

Empowering to Reduce Intentions to Resist Future Change:
Organization-Based Self-Esteem as a Boundary Condition

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The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author, Pedro Neves.

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Abstract

Research examining resistance to change usually focuses on what happens during (or immediately prior to) the implementation. However, researchers also acknowledge that organizational life, including change events, do not occur in a vacuum and that individuals form intentions to resist future change based on their prior experiences. Building on uncertainty reduction theory, we examined the role of empowering leadership in the reduction of intentions to resist future change. Using a time-lagged design, we found that empowering leadership reduces behavioral intentions to resist future change via structural empowerment. The indirect effect on cognitive and affective intentions was significant only for high OBSE individuals. We also found a positive effect on cognitive intentions via psychological empowerment, again only for high OBSE individuals. These findings suggest that, to anticipate and prevent potential resistance to change, organizations should take a long-term approach to change management, namely by stimulating empowering leadership during times of stability.

Keywords: empowering leadership, empowerment, intentions to resist future change, resistance to change, organization-based self-esteem

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Introduction

The most common approach to change is to treat it as a one-off phenomenon, where each change process is assessed and managed as a single event (for a review see Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis, 2013). Kotter's (1995, 2007) model of change management starts precisely by discussing how change efforts often fail due to the lack of a sense of urgency (Error #1). It assumes the preparation for change starts once the need for change is identified and it makes clear that the success of the firm depends on the motivation of its workforce. This approach is incomplete since the meaning of one's actions is not limited to the moment when it takes place, but rather "those future experiences which are my intended action and (...) those past experiences which are my completed action" (Schutz, 1967, p. 39). Thus, we argue it is imperative to identify strategies that help reduce intentions to resist future change, rather than solely attempting to reduce resistance to change once it has been enacted.

Resistance to change has been identified as one of the key sources of change failure (Szabla, 2007), but there has been criticism given that the most common approaches assume change agents do not contribute substantially to such process and reject the possibility that employees' reactions to change might be built on legitimate reasons (Ford & Ford, 2010). This has been the dominant approach, possibly to protect change agents from engaging in a discussion about "their own ignorance, incompetence, or mismanagement" and easily, albeit perhaps unconsciously, assigning blame "'over there, in them' (the change recipients)" (Ford, Ford & A'Amelio, 2008, p. 362). There is, however, substantial evidence on the role of change agents (Vos & Rupert, 2018), and particularly leaders (e.g., Furst & Cable, 2008; Oreg & Berson, 2011; van Dam, Oreg & Schyns, 2008), in the development of resistance. This suggests that more research concerning the actions of change agents, such as middle

managers, who actually manage the change in the shop floor (Neves, Almeida & Velez, 2018), is needed to fully understand employees' subjective experience (Oreg, 2006).

Uncertainty Reduction and Intentions to Resist Future Change

One of the paradoxes that best characterizes current organizations is the need to stress organizational continuity, while simultaneously pursuing change (Waldman & Bowen, 2016). This is particularly troublesome given that change is commonly seen as an 'either-or' equation, where managers either pay attention to short-term value creation or they focus on the development of long-term capabilities (Beer & Nohria, 2000). The need to swiftly demonstrate that the change was beneficial – reflected in the overweight given to quick wins - often results in heightened levels of employee resistance to change.

Resistance to change can be defined as a negative set of responses to change across three dimensions (Piderit, 2000). Cognitive resistance reflects the individual's beliefs about the change, while affective resistance focuses on their feelings, moods, and emotions in relation to the change process, and behavioral resistance concerns actions towards change (Oreg, 2006). The distinction between these dimensions is fundamental given the potential for within-person ambivalence (Piderit, 2000) and their variability in terms of antecedents (e.g, Garcia-Cabrera & Hernandez, 2014; Oreg, 2006) and outcomes (e.g., Rafferty & Jimmieson, 2017).

Resistance depends, at least in part, on managerial actions (Ford & Ford, 2010). The (quite often failed) history of change in similar contexts reflects the weight of such actions (Amis & Aissaoui, 2013). When managers ignore past practices, values and traditions of the organization while preparing for future changes, they are promoting a biased and simplified view of employee reactions (i.e., 'they just don't get it'). Such an agent-centric view (Ford et al., 2008) impedes an open and honest communication about perceived fears and difficulties and complicates the enactment of appropriate strategies to deal with the actual sources of

resistance, including the proactive management of resistance as a valuable resource (Ford & Ford, 2010).

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT: Berger & Calabrese, 1975) proposes that individuals strive to reduce uncertainty and increase predictability about the behavior of others. Building on past interactions, individuals engage in a proactive process where they “develop predictions about the other before the other acts” (p. 101). Managers can provide opportunities for organizational members to actively participate in (and pave the way for) change, helping them self-discover the underlying message through experiential learning (Armenakis, Harris & Mossholder, 1993). One key step for creating readiness for change is empowering others to act on the vision, not only by changing structures but also by encouraging nontraditional ideas and actions (Kotter, 1995, 2007). By examining the relationship between empowering leadership and intentions to resist future change, our study contributes to the literature in several ways.

First, we build on a recent trend that suggests that organizations need to start preparing for future changes in times of stability, rather than only when change is warranted (Neves et al., 2018). This is an important leap in the change management paradigm as we move away from a view of change as a discrete event and integrate the uncertainty reduction elements of explanation and prediction (Berger & Calabrese, 1975) to demonstrate that the regular activities of the organization, in this case the empowering actions of its agents, shape how individuals prepare for future, unforeseen change events. Thus, we move away from the one-off phenomenon perspective and integrate past experiences and future intentions.

Second, we aim to demonstrate that resistance stems, at least partly, from managerial actions. In doing so, we follow the view that the dominant, agent-centric, approach to change provides a biased and unilateral account of resistance (Ford et al., 2008), and propose that we have to take into account how managers proactively prepare individuals for change (Ford &

Ford, 2010), even when one is not foreseeable in the near future. In preparation for dire times, organizations must rely on regular practices and the day-to-day behaviors of their agents as a vehicle of their positive intentions, demonstrating how the broader organizational context influences one's readiness for change.

Third, we couple URT with the person-situation debate to contribute to the literature on empowering leadership and empowerment. Although it is generally accepted that there is a need to integrate person and context, particularly how individuals construe and make sense of the situation (Mischel, 2004), the literature on empowerment still favors a universal, beneficial, approach (Maynard, Gilson & Mathieu, 2012). Nonetheless, a handful of studies have shown that, under certain conditions, not all individuals react positively to empowerment (e.g., Auh, Menguc & Jung, 2014; Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, Schaffer & Wilson, 2009; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). These findings are aligned with evidence that shows that, to develop more comprehensive models on uncertainty reduction, individual differences need to be integrated (Bradac, 2001; Greco & Roger, 2001). We expect individuals with a high self-perceived value of themselves as organizational members, i.e., organization-based self-esteem (OBSE; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989) to respond positively to empowerment as they are less uncertain about the appropriateness of their own thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Pierce & Gardner, 2004), while those low on OBSE should not necessarily benefit from empowerment efforts. By showing that empowerment should not be used as a 'one size fits all' type of strategy, we answer the call for more research on its boundary conditions (Maynard et al., 2012).

Leadership, Empowerment, and Intentions to Resist Future Change

To develop a flexible organizational design, necessary to adapt quickly in competitive environments (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000), leaders need to involve employees in decision making processes and provide them with more autonomy. This is often achieved

through the empowerment of employees (Spreitzer, 1995), for which the behaviors displayed by leaders play a central role (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003), particularly empowering leadership. Empowering leadership refers to delegating authority, sharing information, asking for input and coaching, and promoting autonomous decision making (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). These behaviors include several dimensions (Ahearne et al., 2005; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Arnold et al., 2000), with an emphasis on participative decision making (e.g., encouraging the expression of ideas, soliciting opinions) and autonomy/delegation/coaching (e.g., making suggestions on how to improve, believing in one's ability, giving power).

It falls under the behavioral approach to leadership, such as other constructs like participative, transformational, or ethical leadership, but is conceptually distinct (Cheong, Yammarino, Dionne, Spain & Tsai, 2019). Only empowering leadership focuses specifically on what leaders do to provide autonomy and decision latitude to followers, which we argue contributes to their active sensemaking of the process of change, an essential element to understand employees' experience of change (Rafferty & Jimmeson, 2017). This goes beyond merely asking for participation (participative), highlighting the importance of the collective 'us' (transformational), or stressing an ethical perspective. In this context, the role of empowering leaders is to "lead others to lead themselves" (Manz & Sims, 1987, p.119).

Research so far has demonstrated the relevance of empowering leadership, not only for performance (Fong & Snape, 2015; Huang, Iun, Liu & Gong, 2010; Lorinkova, Pearsall & Sims, 2013; Raub & Robert, 2010; Stewart, 2006) but a vast array of employee behaviors, including learning (Jonsson, Muhonen, Denti & Chen, 2015), knowledge sharing (Chuang, Jackson & Jiang, 2016; Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006), voice (Gao, Janssen & Shi, 2011), proactivity (Martin, Liao & Campbell, 2013), work engagement (Tuckey, Bakker & Dollard, 2012), creativity (Harris, Li, Boswell, Zhang & Xie, 2014; Yon, Bloom & Crant, 2014),

innovative behaviors (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro & Farh, 2011), and organizational (Huang et al., 2010; Li, Chiaburu & Kirkman, 2017; Raub & Robert, 2010) and service-oriented citizenship behaviors (Auh et al., 2014). Additionally, meta-analytic evidence suggests that empowering leadership adds explanatory power to several employee attitudes and behaviors such as OCB, creativity, trust in leader, and knowledge sharing over and beyond transformational leadership or LMX (Lee, Willis & Tian, 2018).

The transference of power and responsibility from leaders to their subordinates enables and develops them, making them more adaptive and open to change (Ahearne et al., 2005). The unpredictability and complexity of organizational change calls for individuals to enact new patterns (Ford et al., 2008), and reducing uncertainty becomes a priority. As change processes do not occur in a vacuum (van Dam et al., 2008), individuals look at the current situation, namely how their managers behave, to develop an understanding about the organization's intentions.

Neves et al. (2018) found evidence supporting this claim. They found that both commitment-based HR practices and ethical leadership were necessary in order for employees to reduce their intentions to resist future change, as they emphasize the long-term investment of the organization and its reflex in the daily actions of its agents. These findings are aligned with the idea that individuals resist change not necessarily because of their fear of the future, but rather due to their own prior subjective experiences (Oreg, 2006), which highlights their need to reduce uncertainty as an anticipatory, proactive coping strategy.

Building on URT (Berger & Calabrese, 1975) and on the compelling argument that more often than not employees have legitimate reasons to resist change (Oreg, 2006), we argue that decisions about whether or not one should resist future efforts to change are built around their regular work experiences. Empowering leadership demonstrates the importance

placed in the development of subordinates and the belief that employees have the necessary capabilities to deal with potential challenges.

Thus, empowering leadership should reduce employees' intentions to resist future change, reflected in three domains (Piderit, 2000): cognitive (negative beliefs about future changes), affective (feelings, moods and emotions about future changes), and behavioral (reactions to future changes). While these reactions are often aligned, mismatches or ambivalence between them are an important part of resistance of change (Piderit, 2000). It is possible that an individual sees benefits in a particular change (cognitive), but not necessarily feel positively about it (affective) and eventually even decide not to act (behavior). We need to examine each dimension separately, as a unifacted view of the phenomenon is fated to provide an incomplete account of the phenomenon (Piderit, 2000). We argue that the reduction of uncertainty that stems from working with an empowering leader influences: a) the rational assessment of future changes, particularly negative thoughts (cognitive); b) the emotions associated with the possibility of change, with an emphasis on negative emotions (affective); and c) the willingness or intention to act in response to that potential change, particularly actions against that effort (behavioral). Therefore, we propose that:

Hypothesis 1: Empowering leadership is negatively related to a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change.

URT also provides cues in terms of the expected pathways. It proposes that positive relational patterns serve two functions: motivational, where shared meaning is ascribed to potentially stressful and threatening environments; and instrumental, where the quantity and quality of the resources provided are assessed (Albrecht & Adelman, 1984; Berger & Calabrese, 1975).

The link between empowering leadership and motivational states, particularly psychological empowerment, has been extensively examined (e.g., Amundsen & Martinsen,

2014; Chen et al., 2011; Fong & Snape, 2015; Huang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2017; Wallace, Johnson, Mathe & Paul, 2011; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Psychological empowerment is commonly defined as intrinsic task motivation manifested in four cognitions: meaningfulness, the value associated with a given task goal or purpose; competence, the mastery with which someone performs a task; impact, the purpose of the task and whether a person can make a difference; and choice, whether an individual controls the initiation and regulation of his/her actions (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Psychological empowerment is one of the main mechanisms via which empowering leadership influences employee work behaviors, including performance (Auh et al., 2014; Fong et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2010; Raub & Robert, 2010), innovation (Chen et al., 2011), taking charge (Li et al., 2017) and creativity (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Through this motivational process, empowering leadership indirectly contributes to employees' willingness to contribute to their organizations (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). In light of URT, working for an empowering leader should help reduce negative thoughts about, emotional reactions to, and intentions to act against any potential change effort because it improves intrinsic task motivation. Oreg (2006) found that intrinsic motivation only predicted affective and cognitive resistance to change; therefore, we expect the psychological empowerment mechanism to be stronger for cognitive and affective intentions to resist future change. Accordingly:

Hypothesis 2: The negative relationship between empowering leadership and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change is mediated by psychological empowerment.

Another way to reduce uncertainty about the intentions of the organization is to shift control from leaders to their subordinates (Arnold et al., 2000) by demonstrating that its structure, practices and policies focus on “cascading power, decision-making authority and

responsibility down to lower levels of the organization” (Sun, Zhang, Qi & Chen, 2012, p.55). Although motivation is at the core of empowerment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), we argue that the provision of resources side of empowerment is the main uncertainty reduction mechanism concerning organizational change. Change often involves resource scarcity (i.e., lack of time, knowledge, experience), making the access to those commodities a priority. This involves ensuring employees have the necessary access to information, support and resources to be effective at work, while providing opportunities to grow and learn, i.e., to develop their structural empowerment (Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian & Wilk, 2004). By doing so, it reduces asymmetries in information power distribution (Berger & Calabrese, 1975) and thereby fulfills an important role in predicting leader behavior and reducing uncertainty about their intentions.

The role of structural empowerment as a linking mechanism between leadership behaviors and employee outcomes has remained understudied. Evidence so far shows that leaders are indeed instrumental for its development, with consequences for employee health and behavior (Read & Laschinger, 2015; Sun et al., 2012). Empowering leadership should also contribute to employees’ willingness to support future change efforts by providing them with added control over their environment (Arnold et al., 2000) and improving their perceptions of the current working conditions (Laschinger et al., 2004). Empowering leaders provide resource assistance and reduce information power asymmetries, as reflected in structural empowerment, and thereby diminish employees’ negative thoughts about, emotional reactions to, and intentions to act against the potential change effort. Given the evidence showing that the amount and quality of information predicts cognitive and behavioral, but not affective resistance (Oreg, 2006), we expect structural empowerment to be more important for cognitive and behavioral intentions to resist future change. Thus:

Hypothesis 3: The negative relationship between empowering leadership and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change is mediated by structural empowerment.

The Role of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

While empowerment seems to be generally beneficial, there is also evidence showing that it might always not be an effective strategy. For example, without a learning climate, psychological empowerment does not drive service-oriented citizenship behaviors (Auh et al., 2014); if enacted in a context of low leader encouragement of creativity, it stops promoting creative process engagement (Zhang & Bartol, 2010); and if put forth in a low organizational support setting, it does not contribute to improved performance (Butts et al., 2009). Interestingly, and while all these authors posited augmenting effects of different contextual variables, they all consistently found them to be a necessary condition for empowerment to drive individual behavior.

In order to increase the precision of URT, particularly in unusual or multifaceted situations, such as organizational change, we need not only to consider potential moderators in general (Bradac, 2001), but individual differences in particular (Greco & Roger, 2001), as what threatens some might be seen as a challenge by others. Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE; Pierce et al., 1989) in particular, has been associated with how individuals experience uncertainty (Hui & Lee, 2000; Pierce & Gardner, 2004) because they are expected to behave in a manner that is consistent with their positive self-view (Pierce et al., 1989). OBSE refers to “the degree to which organizational members believe that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of an organization” (Pierce et al., 1989, p. 625). It reflects the answer to the question ‘How capable, significant and worthy am I as an organizational member?’, and could be resumed to a rather simple statement: “I count around here” (Pierce & Gardner, 2004, p. 593).

Albeit related, as they both involve elements related to competence and impact, OBSE and psychological empowerment are conceptually distinct. Empowerment involves assessments of self-efficacy, i.e. the ability to function and perform (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), while OBSE reflects feelings of organizational worth (Pierce et al., 1989). Although they both reflect success in achievement domains, the former relies mostly on successfully coping with a wide range of situations while the latter refers to the evaluative component of the self (Johnson, Rosen & Levy, 2008) in the organizational context.

An important tenet of OBSE research is related to behavioral plasticity. Individuals with lower OBSE tend to be more attentive and reactive to negative external stimuli (Brockner, 1988). As such, OBSE should function as a moderator between work environment conditions and employee attitudes and behaviors (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). For example, OBSE moderates the impact of participation in a change process on employee resistant feelings, such that those with higher OBSE reacted more positively to participation (Garcia-Cabrera & Hernandez, 2014).

The predictions of behavioral plasticity help us understand how OBSE influences the uncertainty reduction process. Low self-esteem individuals, when confronted with situations of high uncertainty, are more reactive and easily influenced by negative cues (Hui & Lee, 2000). Reducing uncertainty is therefore a difficult endeavor for these individuals, even when there is resource assistance and the work is meaningful. On the other hand, high self-esteem individuals are less permeable to negative cues, and should be more responsive to empowerment efforts and feel more confident about the organization's future intentions. As previously argued, given the centrality of resource scarcity in one's attempts to cope with organizational change, we expect the interaction effects to be stronger for structural empowerment, as it signals the ability to gain important resources. Hence, we predict:

Hypothesis 4: The negative relationship between psychological empowerment and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change is moderated by OBSE, such that this relationship is stronger for high OBSE.

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between structural empowerment and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change is moderated by OBSE, such that this relationship is stronger for high OBSE.

Based on these arguments and evidence suggesting that not all employees react positively to empowerment (Humborstad & Kuvaas, 2013), we also predict that OBSE should moderate the process via which empowering leadership influences intentions to resist future change. When faced with the corresponding feelings of psychological and structural empowerment that stem from an empowering leader, employees with high OBSE should more easily reduce uncertainty about the intentions of their organization and respond with lower intentions to resist future change (cognitively, affectively and behaviorally). We do not predict an interaction effect between empowering leadership and OBSE because research has consistently framed the former to be a contextual resource that precedes the latter (Kim & Beehr, 2018; Kwan, Chen & Chiu, 2020; Zhang, Ke, Wang & Liu, 2018).

Hypothesis 6: The negative relationship between empowering leadership and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change via psychological empowerment is moderated by OBSE, such that this relationship is stronger for high OBSE.

Hypothesis 7: The negative relationship between empowering leadership and a) cognitive, b) affective, and c) behavioral intentions to resist future change via structural empowerment is moderated by OBSE, such that this relationship is stronger for high OBSE.

Figure 1 depicts our theoretical model.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Method

Sample and Procedure

We used a snowballing sampling method. We relied on our personal networks to invite people to participate while asking them to share the invitation in their own network. At Time 1 we collected data from 334 employed individuals. Of these, we excluded 21 because they missed a catch question inserted in the survey. To match Time 1 and Time 2 data, we created a code that also allowed participants to remain anonymous. Six weeks later (Time 2) we contacted the same individuals to fill out the survey on intentions to resist future change. As Menard (2002) argues, no universal time lag that can be recommended as it varies as a function of multiple factors. As such, we defined our time lag based on a) the call for the use of shorter time lags in the study of work-related attitudes and perceptions (Dormann & Griffin, 2015), b) common practice in organizational research (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Mathews & Toubeva, 2015) and c) pragmatic reasons for collecting data from individuals working in multiple organizations (Tekleab, Laulié, De Vos, De Jong & Coyle-Shapiro, 2019). In practice, this time lag allowed us to reduce mortality rates and common method bias, while minimizing the likelihood of any major organizational initiative or critical event taking place between measurement points. We received 174 matching surveys at Time 2 (52.1% of the original sample).

Given that the history of change determines employees' sensemaking (Rafferty & Jimmeson, 2017) and how they react to a future change (Bouckennooghe, 2012), we tested our model only with individuals with a history of change in their current employing organization. To identify those that had already been through a change process, we asked (in the end of the Time 2 survey) whether their organization implemented some significant change in the previous two years. In doing so, we ensure individuals focus on 'recent or ongoing' changes,

as emphasized in the retrospective method originally used by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), while using the timeframe adopted by Neves et al. (2018). Moreover, quite often organizations engage in ‘excessive change’, as Carucci (2019) pointed out, having almost a ‘program of the month aura’ (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999), making it difficult for individuals to exactly pinpoint the start and/or end of change. Our final sample was comprised by 130 individuals (74% of the Time 1-Time 2 matching sample), all of which had gone through major change processes in the past two years and were still employed in that organization. Individuals highlighted that these processes involved several features, namely restructuring (35.8%), changes in systems and processes (25%), new software acquisition (16.2%), departmental changes (12.2%), introduction of new policies (9.5%) and staff reduction (1.3%).

Average organizational tenure was 11.39 years ($SD=9.85$) and with their supervisor, 4.88 years ($SD=4.80$). Slightly over half were female (52.3%) and were on average 38.35 years old ($SD=10.03$). Their education was as follows: 30.0% completed graduate studies, 22.3% had an undergraduate degree; 40.8% completed high school; and 6.9% did not complete high school. The sample had slightly more individuals working in the public sector (56.2%). Their employing organizations operated in several sectors, including public administration (41.6%), social service and health (12.4%), consultancy (8.8%), education (8.8%), information technology (7.1%), finance and insurance (5.3%), restauration (4.4%), arts and sports (4.4%), among others less represented (e.g., industry, retail).

Measures

Empowering leadership (Time 1). We used the 12-item scale developed by Ahearne et al. (2005) with four subdimensions: meaningfulness of work (e.g., “my manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company”), fostering participation in decision-making (e.g., “my manager often consults me on strategic

decisions”), expressing confidence in high performance (e.g., “my manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level”) and providing autonomy (e.g., “my manager allows me to do my job my way”). The scale should be treated as unidimensional (Ahearne et al., 2005). Cronbach’s alpha was .89.

Psychological empowerment (Time 1). We used the 12-item scale developed by Spreitzer (1995) with four subdimensions: meaning (e.g., “the work I do is meaningful to me”), competence (e.g., “I am confident about my ability to do my job”), self-determination (e.g., “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work”) and impact (e.g., “my impact on what happens in my department is large”). Factor analysis supported the unidimensionality of the construct (Spreitzer, 1995). Cronbach’s alpha was .88.

Structural empowerment (Time 1). We applied the CWEQ-II (Conditions of Work Effectiveness Questionnaire-II; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian & Wilk, 2001). It includes 12 items within four dimensions which, like the previous measures, load on an global construct: opportunity (e.g., “In my present job I consider my job challenging.”), information (e.g., “I consider that I have information regarding the current state of the company.”), support (e.g., “regarding my work, I consider that I receive specific information about things you do well.”) and resources (e.g., “in my job, I consider that I have sufficient time to meet with the job’s requirements.”). Cronbach’s alpha was .75.

Organization based self-esteem (Time 1). OBSE was measured with the 10-item scale developed by Pierce et al. (1989). A sample item is “I can make a difference in this organization.” Cronbach’s alpha was .89.

Intentions to resist future change (Time 2). We adapted the cognitive, affective, and behavioral resistance to change scales developed by Oreg (2006), comprised by five items each. We changed the wording of the items in order to focus on a potential future change event (Neves et al., 2018): cognitive (e.g., “I would believe that the change would make my

job harder”), affective (e.g., “I would be afraid of the change”), and behavioral intentions to resist future change (e.g. “I would protest against change”). This procedure also included an introduction where participants were asked to imagine that their organization started a change process and detail how they think they would react. Cronbach’s alpha for cognitive and affective intentions to resist future change were .68 and .69, respectively. We had to remove one item from the behavioral intentions to resist future change. The Cronbach’s alpha for the four-item behavioral intentions to resist future change measure was .70.

Control variables. We controlled for openness to experience since individuals who are high on this trait tend to be tolerant and perceptive, open to new ideas and suggestions, demonstrate effective coping mechanisms (McCrae & Costa, 1986; Straud, McNughton-Cassill & Fuhrman, 2015), and show more positive attitudes towards organizational change (Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004). We used the 10 items developed by John, Donahue and Kentle (1991). Cronbach’s alpha was .79. In order to determine which demographic variables should be included in our analysis, we followed the recommendations put forth by Becker, Atinc, Breaugh, Carlson, Edwards & Spector (2016), in which they suggest to leave out impotent control variables (i.e., those that are not related to any the outcome variables). As such, tenure with the supervisor, age, and education were kept in our analysis, while we did not include organizational tenure or gender.

Both surveys used 5-point Likert scales for all measures ranging from 1 “Strongly Disagree” to 5 “Strongly Agree”.

Results

Descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and zero-order correlations are presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

Given that empowering leadership, OBSE and both psychological and structural empowerment were measured simultaneously, we performed a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with AMOS 25 to examine the distinctiveness of the constructs. Because the number of indicators in the CFA was quite high in comparison with the sample size, we applied the partial disaggregation technique suggested by Bagozzi and Edwards (1999). Given that each of the three empowerment constructs consists of four subdimensions, we aggregated the items in light of those subdimensions (Hall, Snell & Foust, 1999) and so each construct was represented in the CFA by four indicators (one per dimension). For OBSE we followed Little, Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman's (2002) recommendation and created three indicators that combined high and low loading items. The four-factor measurement model presented the best fit ($\chi^2(82)=153.67$; CFI=.93; RMSEA=.08; SRMR=.06) when compared to the three-factor model ($\chi^2(85)=170.86$; CFI=.91; RMSEA=.09; SRMR=.06; $\Delta\chi^2(3)=17.19$, $p<.05$), where psychological empowerment and OBSE were combined into a single factor; the two-factor model ($\chi^2(87)=220.74$; CFI=.86; RMSEA=.11; SRMR=.07; $\Delta\chi^2(5)=67.07$, $p<.05$), where empowering leadership was also integrated; and the one-factor model ($\chi^2(88)=224.10$; CFI=.86; RMSEA=.11; SRMR=.07; $\Delta\chi^2(6)=70.43$, $p<.05$). These findings support the distinctiveness of the constructs measured in time 1.

Test of Hypotheses

To test our hypotheses (except for hypothesis 1, which was tested with a linear regression) we conducted bootstrapping analysis with 1000 bootstrap samples using the PROCESS macro developed by Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007). We used model 4 to test hypotheses 2 and 3 and model 14 to test hypotheses 4 and 5 (Hayes, 2013). We chose model 14, that disregards the interaction between the predictor and moderator, because empowering leadership has consistently been conceptualized as a contextual antecedent of OBSE (Kim &

Beehr, 2018; Kwan et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018). Empowering leadership was not directly related to cognitive ($B = -.00$; 95% CI $[-.17, .16]$), affective ($B = -.03$; 95% CI $[-.21, .16]$), or behavioral ($B = -.04$; 95% CI $[-.24, .15]$) intentions to resist future change. Thus, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

To test hypotheses 2 and 3 (model 4), we first examined the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological ($B = .52$; 95% CI $[.40, .64]$) and structural empowerment ($B = .56$; 95% CI $[.45, .67]$). We then examined the relationship between empowerment and intentions to resist future change. Psychological empowerment was not a significant predictor of cognitive ($B = .12$; 95% CI $[-.13, .36]$), affective ($B = -.16$; 95% CI $[-.43, .11]$), or behavioral intentions to resist future change ($B = -.09$; 95% CI $[-.38, .19]$). Structural empowerment was negatively related to cognitive ($B = -.33$; 95% CI $[-.59, -.07]$) and behavioral ($B = -.37$; 95% CI $[-.69, -.06]$), but not affective intentions to resist future change ($B = -.19$; 95% CI $[-.48, .10]$). The indirect effect of empowering leadership on cognitive ($B = -.18$; 95% CI $[-.33, -.03]$) and behavioral ($B = -.21$; 95% CI $[-.38, -.04]$) intentions to resist future change via heightened structural empowerment was significant, supporting hypotheses 3a and 3c but not hypotheses 2a-c or 3b.

We then tested our full moderated mediation models. Bootstrapping results are presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4. First, we examined the interaction effects. OBSE was a significant moderator of the relationship between psychological empowerment and cognitive intentions to resist future change ($B = .52$; 95% CI $[.16, .88]$). Simple slope analysis showed that when OBSE was high, psychological empowerment was positively related to cognitive intentions ($t = 2.63$, $p < .05$); when it was low, the relationship was not significant ($t = -.93$, $p > .05$). The difference between slopes was significant ($t = 2.87$, $p < .05$). OBSE also moderated the relationship between structural empowerment and both cognitive ($B = -.44$; 95% CI $[-.75, -.13]$) and affective intentions to resist future change ($B = -.41$; 95% CI $[-.76, -$

.06]). When OBSE was high, structural empowerment was negatively related to cognitive ($t = -3.81, p < .05$) and affective ($t = -2.58, p < .05$) intentions; when it was low, these relationships were not significant ($t = -.18, p > .05$ and $t = .35, p > .05$, respectively). Again, the difference between slopes was significant ($t = -2.83, p > .05$ and $t = -2.32, p > .05$, respectively). These results support hypotheses 4a, 5a and 5b. The effects are depicted in Figure 2.

Insert Tables 2, 3 and 4 about here

Finally, we examined the conditional indirect effects for the three previously described interactions. When OBSE was high, empowering leadership significantly increased cognitive intentions to resist future change via psychological empowerment ($B = .26; 95\% \text{ CI} [.07, .52]$); when it was low the indirect effect was not significant ($B = -.08; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.25, .06]$). Although the index of moderated mediation was significant ($B = .27; 95\% \text{ CI} [.08, .52]$), the pattern is opposite to what we predicted, and thus we did not confirm hypothesis 6a. Simultaneously, when OBSE was high, empowering leadership significantly decreased cognitive intentions to resist future change via structural empowerment ($B = -.32; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.53, -.13]$); when it was low the indirect effect was not significant ($B = -.02; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.19, .23]$). The index of moderated mediation was significant ($B = -.25; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.48, -.07]$), supporting hypothesis 7a. Lastly, when OBSE was high, empowering leadership significantly decreased affective intentions to resist future change via structural empowerment ($B = -.25; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.49, -.02]$); when it was low the indirect effect was not significant ($B = .04; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.17, .26]$). The index of moderated mediation was significant ($B = -.23; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.44, -.03]$), supporting hypothesis 7b.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Our analytical models explained a fair amount of variance of cognitive, affective, and behavioral intentions to resist future change (18%, 13%, and 12%, respectively).

Discussion

Taken together, our results show that empowering leadership reduces behavioral intentions to resist future change (measured six weeks later) via an increase in structural empowerment. It also reduces cognitive and affective intentions to resist future change via an increase in structural empowerment, but only for high OBSE employees. However, it also contributes to an increase in cognitive intentions to resist future change via an increase in psychological empowerment, but only for high OBSE employees. Our study contributes to the change management and empowerment literatures and to our knowledge of the process that sustains the potential for resistance to change in several ways.

First, we contribute to the nascent body of knowledge that argues that organizations need to prepare for change in times of stability (Neves et al., 2018). In line with the tenets of URT (Berger & Calabrese, 1975), we show that, when preparing for change, individuals make predictions based on the prior behavior of organizational agents. It also shows that resistance (or specifically, intentions to resist) has a functional value (Ford & Ford, 2010). While research on intentions to resist future change is still scarce (Neves et al., 2018), it consistently shows that individuals plan to resist change efforts based on an uncertainty reduction process where they interpret the information available in order to make predictions about the future and for which the leaders' actions contribute significantly.

Second, in line with the viewpoint that critiques the agent-centric approach to change and argues for the legitimacy of employees' reactions (Ford & Ford, 2010; Ford et al., 2008), we provide evidence that the empowering efforts of leaders contribute, over and beyond

employees' own openness to experience, to the reduction of employees' intentions to resist future change, across three dimensions: thoughts, affects, and behaviors. Empowering leaders provide access to opportunity, information, resources and support (Laschinger et al., 2004), and this increase in structural empowerment provides employees with an added control over the environment (Arnold et al., 2000). This makes them instrumental in reducing uncertainty about future actions and intentions of the organization. Our study supports the assertion that multiple factors, ranging from managerial actions to individual characteristics, contribute to the complexity of the subjective experience of change (Oreg, 2006).

Specific actions like delegating authority, sharing information, coaching and stimulating autonomy, i.e. empowering leadership (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015), enable and develop employees, reflecting a long-term commitment of the organization. This long-term perspective helps employees navigate the ambiguous and uncertainty-charged seas of change. When these behaviors are consistently demonstrated by direct supervisors, they help reduce the gap between the present and future (Amis & Aissaoui, 2013). Moreover, and as predicted, structural empowerment came forth as the main mechanism, when compared to psychological empowerment, linking empowering leadership and intentions to resist future change.

Third, in line with the person-situation framework (Mischel, 2004), we show that empowering leadership (and the empowerment that comes with it) matters for the anticipation of change efforts, but it does not always work. The reduction of cognitive and affective intentions to resist future change via structural empowerment was significant only for high OBSE individuals. As predicted, individuals that felt that they count and matter as organizational members (Pierce & Gardner, 2004) were responsive to structural empowerment, while those that felt that their role was insignificant were not influenced. Given their intrinsic ability to deal with uncertainty, high OBSE individuals are less reactive to negative cues (Hui & Lee, 2000), and therefore respond positively to uncertainty reduction

efforts, making them are more willing to support potential change efforts. These results are in line with the findings of Heuvel, Demerouti and Bakker (2014) in the context of a major reorganization that show that OBSE is also linked to an increased adaptability to change.

Finally, although unintendedly, we also contribute to the ongoing discussion on the potential burden of empowering leadership (Cheong, Spain, Yammarino & Yun, 2016). While it is generally seen as a positive strategy that contributes to empowerment and ultimately enacts positive behaviors (Maynard et al., 2012), we show that empowering leadership might backlash, at least to a certain extent. Empowering leadership, via psychological empowerment, increased cognitive intentions to resist future change for those with high OBSE (but not for low OBSE). Organizational membership is centerpiece for the self-image of high OBSE individuals, reflected in a heightened sense of purpose, competence, impact and choice (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). It is possible that, as a side effect, high OBSE individuals might also start thinking about the need to defend and preserve the status-quo in face of uncertainty and feel responsible for protecting the practices that helped the organization become what they are so proud of. Similar evidence was found by Hui and Lee (2000) and was justified around potential threats to an individual's sense of self-worth and identity. They found that low OBSE individuals were more responsive to uncertainty, with heightened absenteeism and lower commitment; however, high OBSE individuals also reacted with lower intrinsic motivation. Although against our predictions, this effect is not necessarily surprising (Cheong et al., 2016), as prior studies have shown that not all employees expect or react positively to empowerment (e.g., Humborstad & Kuvaas, 2013).

Practical implications

Our study also carries several implications for managers. By (2005) argued that the main task of contemporary leaders is to manage change. Knowing that change is inevitable,

we build on his statement and argue that an important complement to this task is to help employees proactively cope (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997) and prepare for change. Proactive coping refers to efforts put forth before a potentially stressful event to either prevent it or change its form before it occurs (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997). Because people prefer to ‘see it coming’ rather than be caught in a stressful situation (Neubauer, Smith & Sliwinski, 2018), coupled with the fact that organizational change is now the norm rather than the exception, the importance of developing anticipatory coping skills is key (Feldman & Hayes, 2005). Anticipatory coping efforts help develop resources to deal with the stress of an upcoming event (Neubauer et al., 2018). This can be done by training middle managers to demonstrate a long-term commitment to their teams, especially through structural empowerment efforts during periods of stability, as our study shows. Such approach should help employees go through the five stages of proactive coping (i.e., resource accumulation, recognition of potential stressors, initial appraisal, preliminary coping efforts and use of feedback; Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997), enabling them to deal with the uncertainty that characterizes contemporary organizations.

When preparing for or implementing a major change, the organization’s past will come to either help or haunt the devised strategy. Organizations may also implement HR practices that demonstrate a similar involvement with the workforce, such as emphasizing the internal labor market in selection processes, the role of team and organizational performance for compensation, and the long-term perspective of training opportunities (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997). It will be difficult for an organization to demonstrate its commitment to its members during difficult and uncertain times (such as major change processes) if it fails to nurture talent in times of stability (Neves et al., 2018).

Since empowerment may not work for everybody, managers should establish the necessary conditions for it to be effective, namely develop their employees’ OBSE by

demonstrating support and consideration or reducing job stressors and role ambiguity and conflict (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall & Alarcon, 2010). Managers should also be concerned with how they communicate the change message itself, as it should demonstrate that the envisioned future state is better than the current state and that the team has the necessary skills to successfully overcome the discrepancy (Armenakis et al., 1993). The key focus should be on highlighting purpose and urgency without forgetting that resistance should be interpreted as feedback (Ford & Ford, 2010).

Limitations and Future research

Our study is not without limitations. First, and although we collected data in two separate time points, all our data comes from a single source, which raises concerns about common method variance (CMV). CMV might have particularly inflated the relationships between the variables measured in time 1. However, there are three reasons that minimize our concerns: a) our CFAs supported the distinctiveness of the constructs; b) CMV does not generate artificial interaction effects; at most, it deflates them, making them more difficult to identify (Lai, Li, & Leung, 2013); and c) we tested the impact of including an unmeasured latent method factor to the measurement model in order to assess the weight of CMV (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff (2012). As expected, the model with the CMV factor presented a better fit to the data ($\chi^2(53) = 98.79$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05; $\Delta\chi^2(29) = 54.88$, $p < .05$). However, the variance explained by the CMV factor was 1.95%, demonstrating its small weight compared to the 25% threshold (Williams, Cote & Buckley, 1989).

Although the time lagged design is one the main methodological strengths of our study, it also carried some unintended limitations, such as the significant reduction in our sample size. Moreover, this was enhanced by the fact that we focused solely on individuals with a history of participation in change efforts in the current organization, as it contributes to

the individual sensemaking process (Bouckenooghe, 2012; Rafferty & Jimmeson, 2017).

While this might carry additional concerns about statistical power, these concerns are minimized by the fact that interaction effects are difficult to find, especially when statistical power is low (Aguinis, 1995).

Another limitation concerns the fact that our study incorporates multiple types and forms of change, both related to the individuals' past experience as well as their future intentions. While this highlights the common elements in the experience of change, and thus allows us to provide general recommendations for change management, it does not consider potential specificities of different types of change strategies. One might argue that someone that survived downsizing might react differently (or more aggravatedly) than someone that underwent a total quality management program. Moreover, the weights and pathways might differ depending on the type of change, signaling the potential ambivalence between facets of resistance (Piderit, 2000). Providing resources might reduce behavioral resistance to the acquisition of new software, but not the emotions associated with it; while psychological empowerment might be particularly important for affective resistance in changes that appeal directly to the ascribed meaning of work (e.g., restructuring). We believe these change-specific elements deserve further exploration.

Another issue that requires further understanding is how these intentions transfer to actual resistance behaviors once a change is proposed. The combination of retrospective methods and presentation of future change scenarios also implies that the time lag between the end of the last process and the beginning of the yet-to-come change varies substantially. Given that the examination of intentions to resist future change is still nascent (Neves et al., 2018), future research should also dedicate additional attention to the temporal stability of intentions to resist future changes. Temporal stability refers to "the extent to which an attitude remains unchanged over time regardless of whether it is challenged" (Sheeran, Orbell

& Trafimow, 1999, p. 725). Prior research has shown that the relationship between intention and behavior varies substantially depending on the temporal stability of those intentions (Conner & Godin, 2007; Sheeran et al., 1999). While we argue that these intentions are broadly formed as an attempt to manage uncertainty in the workplace, it is worth examining how these intentions fluctuate across time and which are the main contributing factors, namely the role played by empowerment (and the consistency of the empowering actions) in such processes. Finally, it would be interesting to study parallel challenges that might also stem from intentions to resist future change efforts. Do these intentions express themselves in other behaviors, even in the absence of change, such as protecting oneself from risks, covering up problems or lashing out?

Conclusion

Our study contributes to the understanding of the antecedents of intentions to resist future change. Our findings show that empowering leadership is an important safeguard for the rise of these cognitive, affective, and behavioral intentions via an increase in structural empowerment and mostly for high OBSE individuals. However, it might also have unwarranted effects via psychological empowerment. The purpose of our study was precisely to call attention to the need for organizations to develop a long-term, humanistic approach toward its workforce, where change is prepared by stimulating empowering leadership and enhancing OBSE during times of stability.

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Table 1. Correlations, means, standard deviations and reliabilities

| | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| 1. Empowering leadership | 3.65 | .67 | (.89) | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Psychological empowerment | 4.11 | .59 | .66** | (.88) | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Structural empowerment | 3.51 | .57 | .69** | .49** | (.75) | | | | | | | |
| 4. OBSE | 4.05 | .62 | .70** | .72** | .59** | (.89) | | | | | | |
| 5. Cognitive intentions to resist | 2.26 | .60 | -.06 | .00 | -.23** | -.04 | (.68) | | | | | |
| 6. Affective intentions to resist | 2.28 | .66 | -.10 | -.17* | -.18* | -.16 | .68** | (.69) | | | | |
| 7. Behavioral intentions to resist | 2.19 | .71 | -.09 | -.11 | -.24** | -.12 | .66** | .66** | (.70) | | | |
| 8. Openness to experience | 3.71 | .57 | .36** | .39** | .29** | .43** | -.16 | -.16 | -.10 | (.79) | | |
| 9. Tenure with the supervisor | 4.88 | 4.80 | -.11 | -.02 | -.09 | .07 | .12 | .16 | .18* | -.07 | | |
| 10. Age | 38.35 | 10.03 | .04 | .15 | -.05 | .17 | .18* | .03 | .03 | .06 | .35** | |
| 11. Education | 3.80 | 1.05 | .07 | -.08 | .18* | -.05 | -.11 | .04 | -.16 | .16 | -.33** | -.34** |

Notes. OBSE – Organization-based self-esteem; Education was coded as follows: 1 = 4th grade; 2 = 9th grade; 3 = complete high school; 4 =

undergraduate; 5 = postgraduate studies.

Table 2. Bootstrapping results for cognitive intentions to resist future change (Model 14)

| | Psychological empowerment | | | | Structural empowerment | | | | Cognitive intentions | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------|------|------|------------------------|--------|------|------|----------------------|---------|------|------|
| | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI |
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Openness to experience | .20 | 2.71** | .05 | .34 | .09 | 1.26 | -.05 | .22 | -.22 | -2.12* | .42 | -.01 |
| Tenure with the supervisor | -.00 | -.66 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.47 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | .53 | -.00 | .00 |
| Age | .01 | 1.22 | -.00 | .01 | -.00 | -1.07 | -.01 | .00 | .01 | 1.08 | -.01 | .02 |
| Education | -.08 | -2.04* | -.17 | -.00 | .07 | 1.70 | -.01 | .14 | .01 | .25 | -.10 | .13 |
| <i>Main effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Empowering leadership | .52 | 8.47** | .40 | .64 | .56 | 9.79** | .45 | .67 | .11 | .90 | -.14 | .36 |
| Psychological empowerment | | | | | | | | | .18 | 1.33 | -.09 | .44 |
| Structural empowerment | | | | | | | | | -.31 | -2.31* | -.57 | -.04 |
| OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.04 | -.29 | -.32 | .24 |
| <i>Interaction effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .52 | 2.88** | .16 | .88 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.44 | -2.83** | -.75 | -.13 |
| <i>Index of moderated mediation</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .27 | | .08 | .52 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.25 | | -.48 | -.07 |

Notes. N= 130, * p < .05; ** p < .01; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval.

Table 3. Bootstrapping results for affective intentions to resist future change (Model 14)

| | Psychological empowerment | | | | Structural empowerment | | | | Affective intentions | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------|------|------|------------------------|--------|------|------|----------------------|--------|------|------|
| | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI |
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Openness to experience | .20 | 2.71** | .05 | .35 | .09 | 1.26 | -.05 | .22 | -.16 | -1.42 | .39 | .07 |
| Tenure with the supervisor | -.00 | -.48 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.48 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.66 | -.00 | .00 |
| Age | .01 | 1.21 | -.00 | .01 | -.00 | -1.08 | -.01 | .00 | .00 | .23 | -.01 | .01 |
| Education | -.07 | -1.79 | -.15 | .01 | .06 | 1.71 | -.01 | .14 | .08 | 1.35 | -.04 | .21 |
| <i>Main effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Empowering leadership | .52 | 8.46** | .40 | .64 | .56 | 9.83** | .45 | .67 | .22 | 1.51 | -.07 | .50 |
| Psychological empowerment | | | | | | | | | -.08 | -.52 | -.38 | .22 |
| Structural empowerment | | | | | | | | | -.19 | -1.24 | -.48 | .11 |
| OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.18 | -1.11 | -.49 | .14 |
| <i>Interaction effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .33 | 1.59 | -.08 | .73 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.41 | -2.33* | -.76 | -.06 |
| <i>Index of moderated mediation</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .17 | | -.03 | .40 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .23 | | -.44 | -.03 |

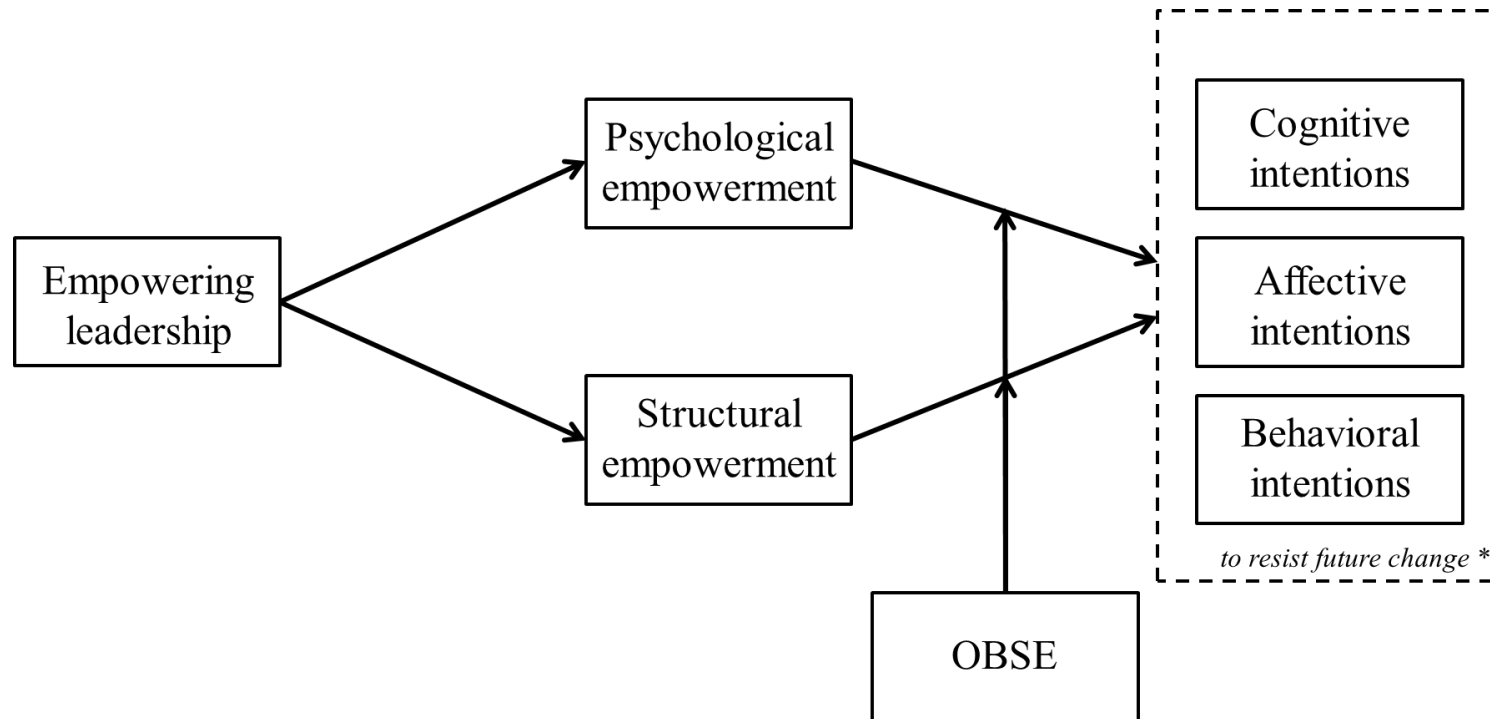
Notes. N= 130, * p < .05; ** p < .01; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval.

Table 4. Bootstrapping results for behavioral intentions to resist future change (Model 14)

| | Psychological empowerment | | | | Structural empowerment | | | | Behavioral intentions | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------|------|------|------------------------|--------|------|------|-----------------------|--------|------|------|
| | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI | B | t | LLCI | ULCI |
| <i>Controls</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Openness to experience | .20 | 2.71** | .05 | .35 | .09 | 1.26 | -.05 | .22 | -.02 | -.13 | -.26 | .23 |
| Tenure with the supervisor | -.00 | -.48 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.48 | -.00 | .00 | .00 | 1.72 | -.00 | .00 |
| Age | .01 | 1.21 | -.00 | .01 | -.00 | -1.08 | -.01 | .00 | -.00 | -.78 | -.02 | .01 |
| Education | -.07 | -1.79 | -.15 | .01 | .06 | 1.71 | -.01 | .14 | -.07 | -.97 | -.20 | .07 |
| <i>Main effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Empowering leadership | .52 | 8.46** | .40 | .64 | .56 | 9.83** | .45 | .67 | .27 | 1.73 | -.04 | .57 |
| Psychological empowerment | | | | | | | | | -.03 | -.16 | -.35 | .30 |
| Structural empowerment | | | | | | | | | -.37 | -2.30* | -.69 | -.05 |
| OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.17 | -.97 | -.51 | .17 |
| <i>Interaction effects</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .21 | .94 | -.23 | .65 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.30 | -1.59 | -.68 | .07 |
| <i>Index of moderated mediation</i> | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | .11 | | -.10 | .33 |
| SE x OBSE | | | | | | | | | -.17 | | -.42 | .03 |

Notes. N= 130, * p < .05; ** p < .01; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval.

Figure 1. Theoretical model



Notes: * measured at Time 2 (6 weeks later); OBSE – Organization-based self-esteem

Figure 2. Plots for the interaction effects

