confidential.

Thanks and regards,

Alison Chan

Candidate of DBA

Team Code: _____ Subordinate Code: _____

Section I

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
01	My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company 我的經理幫助我了解我的目的和目標與公司的目的和目標相關	1	2	3	4	5
02	My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company 我的經理幫助我了解我的工作對公司整體效益的重要性	1	2	3	4	5
03	My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture 我的經理幫助我理解我的工作如何配合更大的局面	1	2	3	4	5
04	My manager makes may decision together with me 我的經理和我一起作出決定	1	2	3	4	5
05	My manager often consults me on strategic decisions 我的經理經常諮詢我有關他的戰略決策的意見	1	2	3	4	5
06	My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that affect me 我的經理就影響我的決定徵求我的意見	1	2	3	4	5
07	My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks 我的經理相信我可以處理艱鉅的任務	1	2	3	4	5
08	My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes 我的經理相信我即使在犯錯的時候也能改善自己的能力	1	2	3	4	5
09	My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at high level 我的經理對我的能力有信心，認為我可以有高水平的表現	1	2	3	4	5
10	My manager allows me to do my job my way 我的經理允許我按照自己的方式工作	1	2	3	4	5
11	My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple 我的經理通過保持規則和規定簡單，使我的工作更有效率	1	2	3	4	5

12	My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy the stakeholder/customer needs 我的經理允許我快速做出重要決定，以滿足利益相關者/客戶的需求	1	2	3	4	5
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Section II

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	I concentrate on completing my work tasks correctly to increase my job security 我專注於正確完成工作任務以增加就業保障	1	2	3	4	5
14	At work, I focus my attention on completing my assigned responsibilities 在工作中，我把注意力集中完成那些分配給我的職責上	1	2	3	4	5
15	Fulfilling my work duties is very important to me 履行我的工作職責對我來說非常重要	1	2	3	4	5
16	At work, I strive to live up to the responsibilities and duties given to me by others 在工作中，我努力履行他人賦予我的責任和義務	1	2	3	4	5
17	At work, I am often focused on accomplishing tasks that will support my need for security 在工作中，我經常專注於完成那些可以令我得到就業保障的工作	1	2	3	4	5
18	I do everything I can to avoid loss at work 我盡我所能避免工作中的損失	1	2	3	4	5

19	Job security is an important factor for me in any job search 就業保障對於我在尋找工作時是一個重要的因素	1	2	3	4	5
20	I focus my attention on avoiding failure at work 我把注意力集中在避免工作中的失敗	1	2	3	4	5
21	I am very careful to avoid exposing myself to potential losses at work 我非常小心地避免讓自己在工作中蒙受潛在的損失	1	2	3	4	5
22	I take chances at work to maximize my goals for advancement 我抓住機遇以最大限度地提升晉升的目標	1	2	3	4	5
23	I tend to take risks at work in order to achieve success 我傾向於在工作中冒險，以取得成功	1	2	3	4	5
24	If I had an opportunity to participate on a high-risk, high-reward project, I would definitely take it 如果我有機會參與高風險，高回報的項目，我肯定會接受	1	2	3	4	5
25	If my job did not allow for advancement, I would likely find a new one 如果我的工作不能獲得晉升的機會，我很可能會找另一個新的工作	1	2	3	4	5
26	A chance to grow is an important factor for me when looking for a job 尋找工作時，成長的機會是一個重要的因素	1	2	3	4	5
27	I focus on accomplishing job tasks that will further my advancement 我專注於完成那些可以進一步推動我的發展與晉升機會的工作任務	1	2	3	4	5

28	I spend a great deal of time envisioning how to fulfill my aspirations 我花了很多時間想像如何實現我的抱負	1	2	3	4	5
29	My work priorities are impacted by a clear picture of what I aspire to 我的工作的優先次序受到我所追求的目標所影響	1	2	3	4	5
30	At work, I am motivated by my hopes and aspirations 在工作中，我被我的希望和願望推動	1	2	3	4	5

Section III

31 What is your gender? Male Female

32 What is your age? Age: _____

33 What is your job nature?

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Branch Manager | <input type="checkbox"/> Information Technology | <input type="checkbox"/> Product Development |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Corporate Communication | <input type="checkbox"/> Investment Advisory | <input type="checkbox"/> Product Management |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Credit Management | <input type="checkbox"/> Fund Management | <input type="checkbox"/> Sales |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Finance | <input type="checkbox"/> Marketing | <input type="checkbox"/> Risk Management |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Financial Crime Compliance | <input type="checkbox"/> Operations | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Human Resources | <input type="checkbox"/> OTHERS Please specify: _____ | |

34 How long have you been working for the organization?

- Below 1 year
- From 1 year to 3 years
- From 3 years to 5 years
- From 5 years to 10 years
- Over 10 years

35 How long have you been working with your current supervisor?

- Below 1 year
- From 1 year to 3 years
- From 3 years to 5 years
- From 5 years to 10 years
- Over 10 years

36 What is your highest education level?

- Secondary School
- Diploma
- Bachelor Degree
- Master Degree or above
- Others Please specify: _____

Questionnaire Follow-Up (Optional)

Thank you very much for responding to this survey. If you would like to receive a summary of the results, please provide your postal address below.

Name : _____

Postal Address: _____

In addition, please feel free to elaborate on any of your responses below.

All comments would be strictly confidential and your name will not be revealed to anyone outside the Research Team.

End of Survey

Thank You

Survey – Wave 2

Dear Respondent,

Thank you for your feedback to the questionnaire at Time Series 1 and I would like to request your valuable time to provide your feedback toward other personal, situational and organizational situations that you have/may come across.

The survey would take approximately fifteen minutes to complete. Again, it is anonymous with coding to match the data for Time Series 1 and any information or opinions provided will remain strictly confidential.

Thanks and regards,

Alison Chan

Candidate of DBA

Team Code: _____ **Subordinate Code:** _____

Section I

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
01	I am willing to accept tasks having a high likelihood of problems 我願意接受很有可能出現問題的任務	1	2	3	4	5
02	I am willing to put myself in a position of risk to help my organization 我願意把自己放在一個危險的位置幫助我的機構	1	2	3	4	5
03	I am willing to tell my manager that I have made a mistake that I could easily hide 我願意告訴我的經理我犯了一個錯誤，即使這個錯誤很容易隱藏	1	2	3	4	5
04	I consider to take a chance on new products, services or procedures 我考慮把握新產品，服務或程序的機會	1	2	3	4	5

Section II

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
05	My organization values my contribution to its well-being 我的機構重視我對其福祉的貢獻	1	2	3	4	5
06	My organization appreciates my extra effort from me 我的機構讚賞我的額外努力	1	2	3	4	5
07	My organization would take action upon any complaint from me 我的機構會對我的任何投訴採取行動	1	2	3	4	5
08	My organization really cares about my well-being 我的機構真的關心我的福祉	1	2	3	4	5
09	My organization shows a lot of concern for me 我的機構對我很關心	1	2	3	4	5
10	My organization takes pride in my accomplishment at work 我的機構對我工作的成就感到自豪	1	2	3	4	5

11	My organization would not fail to notice what I did the best job 我的機構不會不注意我做了什麼最好的工作	1	2	3	4	5
12	My organization cares about my general satisfaction at work 我的機構關心我對工作的滿足感	1	2	3	4	5
13	The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible 我的機構試圖使我的工作盡可能有趣	1	2	3	4	5
14	The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability 為了幫助我發揮我所能完成工作，我的機構願意擴大工作範圍	1	2	3	4	5

Section III

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
15	There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on 這裡有很多只為自己打算的行為	1	2	3	4	5
16	People do what is best for them, not what is best for the organization 人們做有利於他們的事情，而不是有利於機構的事情	1	2	3	4	5
18	People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them 人們花大量的時間拍那些能幫他們人的馬屁	1	2	3	4	5
19	People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie 人們在背後使勁以確保他們能分到一杯羹	1	2	3	4	5
20	Many employees are trying to maneuver their way into the in-group 很多人想辦法進入小圈子	1	2	3	4	5
21	Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others 人們在背後說彼此的壞話以在其他人面前抬高自己	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire Follow-Up (Optional)

Thank you very much for responding to this survey. If you would like to receive a summary of the results, please provide your postal address below. All comments would be strictly confidential and your name will not be revealed to anyone outside the Research Team.

Name : _____

Postal Address: _____

End of Survey

Thank You



Survey - Wave 3

Dear Respondent,

I am currently conducting an academic research study to partially fulfill the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Business Administration (“DBA”) at Hong Kong Baptist University (“HKBU”).

In this regard, my sincere friend, who is your colleague or friend, will request your valuable time to provide your feedback toward your subordinates. The research study is designed to further our understanding of why and when an employee chooses to engage in change-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, that is, constructive and proactive effort to identify and implement changes in work processes, products and services.

The survey would take approximately thirty minutes to complete. It is anonymous with coding to match with subordinates whom you evaluate and any information or opinions provided will remain strictly confidential.

Thanks and regards,

Alison Chan

Candidate of DBA

Team Code: _____ **Subordinate Code:** _____

Section I

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Disagree or Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
01	This subordinate frequently comes up with new ideas or new work methods to perform his/her task 這個下屬經常提出新的想法或新的工作方法來完成他/她的任務	1	2	3	4	5
02	This subordinate often suggests changes to unproductive rules or policies 這個下屬經常建議對那些欠缺生產性的規則或政策作出改變	1	2	3	4	5
03	This subordinate often changes the way he/she works to improve efficiency 這個下屬經常改變他/她工作的方式來提高效率	1	2	3	4	5
04	This subordinate proactively develops and makes suggestions for issues that may influence the team 這個下屬主動發展並提出可能影響團隊的問題的建議	1	2	3	4	5
05	This subordinate dare to point out problems when they appear in the team, even if that would hamper relationships with colleagues 這個下屬敢於在出現問題時指出問題，即使這會妨礙與同事的關係	1	2	3	4	5
06	This subordinate often tries to adopt improved procedures for doing his or her job 這個下屬經常嘗試改進自己工作的程序	1	2	3	4	5
07	This subordinate often tries to change how his or her job is executed in order to be more effective 這個下屬經常試圖改變如何執行他或她的工作的方法，以便更有效	1	2	3	4	5
08	This subordinate often makes constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization 這個下屬經常提出建設性的建議，以改善機構內部的運作	1	2	3	4	5
09	This subordinate often tries to change organizational rules or policies that are non-productive or counterproductive 這個下屬經常試圖改變有關欠缺生產性或毫無作用的規則或政策	1	2	3	4	5

10	This subordinate often tries to correct a faulty procedure or practice 這個下屬經常試圖糾正錯誤的程序或做法	1	2	3	4	5
11	This subordinate often tries to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures 這個下屬經常試圖消除冗餘或不必要的程序	1	2	3	4	5
12	This subordinate often tries to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency 這個下屬經常試圖引入新的架構、技術或方法來提高效率	1	2	3	4	5

13 What is your gender? Male Female

14 What is your job nature?

<input type="checkbox"/> Branch Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Information Technology	<input type="checkbox"/> Product Development
<input type="checkbox"/> Corporate Communication	<input type="checkbox"/> Investment Advisory	<input type="checkbox"/> Product Management
<input type="checkbox"/> Credit Management	<input type="checkbox"/> Fund Management	<input type="checkbox"/> Sales
<input type="checkbox"/> Finance	<input type="checkbox"/> Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/> Risk Management
<input type="checkbox"/> Financial Crime Compliance	<input type="checkbox"/> Operations	
<input type="checkbox"/> Human Resources	<input type="checkbox"/> OTHERS Please specify: _____	

15 How long have you been working for the organization?

- Below 1 year
- From 1 year to 3 years
- From 3 years to 5 years
- From 5 years to 10 years
- Over 10 years

16 How long have you been working with your supervisor?

- Below 1 year
- From 1 year to 3 years
- From 3 years to 5 years
- From 5 years to 10 years
- Over 10 years

- 17 What is your highest education level?
- Secondary School
 - Diploma
 - Bachelor Degree
 - Master Degree or above
 - Others Please specify: _____

- 18 What is your age group?
- 20 - 30
 - 30 - 40
 - 40 - 50
 - Over 50

Questionnaire Follow-Up (Optional)

Thank you very much for responding to this survey. If you would like to receive a summary of the results, please provide your postal address below. All comments would be strictly confidential and your name will not be revealed to anyone outside the Research Team.

Name : _____

Postal Address : _____

End of Survey

Thank You

CURRICULUM VITAE

Academic qualifications of the thesis author, Ms. CHAN Suk Kuen, Alison:

- Received the degree of Bachelor of Business Administration (Honours) from

The Chinese University of Hong Kong, December 1996

- Received the degree of Master of Business Administration from

Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, November 2010

August 2018