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OKAN UNIVERSITY INSTUTUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMPOWERMENT

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, dönüsümcü/etkilesimci liderlik ve örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki

ilişkinin, psikolojik güçlendirmenin ara bulucu değişken etkisi üzerine odaklanılarak

incelenmesidir. Araştırma, İstanbul ilinde faaliyet gösteren ve üretim yapan 3 adet ilaç

firmasında çalışan 483 çalışan ile gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre, dönüşümcü liderliğin tüm alt boyutlarının güçlendirmenin

tüm alt boyutları ile anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki içinde olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca,

etkileşimci liderlik ile güçlendirme arasında da anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğu

bulunmuştur. Yalnız, araştırma örneklemi çerçevesinde güçlendirmenin "yetkinlik" alt

boyutu etkileşimci liderliğin hiçbir alt boyutu ile anlamlı bir ilişki içinde olmadığı

gözlemlenmiştir. Yine aynı çerçevede güçlendirme değişkeninin tüm alt boyutları, örgütsel

bağlılık değişkeninin tüm alt boyutları ile anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki içinde tespit

edilmiştir. Dönüşümcü liderlik değişkeninin tüm alt boyutları da örgütsel bağlılık ile

anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki içinde olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Benzeri şekilde araştırmanın

sınırları çerçevesinde etkileşimci liderlik de örgütsel bağlılık ile anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişki

içinde olduğu ve güçlendirmenin dönüşümcü liderlik ve örgütsel bağlılık arasında kısmi

ara bulucu etkisi bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, araştırma bulguları etkileşimci

liderlik ve örgütsel bağlılık arasında güçlendirme ara bulucu değişken etkisinden ziyade

ara değişken etkisinde bulunabileceğini işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar kelime: Dönüşümcü liderlik, etkileşimci liderlik, güçlendirme, örgütsel bağlılık.

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SUMMARY

The main purpose of this study is to examine the association between transformational/transactional leadership and organizational commitment by focusing on psychological empowerment. Research is carried out with 483 employees of 3 pharmaceutical companies which do manufacturing in Istanbul.

According to the results of the study, it is found out that all dimensions of transformational leadership have significant and positive relationship with the all dimensions of empowerment. Furthermore, transactional leadership has significant and positive relationship with empowerment; but according to our sample, none of the transactional leadership dimensions significantly predict one of the dimensions of empowerment, named as "competence". Congruently, all of the dimensions of empowerment have significant and positive relationship with all dimensions of organizational commitment. All of the dimensions of transformational leadership have significant and positive relationship with all of the dimensions of organizational commitment. Considering our sample, transactional leadership has significant and positive relationship with organizational commitment and it is found that empowerment partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the findings of the study indicate that rather than mediating role, empowerment has a moderating role between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

Key Words: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, empowerment, organizational commitment.

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INTRODUCTION

Businesses have been facing with important and rapid changes. It is supposed that these rapid changes in the business environment force the organizations to change their operations and structures. Also, it is accepted that adopting these changes fast and contionus renewal of both employees and organizations help organizations reach the set goals and survive in the competitive business environment.

Many studies are still being done and new approaches are still being developed on leadership to define the relationships between the type of leadership styles and organizational outcomes as well as personal outcomes such as empowerment and organizational commitment. Especially, transformational and transactional leadership approaches are the ones which are mostly emphasized of late 20 years and also they are the newest ones, if compared to other approaches, developed before. Transactional leadership style, which focuces on motivating followers through rewards and discipline, is clearly not enough for confronting challenges of the business environment. In this rapidly changing business environment, where organizations are flat and hierarhical structures are compressed, maintaining and developing continous potential of one's workforce seemed to be the key for remaining competitive and the type of leader, who is capable of doing this seemed to be different than transactional leaders. Therefore at the end of 70's a new type of leader named "transformational leader", who could transform followers to reach the vision she/he sets, motivate them by inspiring, by making them question evertyhing and look at the issues from new perspectives, empowerhis/her followers and increase their level of organizational commitment, was defined. Different leaders behave in different ways depending on their individual differences as well as their followers' needs and the organizational situation. Leadership style and leader performance play important roles on the follower's feeling of being empowered and organizational commitment.

The philosophical approach of transformational leadership is to empower employees to make them more committed to the organization (Avolio, 1999). Several recent studies using indirect effect approach have revealed the mediating role of empowerment in organizational leadership literature. The main emphasis in the literature has given to transformational leadership. This study tries to give emphasis both to transformational and

transactional leadership. This study tries to show the mediating role of empowerment on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment and also, on the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. This study also enhances the empirical research on the relationship between leadership styles, empowerment and organizational commitment. Furthermore, most of the theories of leadership were developed in North America. From a cultural point of view, since most empirical evidence on the effects of transformational/ transactional leadership has been more confined to the Western societies than in the other countries, the present study, therefore, continues and extends this line of inquiry by examining the effects of transformational/transactional leadership on employees' empowerment and organizational commitment attitudes in non-Western societies.

This study *firstly* aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and organizational commitment. *Secondly*, it aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and the empowerment. *Thirdly*, it aims to explore the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. *Fourthly*, it aims to explore the mediating effect of "empowerment". With this, it tries to examine whether the effect of transactional leadership and transformational leadership styles on organizational commitment is influenced by empowerment or not. *Fifthly*, it aims to find out whether the demographic variables (age, total work experience and tenure in the organization) moderate the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment, leadership styles and empowerment, empowerment and organizational commitment. *Finally*, it questions whether leadership styles, empowerment and organizational commitment differ according to demographic variables like gender, marital status and educational background.

The study consists of four parts. First part starts with the definition of leadership and then gives chronological information about its history. Definitions and dimensions of transformational leadership and transactional leadership are also examined. Finally, a brief information about the differences between transformational leadership and transactional leadership are mentioned. After analyzing the concept of leadership styles, definitions of

organizational commitment and empowerment are examined and then chronological information about their history are given.

Second part of the study aims to clarify the relationships between leadership styles (transformational & transactional leadership), organizational commitment and empowerment, and the mediating effect of empowerment on transformational & transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Also it consists of the results of the prior researches that analyzed the relationships of the concepts of the study.

Third part of the study is the methodology. It consists of an application about the relationship between leadership styles (transformational & transactional leadership), organizational commitment and empowerment.

The fourth and the final part of the study is the discussion of findings that the findings of analysis results which are obtained from the conducted surveys are given.

1. CONSTRUCTS OF THE STUDY

This study investigates the relationships between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership), organizational commitment and empowerment. Additionally, it tries to examine whether the effect of transactional leadership and transformational leadership styles on organizational commitment is affected by empowerment or not. Therefore relating to our aim, this chapter highlights the relevant literature on the fields of transactional leadership and transformational leadership styles, organizational commitment and empowerment.

Before moving to the research constructs of this study, first of all leadership in general is analyzed throughly to inform the reader about some definitions in the literature.

1.1. LEADERSHIP

1.1.1. Definitions of Leadership

The term leadership has been very widely referred to in the literature. Political experts, business executives and social workers use it in their speeches and writings. However, although, throughout the years, many theories and theoretical formulations of the leadership concept have been introduced, there is still disagreement as to its meaning.

Below, some representative definitions are presented over past 50 years.

Table 1: Definitions of Leadership

Author	Year	Definition of Leadership
Tannenbaum and Massrick	1957	an interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals
Hemphill and Coons	1957	the behavior of an individual directing the activites of a group toward a shared goal
Mescon	1958	true leadership can, and must, transform a group from a mere collection of individuals into a vital force, capable of goal attainment to a degree which will not be possible in case of an unstructured group of people
Bowers and Seashore	1966	organizationally useful behavior by one member of an organizational family toward another member or members of that same organizational family

Author	Year	Definition of Leadership
Dion	1968	a relationship between one or more persons exercising influence (the leader) and one or more persons submitting to that influence (followers)
Katz and Khan	1978	the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization
Jago	1982	process and property
Rauch and Behling	1984	the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement
Bass	1990	an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situations and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agent of change persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Therefore, with this broad definition, any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership, and the member will vary in the extent to which they do so
Jacobs and Jaques	1990	as the process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to arcieve purpose
Schein	1992	the ability to step outside the culture to start evolutionary change process that are more adaptive
Drath and Palus	1994	the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed
Yukl	1998	the process wherein an individual member of a group or organization influences the interpretation of events, the choice of objectives and strategies, the organization of work activities, the motivation of people to achieve the objectives, the maintenance cooperative relationships, the development of skills and confidence by members, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organization
Dubrin, Dalglisg and Miller	2006	the ability to instill confidence and support the subordinates who have to achieve the goals of the organizations

Throughout the history, as the definitons above indicate, researchers have taken different perspectives on leadership. These differences shaped leadership theories and how effective leaders are defined.

In the following section, leadership theories are summarized briefly, even though most of them are not conceptually relevant to this thesis. However, we believe that it is necessary to have an overview of the development of the concept of leadership throughout the years, since every theory contributed to the ones following it. Therefore, the theories of transactional and transformational leadership, which are the concepts of this thesis, are also influenced by the previous theories that are defined in the literature. Hence, it is important to cover them briefly before moving to the main leadership concepts of this thesis.

1.1.2. Summary of the History of Leadership

Interest in leadership extends far back into history of social thought. Its conceptions changed from the Hero concept to Common Man (Dion, 1968). Prior to the 1980's, the main approaches to leadership were the trait, behavioral and contingency approaches. After 1980's, contemporary leadership theories and styles emerged (i.e. charismatic, transformational, transactional, servant, visionary, authentic leadership).

According to the history of Leadership, the researches may be grouped as follows according to the years:

1920- 1950 trait theories of leadership were studied

1950- 1960 behavioral theories of leadership were studied

1960-1970 the impact of environmental conditions on leadership was studied

1970-1980 the symbolic traits of leaders were studied

1980- 1990 both behaviors and traits of leaders were studied again

1990- the change of leadership between cross cultures are studied

Early leadership theories, which are called *trait theories*, focus on the leader him/herself. They suggested that leaders were born with some psychological and physical characteristics that differentiated them from other people. This view started being criticized after a short while.

Tannenbaum and Massrick (1957) claimed that, after much empirical research, results did not find reliable evidence concerning the existence of universal leadership traits.

Mescon (1958) suggested that if trait theories were valid, then any individual possessing certain traits or qualities could function well in all situations regardless of problems, conflicts, and other distinguishing factors inherent in particular situations.

After reviewing 163 studies written between 1949 and 1970, Stogdill (1974) stated that contrary to what was believed, several universal personality traits and skills were indeed associated with leadership (i.e. vigor, persistence in the pursuit of goals, self confidence, tolerance for uncertainity and frustration) (Bass, 1990).

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) also claimed that certain traits and personality characteristics do indeed play a significant role in leadership (i.e. drive, desire to lead, honesty, integrity, self- confidence, cognitive ability, knowledge of the business). However, there was a difference between these "remerging" and early trait theories and it was the way in which trait approaches were treated. Traits were now considered along with other (behavioral and situational) factors affecting leadership.

After World War II, research emphasis shifted from personality traits to a search for behavior that makes a difference in the performance or satisfaction of followers. Contrary to trait theories, leadership was viewed as an observable, personal characteristic or trait. The theories developed at that time were called *behavioral theories* as they emphasized the leader's behavior. As Den Hartog and Koopman (2001) stated the focus shifted from whom leaders are to what leaders do.

Starting from 1945, Ohio State University researchers made studies analyzing leadership behavior in various organizations. The main point of these researches is the leadership behaviors directing the efforts of followers towards group objectives. The Ohio State University researchers found out two major factors in leadership behavior: "consideration" and "initiating structure". Consideration is the degree to which a leaders acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates and looks for their welfare (Yukl, 1989). The considerate leader expresses appreciation for good work, stresses the importance of job satisfaction, maintains and strengthens the self- esteem of subordinates by treating them as equals, makes special efforts to help subordinates, puts subordinates' suggestions into operation, and obtains subordinates' approval on important matters before going ahead (Bass, 1990). Initiating structure is the degree to which a leader defines and

structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals (Yukl, 1989). The initiation of structure includes such leadership behavior as insisting on maintaining standards and meeting deadlines and deciding in detail what will be done and how it should be done. Clear channels of communication and clear patterns of work organization are established. Orientation is toward the task, the leader acts directively without consulting the group (Bass, 1990). Consideration and Initiating Structure were not defined as mutually exclusive. Lowin et al. (1969) conducted research on 80 undergraduate men to find out whether consideration and initiating structure were mutually exclusive the results revealed that they were negatively correlated. The reason for the negative correlation might have been the subordinate competence and task simplicity and/or the presence of authority. Authority might have well forced some degree of emotional distance between the supervisor and subordinate, especially if actual initiating behavior exceeded the expectation of the subordinate. However, the evidence in the research did not give any significant and consistent result about which style was more effective, but in a study done by Osborn et al. (1974), consideration was found to be influencing performance, satisfaction and group atmosphere. Deluga (1988) found just the opposite in a research done on 48 employees at a school of higher education. In their study, there was a greater association of influencing behavior with the task- centered rather than people- centered dimension.

Begining in 1945's, researchers made studies on effective and ineffective leadership. According to these studies two leader behavior style were examined: employee oriented and production oriented. Leaders defined as employee- oriented, focused on the relationship dimensions of job. They had dealedwith each employee, thinking that every employee is important and has personal needs. Production- oriented leaders focused mostly on production and technical subjects, they had seen employees as tools for reaching company goals (Blanchard et al., 2001).

Some researchers proposed that effective leaders were bothpeople- and task- oriented, so called "high- high" leaders. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid, which was developed in 1982, was an example of such "high- high" theory. (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). Blake and Mouton summarized the way to reach effective leadership is integrating task- oriented and people- oriented behaviors. Managerial Grid is a three dimensioned matrix where on

vertical axis there is concern for people style and on horizontal axis there is concern for production style.

Katz and Kahn (1951) presented another conceptual scheme with four dimensions of leadership: differentiation of supervisory role, closeness of supervision, employee orientation, group relationships. Differentiation of supervisory role corresponded in part to what Ohio State Studies referred to as initiating structure and what University of Michigan Studies referred to as production orientation, whereas closeness of supervision also had something in common with consideration and employee- orientation, but also with initiating structure and production orientation. Employee orientation clearly corresponded to the earlier concept by the same name, while group relationships were to some extent similar to the interaction facilitation behavior and social sensitivity of the Ohio State Studies. Also Rossel (1996) defined two leadership styles that resembledproduction and human orientation. These were instrumental and expressive respectively.

Around the year 1960's, research based on behaviorist theories did not yield many significant results. This launched "situationist approaches (contingency theories)". The situationists did not necessarily give up searching for specific leadership characteristics and behaviors, but they attempted to look for them in situations containing common elements. They claimed that the effectiveness of a given leadership style was contingent on the situation. Fiedler was one of the most and influential scholars who had a big role in launching the contingency theories. Fiedler (1967) developed "Contingency Model of Leadership" and defined two leadership styles: "relationship" and "task- oriented" which were again similar to consideration and initiating structure respectively. Their effectiveness depended on the favorability of the situation that was defined by three contingencies: leader- member relations, task structure and position power. He suggested that in very favorable and very unfavorable situations, the task- oriented leader and in moderately favorable situations relationship- oriented leader would be effective. If the leader did not fit the situation, then the situation should have been changed by modifying these three contingencies. This theory did reveal that leadership depends on the situation. However, leadership was defined in terms of behaviors rather than traits, support for the model was at best weak and all measurement and assumptions made in the model were critized for lacking a theoretical basis (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

Another major situational theory called "Situational Leadership Theory (SLT)" was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977, cited in Robbins, 2005) and provided a popular basis for leadership training for many years. It basically claimed that leaders should attune their behaviors according to the maturity level of the employee. The maturity level of the employee was defined as their ability and willingness to function. Combining high and low task and relationship behavior, they defined four different leadership styles:

- *Telling:* High task, low relationship behavior.
- *Selling:* High task, high relationship behavior.
- *Participating:* High relationship, low task behavior.
- *Delegating:* Low relationship, low task behavior.

With the telling style, the leader uses one-way communication, defining the objectives and roles of employees and telling employees what, how, when and where to do the work. As employees learn their jobs, a leader can begin to use a selling leadership style. Leader must also provide a high level of emotional support in high relationship behavior to encourage the employees and demonstrate trust and confidence in them. As employees exhibit an increase in task relevant readiness as they become more experienced and skilled, the leader should reduce the amount of task behavior, but continue the high level of emotional support and consideration. Therefore, participating becomes the appropriate leadership style. The delegating style goses with the highest level of follower readiness. At this stage, employees are skilled and experienced, posess high level of achievement motivation, they no longer need or expect a high level of task behavior from the leader (Monday & Premeaux, 1995).

The most supported and influential contingency theory to date is probably House's "Pathgoal Theory of Leadership", developed in 1971 (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). The theory describes how the behavior of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates (Yukl, 1989). According to the theory, the duty of the leader is to clean the road for the employees and get rid of problems on the way leading to defined goals, so the employees could function more efficiently.

Around the 1980's, the face of the business world and in return, the concept of effective leadership changed. Conger & Kanungo (1994) stated "earlier distinctions between task-

oriented and people- oriented and some contingency approaches such as Fiedler's Contingency and Path- Goal Theories seemed inadequate to address certain organizational leadership issues of 1980's" (p.39). Due to rapid globalization in the world, it became a lot harder to lead large- scale companies and be successful in change efforts. This new environment demanded different characteristics and skills from so- called effective leaders. This need in the business world emerged "contemporary leadership theories" around 1980's. Researchers defined new leadership styles and models which would have been replaced nor explained by any other models such as the relations- oriented and task-oriented leadership models Bass, 1990). Two of these new leadership styles (transformational and transactional) are going to be explained in detail in the following sections as main constructs of this thesis.

1.1.3. Transformational and Transactional Leadership

1.1.3.1. Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leadership refers to "the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of the organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives, and strategies" (Yukl, 1989). The early theory about transformational leadership is developed by Burns (1978). Burns suggests that transformational leaders try to move up the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals and values such as liberty and equality. According to Burns (1978), anyone in the organization, whatever his/her position is, may exhibit transformational leadership (Yukl, 1989).

After Burn's (1978) Theory of Leadership, Bass (1985) described a more detailed theory for transformational leadership. According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders make the followers more aware of the importance and values of task outcomes, activate their higher order needs, and stimulate followers to act for the sake of the organization (Yukl, 1989). Transformational leadership also involves motivating the followers to perform beyond the minimum level of requirements for the organization by putting higher level goals and developing an appropriate work environment (Williams et. al, 1999; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Transformational leaders are seen as more satisfying and effective than transactional leaders by their colleagues and employees (Bass, 1990), since transactional

leaders generally disregard focusing on developing the long- term potential of the followers and meeting their needs (Lievens et. al, 1997). This fact is also supported by the results found in a broad variety of organizations. The meta- analysis of Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) revealed that individuals who exhibited transformational leadership were perceived to be more effective leaders with better work outcomes. Barling and her colleagues (1996) also suggest that transformational leadership goes beyond transactional leadership in promoting leaders and helping followers achieve higher levels of organizational functioning.

Researches on leadership are focused on how leaders create and strengthen the organizations during 1980's. Transformational leadership is created to be successful in reaching the goals of the organization, increasing the commitment to the organization and strengthen the process during these objectives of the organizations (Yukl, 1994).

Transformational leadership integrates ideas from trait, style and contingency approaches of leadership (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

In the light of findings throughout the years, some characteristics of transformational leaders can be stated as follows:

- They change the core values of followers for the benefit of the common interest by committing people and seeing them as ends not as means,
- They inspire followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the organization with their vision (Avolio and Bass, 2004),
- They are proactive, raise follower awareness for transcendent collective interests and motivate followers to achieve out of range goals (Antonakis et al., 2003),
- They are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on people by causing shifts in the beliefs, the needs, and the values of followers, so followers can become leaders themselves (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987),
- They heighten the awareness of followers with vision they create and the strategies for reaching them (Avolio and Bass, 2004),
- They create self-confidence in followers by empowering them,

- They tend to direct specific activities as much as to alter moods, to evoke symbolic images and expectations, and to inspire desires and objectives (Egri and Herman, 2000),
- They create fresh approaches to long-standing problems,
- They transform the organization by defining the need for change, creating new visions, mobilizing commitment to these visions and by providing awareness of the organizational vision and goals (Den Hartog et al., 1997),
- They develop higher level needs for followers such as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work and not work related (Avolio and Bass, 2004),

Bass (1985) defines the factors of transformational leadership as charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Williams et. al, 1999; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Bass and Avolio's (1994) conceptualization of transformational leadership is also comprised of the same components (Walumbwa et. al, 2005). According to the studies of Bass and his colleagues, they defined that inspirational motivation and charisma dimensions have the same meanings so that they started use inspirational motivation instead of charisma.

Podsakoff and his colleagues (1990) also suggested that transformational leadership has a multidimensional framework. Their review suggests that there are six key dimensions of transformational leadership. These dimensions are articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and intellectual stimulation.

Hinkin and Tracey (1999) revised Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and defined the factors of transformational leadership as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration.

Although there are different theories about the dimensionality of transformational leadership, there is not a consensus about it.

1.1.3.2. Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

The original formulation of the theory (Bass, 1985) includes three types of transformational behavior: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. A revision of the theory added another transformational behavior called inspirational motivation (Yukl, 1998). The dimensions of transformational leadership, which are below, will be covered in this thesis.

- Idealized Influence
- Inspirational Motivation
- Individualized Consideration
- Intellectual Stimulation

1.1.3.2.1.Idealized Influence

This dimension refers to having an influence on the followers in an idealized way (Avolio & Bass, 2004), as such; they are admired, trusted and respected by their followers. Followers idealize their leaders in such a way that they want to identify themselves with their leaders. In order to create these positive feelings and maintain respect, admiration and trust- based relations, leaders on the other hand consider the followers' needs over their personal needs. Idealized influence refers to whether or not the leader is seen as charismatic, powerful and confident, and if the followers would like to be associated with him/her. It is the attribution that followers give to their leaders. Idealized influence is referred as "charisma" in previous studies (e.g. Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Likewise, in its' inital conceptualization in 1985, charisma emerged as one of the dimensions in the model. Idealized influence refers to the charmatic actions of the leader that focuses on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis et. al, 2003). These charismatic actions include talking about his/her most important values and beliefs, emphasizing the collective mission and purpose, as well as considering the ethical implications of his/her decisions.

1.1.3.2.2. Inspirational Motivation

Den Hartog et al., (1997) define inspiration as the capacity of a leader to act as a model for subordinates. Inspirational motivation refers to the ways leaders take to inspire the followers to achieve both personal and organizational goals. The leader might do that by looking at the future optimistically and enthusiastically, by providing a relizable and acceptable vision with clear communication, and by representing followers ways to reach them. In return, leaders create meaning, challenge and motivation in their followers' work (Avolio & Bass, 1994).

The leader creates a clear picture of the future, states that it is both optimistic and attainable, encourages others to raise their expectations, reduces complexity to key issues and uses simple language to convey the mission. The reaction of the followers are increased willingness to exert extra effort so as to try to achieve the mission (Stackleton, 1995). The leader clearly communicates about expectations that followers want to meet and demonstrates commitment to goals and the shared vision (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

1.1.3.2.3. Inspirational Stimulation

Transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches and their ideas are not criticized if they differ from the leaders' ideas (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Dionne et. al, (2004) suggest that this component refers to promoting intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving in followers, challenging followers to think creatively and to find solutions to difficult problems. Den Hartog et. al, (1997) claim that intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question their own values, assumptions and beliefs and even those of their leaders. Inquisitive followers will not be subject to public critisims because of their mistakes. The leader welcomes the new ideas and solutions by the followers. S/he stimulates followers to think about new ways for old

problems. In this way, followers will be able to see and solve the unforeseen problems by the leader (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

1.1.3.2.4. Individualized Consideration

Individualized Consideration refers to treating followers as individuals and not just members of a group (Dionne et. al, 2004). Leader will satisfy the follower by advising, supporting, and paying attention to their individual needs and motivate them to develop themselves. The goal of the leader here is not only about recognizing and satisfying the needs of the followers, but also to mentor and coach them to reach their full potential. To reach this goal, leaders also make sure that they redefine the organizational climate to a supportive one that promotes new learning opportunities for followers.

Transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual's for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher level of potential. Individualized consideration is practiced as follows: new learning opportunites are created along with a supportive climate. Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized. A two way exchange in communication is encouraged and "management by walking around" or "management by wandering around (MBWA)" is practiced. Interactions with followers are personalized. The individually considerate leader listens effectively. The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress. Ideally followers do not feel that they are being checked up on (Avoli & Bass, 2001, p.3).

1.1.3.3. Transactional Leadership

Transactional Leadership is a matter of contingent reinforcement of employees based on performances. It movivates subordinates by appealing to their personal desires, based on instrumental economic transactions. Transactional leaders generally use organizational bureaucracy, policy, power, and authority to maintain control; this style of leadership is occasionally referred to as authoritative (Bennet, 2009).

Goodwin et. al, (2001) define transactional leaders as "those who focus on the motivation of followers through rewards or discipline, clarifying for their followers the kinds of

rewards that should be expected for various behaviors" (p.759). So, it can be seen as an exchange process of implicit bargaining (Den Hartog et. al, 1997) between the leader and the follower, which is based on their contractual obligations (Antonakis et. al, 2003). So, followers are motivated and corrected by the leaders' transactional actions. Because of these transactional relationships, some of the theories explained in the previous section can be considered as transactional theories (i.e. path- goal theory, initiating structure). Egri et. al (2000) define the main concern of transactional leaders as being that of, the accomplishment of the subordinates' task performance in terms of meeting organizational goals and objectives. Leaders gain the commitment of employees through giving them contingent rewards. Therefore, Kuhnhert & Lewis (1987) suggest that effective transactional leaders must regularly fulfill the expectations of their followers.

There is a temporary process for transactional leadership. Once a transaction is complete, the relationship between the leader and subordinates can end or be redefined for the next transaction (Lussier & Achua, 2001). Therefore, the nature of this kind of leadership style is based on short term relationship between leader and follower.

Bass (1990) defines the transactional leaders' relation with followers as including three stages. First, he describes that what followers want and what their expectations are from their work. Then, he ensures that followers or subordinates will get what they want unless their performance is not bad. Second, rewards and promises will be exchanged for follower's attempt. Last, leader will satisfy the subordinate's self interests if they will be met through completing the job.

Transactional leaders stress the standards, assignments, work principles, and determining the goals. They follow a cost- benefit and economic exchange in order to satisfy subordinate's needs in exchange for services rendered by subordinates. The important thing for a transactional leader is that how to improve the performance and reach the organizational goals and how to substitute one goal for another and how to prevent reluctance for actions and how to implement desicions (Bass, 1990).

1.1.3.4. Dimensions of Transactional Leadership

There are two main key characteristics of transactional leaders: contingent rewards and management by exception (active & passive). These two characteristics of transactional

leadership differ with respect to the leader's activity level and the nature of interaction with followers (Howell & Avolio, 1993). The dimensions of transactional leadership, which are below, will be covered in this thesis.

- Contingent reward
- Management by exception (passive)
- Management by exception (active)
- Laissez- Faire Leadership

1.1.3.4.1. Contingent Reward

Contingent reward is exchanging valued (verbal or tangible) rewards for good performance. This is the process of exchange between leaders and followers. It refers to the situations where efforts are substituted for rewards. The leader identifies what needs to be done and what the payoff for subordinates will be if objectives are satisfied.

Leaders give contingent rewards to provide followers with material and psychological rewards based on the contractual obligations, the effort spent and the performance level achieved. Den Hartog et al. (1997) define it as rewarding employees for attaining the specified performance levels. Transactional leaders clarify the expectations and provide recognition when the goals are reached.

1.1.3.4.2. Management by Exception (Passive)

Leaders engaging in this behavior take action when things go wrong and standards are not met. So, leaders take action only after irregularities or deviations have occured. They do not have a systematic approach to problems or unexpected situations. They do not clarify the expectations, what needs to be achieved and what the standards are. Such an avoidant type of leadership style has a negative effect on the attitudes and behaviors of the followers. It in fact implies "no leadership" (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Therefore it is quite similar to laissez- faire type of leadership. Hence, it can be considered as one of the passive /avoidant leadership style along with the laisses- faire style. Indeed, the study of Den Hartog et al. (1997) found laissez- faire leadership and passive management by exception as a seperate and one factor instead of sub- dimensions of transactional leadership.

1.1.3.4.3. Management by Exception (Active)

Leaders exhibiting such behavior clarify the standards that need to be met. They actively seek deviations from these standard procedures (Den Hartog et al., 1997). They may punish followers who do not comply with the standards. The difference of this dimension from the passive dimension is the fact that here, leaders act before the irregularities and deviations happen.

1.1.3.4.4. Laissez- Faire Leadership

Both transformational and transactional leaders are active leaders. They actively intervene and try to prevent problems. When researching these two active forms of leadership, they are often contrasted with extremely passive laissez- faire leadership. The laissez- faire leader avoids decision making and supervisory responsibility. This type of leader is inactive, rather than reactive or proactive. In a sense this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership.

There is a negative association between laissez- faire leadership and a variety of subordinate performance, and effort indicators, which implies that laissez- faire leadership is an inappropriate way to lead. By laissez- faire it is meant that the leader is not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties, this observation seems correct. However, there are situations in which highly active leadership is not necessary or not even desirable. A less active role of leaders could also lead to empowerment of followers which could even make for a useful component of transformational leadership (Yurtkoru, 2001).

1.1.3.5. Difference Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978), who deals with a theory that points out the difference between transactional and transformational leadership, defines that transactional leaders motivate followers to perform their jobs while moreover transformational leaders insist on satisfying the needs of their followers. Burns enounces that transactional political leaders are able to be bureaucrats, party leaders and executive leaders, while transformational leaders are able to be intellectual leaders, heros or the leaders who reforms and revolutionizes. Burns (1978)

also suggests that transactional and transformational leadership are the two opposite ends of a whole.

Also Bass (1999), suggests that transformational leadership is a fact which increases the effects of transactional leadership (Bass, 1993).

Transformational leadership refers to be visionary just as transactional leadership. Also, transformational leadership leades to communication, trust, concern, creativity and focusing on followers (Tarabishy et al., 1990).

The most significant point that seperates transformational leader from transactional leader is that transactional leader focuses on economy. That means transactional leader is sensitive on who will perform better which job (Rosenberg et al., 1996). On the other hand, transformational leadership is the ability of understanding follower's needs, desires and what motivates them and also it is the ability of satisfying followers and so, benefit full capacity from the employees (Bennis, 1980; Conger, 1989; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Sashkin& Sashkin, 1990). In other words, the point that seperates transformational and transactional leadership from each other is based on the relationship type between leader and follower (Sipahi et al, 2002).

Transactional leadership expresses mutual exchange between leader and follower to meet their expectations. However, transactional leadership directs to the areas like success and self- performance (Bass, 1980).

The research of Judge and Piccolo (2004), which is about the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership, mentions that is difficult to reveal the effect of each one because of the high relationship between these leadership styles. In transactional leadership, leaders and followers enter the interaction to be able to satisfy their needs mutually. However, in transformational leadership, leaders and followers enter the interaction to create a more creative environment for the benefit of all organization. It's mentioned that to define this difference clearly transformational leadership is preffered more (Bogler, 1990).

The difference between transactional and transformational leadership styles is described on the below figure. Transactional leader is a leader, who controls and affects the affectible environment of the organization. For example, the students in the class is an affectible environment for a teacher. Transformational leader is a leader, who controls and affects the whole environment of the organization. For example, if a teacher affects his/her students and reaches a larger community, it means s/he reaches the unaffectible environment (Huber, 2000).

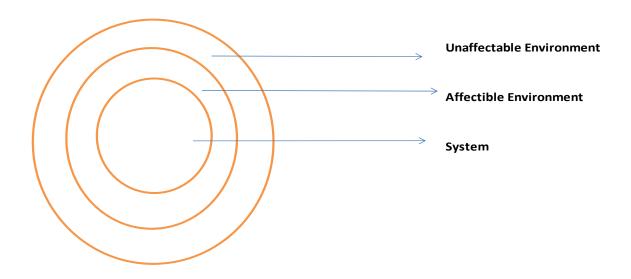


Figure 1:Impact Areas of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Source: Huber, D. (2000), **Leadership and Nursing Care Management**, Second Edition, W. B. Sounders Company, London.

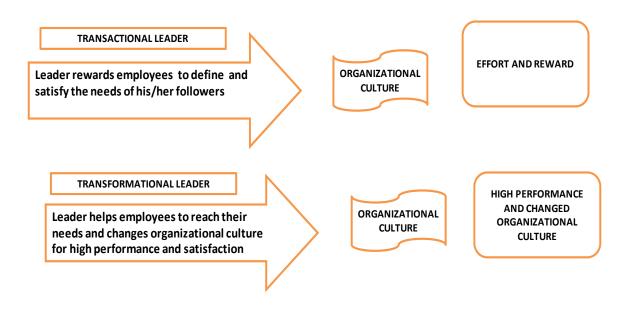


Figure 2: The Difference Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Source: Huber, D. (2000), Leadership and Nursing Care Management, Second Edition, W. B. Sounders Company, London.

Transformational leaders may use their transactional leadership strategies when needed; but they choose to motivate their followers to deal with the job. Transformational leaders determine new strategy and vision when solving a problem by the help of empowerment (Lowe and Galen, 1996, 388). Transformational leaders try to change organizational culture, followers' norms, targets and ideals. They try to exceed the expectations of their followers. However, transactional leader tries to reach current targets (Ross and Offerman, 1997).

According to Akbaba- Altun (2003), the biggest difference between transformational and transactional leadership is how they define the goal and reward relationship. Transactional leaders provide rewards for followers for reaching their organizational goals, whereas, transformational leaders intellectually stimulate followers by showing them the importance of these goals; by doing so, leaders also make followers feel intrinsically rewarded by reaching the goal. However, the two are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Bass (1995), claims that both leadership styles can be observed in a leader. In fact, he claims if transformational leadership is based on transactional leadership, the effect of the

latter will be higher. Parallel to this view, Bass and Steidlmeier (2007) also affirm that transactional and transformational leadership are interrelated and the best of leadership emerges when they are used together.

1.2.Organizational Commitment

1.2.1. Historical Overview of Organizational Commitment

This chapter defines the conceptualisation of Organizational Commitment to be used in this study by exploring the evoluation of the conceptualisation of commitment over the past quarter century. Meyer & Allen's (1991) multi-dimensional approach to Organizational Commitment will be discussed in detail as it is one of the constructs of this study.

Organizational commiment represents the attachment that individuals from to their employing organizations (Ketchand & Strawser, 2001). There are several different ways of defining and measuring organizational commitment. Organizational research dates back to 1950s. Organizational theorists including Becker (1960), Etzioni (1965) and Kanter (1968) produced seminal research on the concept of organizational commitment. These studies all suggested that organizational commitment is a large multivarite construct. Although it may elude precise definition, organizational commitment has been shown to be important improving organizational effectiveness and retention.

More recently, organizational commitment has been studied with respect to other concepts such as careers, organizations, norms, identification, morals, work, job involvement, security "side- bets", affect, psychological ownership, and so worth (Pierce & Geyer, 1991; Porter et al, 1974; Powell & Meyer, 2004; Liou & Cheng, 2008; Wagner, 2007).

1.2.2. Summary of the History of Organizational Commitment

Becker (1960) who is one of the early researchers studying organizational commitment, has defined organizational commitment as the commitment which comes into being when an individual links interests with a consistent line of activity by making side bet. Individuals make side bets in anticipation of payoffs from organizations, payoffs which will satisfy their needs if they maintain relationships, but payoffs which will be foregone along with the side bets if relationships are discontinued, or in other words, consistent

attitude one develops taking the factors such as tenure, pension plans and status into consideration. The term "consistent attitude" means continuing as a member of the organization. It also involves losing some rights in case of quiting the organization and therefore also means the cost of quiting (Becker, 1960, pp. 32-42; Meyer and Allen, 1984, pp. 373).

Etzioni (1965) suggested that there are three types of organizational commitment: moral, calculative, and alienative. These three coincide with an employee's response to organizational power and describe an individual's attachment to an organization. Moral commitment is seen as a positive orientation in which an employee exhibits value- based affirmation. Calculative commitment is often viewed in negative terms based on the employee's assessment that the cost of leaving outweigh those of staying. Alienative commitment takes the form of employee commitment based on perceived force and lack of control or options, as for example a prison experiene.

Kanter (1968)has defined organizational commitment as, "commitment may be defined as the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fullfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person" (Kanter, 1965, p. 500) Kanter proposed three forms of commitment: Continuance, Cohesion and Control. According to Kanter, continuance commitment is the commitment of actors to participate in or remain members of a social system. Cohesion commitment is the commitment to the group or social relationships. Positive affect toward other members and mutual enjoyment of the relaionship reinforces the commitment to stick together. Control commitment is the commitment to uphold norms and obey the authority of the group results from positive evaluative orientations. (Kanter, 1968, p: 501). High levels of value congruence between the individual and the social system should be associated with high levels of control commitment.

Buchanan (1974) defines organizational commitment as the strong commitment one has to the objectives and values of the organization and commitment to his/her role for the sake of organization as well as its functional value. According to this definition, organizational commitment has three elements, which are identification, involvement and loyalty. Identification means that the employee has adopted the values and objectives. Involvement

is the psychological commitment one has to the activities his/her role requires. Loyalty involves developing emotional feelings towards the organization and having affective commitment to the organization (Buchanan, 1974, pp. 533- 546). Rather different from Becker's (1960), Buchanan's definition (1974) involves emotional elements. While Becker considers organizatinal commitment as the cost of quiting, Buchanan considers organizational commitment as the devoting himself/herself in order for the organization to achieve its goals and having an affective commitment to the organization.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) have divided organizational commitment into two parts as Behavioral and Attitudinal Commitment. Behavioral Commitment is an approach based on a distinction made between behaviors and attitudes. Salancik and Staw (1977) stated that behavior is the basis for the commitment. According to them, commitment is a behavior and results mainly from the constraints on a employee's ability to leave the organization and from the choices binding the employee to the organization. The behavioral approach does not view commitment as an attachment from shared values and goals of the employee and the organization. Attitudinal approach, on the other hand, views commitment as a process by which an individual comes to desire organizational membership and to identify with the goals and values of the organization.

An alternative view, which will be covered in this study, is presented by *Meyer and Allen* (1991), who defined three components of organizational commitment,

Three Component Model:

- I. Affective commitment (refers to the definition of Porter et ai., 1974)
- II. Continuance commitment (refers to definition of Becker, 1960)
- III. Normative Commitment (refers to an obligation to remain in the organization)

These three components of commitment are alternatively described as the product of (i) emotinal attachments (affective commitment), (ii) the costs of leaving, such as losing attractive benefits or seniority (continuance commitment); and (iii) the individual personal values (normative commitment). (Brief, 1998, p. 38)

According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) view, commitment as an emotinal attachment and identification with and involvement in the organization is called *affective commitment*;

commitment as an attachment based on the cost of leaving the organization is called *continuance commitment*, and a feeling of obligation to stay in the organization is called *normative commitment*.

Affective commitment refers to feelings of belonging and sense of attachment to the organization and it has been related to personal characteristics, organizational structures, and work experiences, for example; pay, supervision, role clarity and skill variety. (Hartmann, 2000, p. 90)

Affective commitment is based more on perceptions of similar values and goals, and it occurs when an individual identifies with and is involved in a particular organization. It is the degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organization through feelings such as loyalty, affection, belongingness and it describes the employees' emotinal bond or attachment to an organization (Jaros, Jermier, Koehier and Sincich, 1993, p. 952)

Employees whose experiences within the organization are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organization than those whose experiences are less satisfying. Affective commitment reflects both strong and broadly based ties to various facets of the organization, and its goals and values (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982, p. 465). Affectively committed employees remain with the organization "for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth." (Buchanan, 1974, p. 534)

Continuance commitment reflects a relationship that is largely based on an exchange between the employee and the organization; members develop commitment to the organization. Because they see it as benefical regarding costs and rewards (Randall and O'Driscoll, 1997, p. 607). Employees whose commitment is continuance stay because they need to; they feel they have no other choice. Continuance commitment presumably develops as employees recognize that they have accumulated investments or side- bets that could be lost if they were to leave the organization or as they recognize that the availability of comparable alternatives is limited (Meyer and Allen, 1993, p. 62). This approach is developed from Becker's (1960) side- bet theory, in which individuals engage in consistent lines of activity because they recognize the costs associated with discontinuing the activity.

Continuance commitment relates to perceived costs of leaving, both financial and non-financial and perceived lack of alternatives (Hrebiniak and Aluto, 1972, p. 564). In the past organizations have developed arrangements such as promotion based on tenure, accured pensions and sick leave, which penalize those who leave the organization prematurely. Other potential costs of leaving include less effort if skills or systems are non-transferable, disruption associated with changes in family arrangements, and loss of valued future opportunities. Perceptions of few alternatives may create a negative effect on commitment of those who are dissatisfied with their present work situation and a positive affect for those who are satisfied. (Hartmann, 2000, pp. 89-90)

Normative commitment refers to an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Thus, employees with strong normative commitment will remain with the organization by virtue of their belief that is the "right and moral thing to do". According to Meyer & Allen (1991) normative commitment refers to a perceived obligation to remain with the organization. These individuals stay with the organization because they feel they should. Normative commitment develops as a result of socialization experiences that emphasize the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer (Wiener, 1982, p. 420) or through the receipt of benefits (e.g. tuition payments and skill training) that create within the employee a sense of obligation to reicprocate. (Scholl, 1981, p. 590)

It has also been suggested that normative commitment develops on the basis of a particular kind of investment that the organization makes in the employee- specifically, investment that seem difficult for employees and reciprocate. (Meyer and Allen, 1993, p. 62)

Meyer & Allen (1997) et al. stated that normative commitment might also develop on the basis of the "psychological contract" between an employee and the organization. Psychological contacts consist of the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligation. Unlike more formal contracts, psychological contracts are subjective and therefore, might be viewed some what differently by the two parties. Psychological contracts are also subject to change over time as one or both parties perceive obligations to have been fulfilled or violated. (Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994, p. 138). Thus, for example, it might be that an employee who initially responds to an organizational investment with feelings of indebtedness will later

reevaluate these feelings if it is determined that the organization has violated some other aspects of the psychological contract.

1.2.3. Development of Organizational Commitment

The value of organizational commitment is enhanced when relationships with desired outcomes are identified and when antecedent variables are identified. In this way, organizations can target specific variables that lead to optimal commitment. Thus, various researchers of organizational commitment have tried to determine what it is about the organization and the employee's experiences that influence the development of the organizational commitment. Mowday and his colleagues (1979) have grouped factors that may lead to greater organizational commitment into three major groups. According to them, commitment depends on personal factors, organizational factors, and non-organizational factors.

1.2.3.1. Antecedent Variables Associated with Affective Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) suggested that these variables associated with affective commitment can all be categorized into three major categories: personal characteristics, organizational characteristics and work experiences.

Personal characteristics- An analysis of the organizational commitment literature reveals a long list of demographic factors that have been associated with commitment. The relationship between demographic variables and affective commitment are neither strong nor consistent (Meyer & Allen, 1997). People's perception of their own competence might play a significant role in the development of affective commitment. From the several personal characteristics, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have determined that perceived competence and affective commitment has a strong link. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) cited that employees who have a strong confidence in their abilities and achievement have higher affective commitment. They argued that competent people are able to choose higher quality organizations, which in turn inspire affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Variables associated with commitment that may be significant for those employed in higher quality organizations generally include personal characteristics such as age, tenure, gender, family, marital status, and educational level, need for achievement, sense of competence, and a sense of professionalism (Thornhill, Lewis & Saunders, 1996).

• *Employee age:* Employee age has been regarded as a positive predictor of commitment for a variety of reasons. Kaldneberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995), argue that as workers get old, alternative employment options generally decrease, making their current job more attractive. They pointed out that older individuals may have more affective commitment to the organization because they have greater history with the organization than younger workers.

Mathiue and Zajac's (1990) meta- analytic study, involving 41 samples and 10 335 subjects, has shown a statistically significant positive correlation of 0.20 (p < 0.01) between age and affective organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1996) also studied the relationship between age and affective commitment. In a study of university librarians and hospital employees, they obtained a statistically significant positive mean correlation of 0.36 (p > 0.05) between age and affective commitment.

According to the study of Aydoğdu (2009), which was conducted to 182 employees from production and service- provider sector in İstanbul, as the employees get older, the level of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) increases.

Older researchers have not been able to show a significant link between age and organizational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of affective commitment levels of 396 high school principals found a statistically non-significant correlation (r = 0.004) between age and affective organizational commitment. Colbert and Kwon (2000), in a study of 497 college and university internal auditors failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment. Overall, age seem to have an inconsistent although moderate correlation with affective commitment.

• *Gender:* As far as gender is concerned, the results are inconsistent. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), in a meta analytic study of 14 studies with 7420 subjects involving gender and organizational commitment obtained a mean correlation of 0.089 for organizational commitment and gender. Although they report a weak relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment, they suggest that gender may affect employee's perceptions of their workplace and attitudes towards the organization.

According to the study of Aydoğdu (2009), which was conducted to 182 employees from production and service- provider sector in İstanbul, there was only one significant relationship between gender and organizational commitment. There was a significant difference between personnel's gender and normative commitment. It could be said that the normative commitment of women was more than the men.

Kaldberg and his colleagues (1995), found no significant differences in the work attitudes and commitment of males and females. In addition, Hawkins (1998) found no significant difference between the mean level of commitment for female and male high school principals. Wahn (1998) on the other hand argues that women can exhibit higher levels of continuance commitment than men can. She cites reasons such as the fact that women face greater barriers than men when seeking employment as possible explanations to the high continuance commitment of women. She argues that having overcome these barriers, women would be more committed to continue the employment relationship.

Although the literature quoted here is not exhaustive on the subject of the effect of gender on organizational commitment, it seems as if gender makes no difference on organizational commitment levels. Ngo and Tsang (1998) support the viewpoint that the effects of gender on commitment are very subtle.

• Organizational Tenure: Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reviewed 38 samples that included 12290 subjects and found a positive link between organizational tenure and affective commitment. They report an overall weighted mean correlation of r = 0.17 (p > 0.01). Kushman (1992) in his study on urban elemantary and middle school teachers also found a positive correlation (r = 0.17, p > 0.05) between the number of years in teaching and organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1993) indicated that an analysis of organizational tenure showed a mild curvilinear relationship with organizational commitment. They showed that middle tenure employees exhibited less measured commitment than new or senior employees did. These findings are supported by Liou and Nyhan (1994) who found a negative relationship between tenure and affective commitment (t = -3.482). However; these two authors did not find significant correlations between continuance commitment and employee tenure.

According to the study of Aydoğdu (2009), which was conducted to 182 employees from production and service- provider sector in İstanbu, there was a significant relationship between affective commitment and tenure; normative commitment and tenure

Although the relationship between gender, age, and tenure as well as educational level and organizational commitment has been extensively studied, the literature has yet to provide strong and consistent evidence to enable an unequivocal interpretation of the relationship (Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, they caution that one cannot assume that growing older makes one develop higher affective commitment. They argue that the positive association might simply be because of differences in the particular generational cohorts that were studied. On the other hand, older employees might have more positive work experiences than younger employees. Overall, empirical evidence suggests that age and affective commitment are significantly related.

Organizational Characteristics – Meyer and Allen (1991) suggest that affective commitment develops as a result of experiences that satisfy employees' need to feel physically and psychologically comfortable in the organization. These experiences include those that lead to a perception of support from the organization. Employees who perceive a high level of support from the organization are more likely to feel an obligation to repay the organization in terms of affective commitment. Organizational characteristics such as structure, culture and organizational level policies can induce perceptions of organizational support to induce organizational commitment.

Work Experience – According to Meyer and Allen (1997), work experience variables have the strongest and most consistent correlation with affective commitment in most studies. In Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta- analytic study, affective commitment has shown a positive correlation with the job scope, a composite of three variables, namely job challenge, degree of authonomy, and variety of skills used. Affective commitment to the organization is stronger among employees whose leaders allow them to participate in decision making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981) and those who treat them with consideration (DeCottis & Summer, 1987).

On the basis of the antecedents research on affective commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggests that a possible universal appeal for those work environments where employees are supported, treated fairly and made to feel that they make contributions to the organization. Such experiences might fulfil higher order desires to enhance perceptions of self worth.

1.2.3.2. Antecedent Variables Associated with Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment can develop because of any action or event that increases the cost of leaving the organization, provided the employee recognises that these costs have been incured (Meyer and Allen, 1991). They summarize these actions and events in terms of two sets of antecedent variables: investments and employment alternatives.

Investments – In terms of organizational commitment, investments refer to any actions that would result in considerable potential loss, should be the individual decide to leave the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Once employees realise that moving to a new organizationwould result in the forfeiture of benefits, they might decide to stay within the current organization rather than loose the investment. Such employees develop continuance commitment as they stay with the organization as a calculated desicion rather than an eagerness to do so.

Investments can take any form and may be either work or non- work related. Work related investments include such things as the time spent acquiring non- transferable skills, the potential loss of benefits and giving up a senior position and its associated rewards (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Non- work related investments might include the disruption of personal relationships and the expense and human cost of relocating a family to another city. Investments can also take the form of time devoted to a particular career track or development of work groups or even friendship networks (Romzek, 1990). Leaving the organization could mean that the employee would stand to loose or would have wasted time, money or effort that was invested. These investments are assumed to increase in numberand magnitude over time. Thus, age and tenure are associated with the accumulation of investements.

Romzek (1990), suggests that organizations can easily get employees to feel that they have made big investments in the organization. He reckons that organizations have only to offer opportunities and working conditions that are competitive with other prospective

employers. Typically, investment factors include promotion prospects, development of work group networks, performance bonuses, the accrual of vacation and sick leave, family-friendly policies and retirement benefits. If these cannot be easily matched by prospective employers, the organization's employees might remain "stuck" in the organization even though they are no longer effective.

Effective Alternatives – The other hypothesised antecedent of continuance commitment is the availability of employment alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that an employee's perception of the availability of alternatives will be negatively correlated with continuance commitment.

1.2.3.3. Antecedent Variables Associated with Normative Commitment

Compared to affective and continuance commitment, very few factors have been described as variables associated with normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), normative commitment might develop based on psychological contract between an employee and the organization. A psychological contract refers to the beliefs of the parties involved in an exchange relationship regarding their reciprocal obligations. Although psychological contracts can take different forms, Allen and Meyer (1990) suggest that the transactional andd relational contracts might be closely related to continuance commitment. They describe transactional contracts as more objective and based on principles of economic exchange while relational contracts are more abstract and based on principles of social exchange. Furthermore, they consider relational contracts more relevant to normative commitment while transactional contracts might be involved in the development of continuance commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) also refer to the possible role that early socialisation experinces might have in the development of normative commitment. They suggest that socialisation can carry with it all sort of messages about the appropriateness of particular attitudes and behaviours within the organization. Amongst these attitudes could be the idea that employees owe it to the organization to continue employment. Meyer and Allen (1997) assume internalisation to be the process involved in the development of normative commitment during the early days of assuming employment with an organization. They

reason that through a complex process involving both conditioning and modelling of others, individuals can develop normative commitment.

1.3. Empowerment

1.3.1. The concept of Empowerment

Many studies of the concept of empowerment and just as many definitions of the term exist in the literature. No consensus occurs in defining the concept. Although empowering practices are very common in work environments, academic research on the meaning and result of this concept has not kept pace.

An investigation of the literature on empowerment reveals one point that could faciliate an acceptable definition of this concept. Most studies recognize that theory and practice utilize two different approaches to treat empowerment. The first is more macro and focuses on the social- structural (or contextual) conditions that enable empowerment in the workplace. The second is more micro in orientation and focuses on the psychological experience of empowerment at work. The two perspectives can be distinguished by a focus on between empowering structures, policies and practices and a focus on perceptions of empowerment. Each perspective plays an important role in the development of a theory of empowerment and is described in the sections below.

1.3.1.1. Social- Structural Empowerment

The social- structural perspective on empowerment is rooted in the theories of social exchange and social power. The classic study in the development of social- structural theoryof empowerment was Kanter's (1977) "Men and Women of the Corporation", an award winging ethnographic study of an industrial organization conducted at a time when more women were entering work organizations. She showed how women were often "tokens" as a function of their small numbers and as a result their successful advancement was impeded as they lacked access to "power tools"- defines as opportunity, information, support and resources. Kanter's original research has now served as the foundation of the large body of empowerment research from a social- structural perspective described below.

The social- structural perspective is embedded in the values and ideas of democracywhere power ideally resides within individuals at all levels of a system (Prasad, 2001; Prasad & Eylon, 2001). Those who adopt social- structural perspective define empowerment as the managerial activities and practices that give employees the right to use and control the resources of the organization (Niehoff et al., 2001). Employees at low levels of the organizational hierarchy can be empowered if they have access to opportunity, information, support and resources.

The essence of the social- structural perspective on empowerment is the idea of sharing power between superiors and subordinates with the goal of cascanding relevant decision-making power to lower levels of the organizational hierarchy (Liden & Arad, 1996). Empowerment from the social- structural perspective is about sharing power (i.e., formal authority or control over organizational resources; Conger & Kanungo, 1988)through the delegation of responsibility throughout the organizational chain of command. In this perspective, power means having formal authority or control over organizational resources and the ability to make desicions relevant to a person's job or role (Lawler, 1986).

Chebat and Kollias (2000) compare empowering practices to Old Italien comedies. The common characteristic of these plays is that there is no written text, only a general idea related to characters, plan and scene. Some writers on empowerment think that for managerial behvaior to empower employees managers should provide a positive emotional atmosphere, reward and encourage in visible and personal ways, express confidence, foster initiative and responsibility, and build on success (Conger, 1989).

In the social- structural perspective, the advantages of empowerment include increasing the problem solving capacity at the employee level, helping employees to realize their full potential (Klagge, 1988), sharing ideas regarding the organization's performance, presenting information that will affect organizational performance and direction, and giving employees the power to make decisions (Bowen and Lawler, 1992). However, while this perspective has garned much attention from practitioners because it links specific management practices to performance, it is limited because it provides an organizationally- centric perspective on empowerment. It does not address the nature of empowerment as experienced by employees. This is important because in some situations, all of Kanter's empowerment tools (power, knowledge, information and rewards) have been provided to employees, yet they still feel disempowered. And in other situations, individuals lack all the objective features of an empowering work environment yet still feel

and act in empowered ways (Spreitzer, 2007). This limitation helped to spur the emergence of the psychological perspective on empowerment which is described in the next section.

1.3.1.2. Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment refers to a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of control in relation in their work. Rather than focusing on managerial practices that sharepower with employees at all levels, the psychological perspective is focused on how employees experience their work. This perspective refers to empowerment as the personal beliefs that employees have about their role in relation to the organization (Spreitzer, 2007).

The paper that motivated researchers to think differently about empowerment was a conceptual piece by Conger and Kanungo (1988). They investigated the answers of questions such as "Are subordinates automatically empowered when authority and resources are shared?" and "Do empowerment techniques only consist of participation in and sharing of organizational resources?". They shifted the concept of empowerment from managerial practices component to subordinates' perception level. The argued that a social- structural perspective was incomplete because the empowering managerial practices discussed above would have little effect on employees if they lacked a sense of self-efficacy. To them, empowerment was a "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification (and removal) of conditions that foster powerlessness (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p. 484).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) extended Conger and Kanungo's ideas with the development of a theoretical framework articulating empowerment as intrinsic task motivation manifest in four cognitions that reflect their orientation to work. Rather than a dispositional trait, Thomas and Velthouse defined empowerment as a set of cognitions or states influenced by the work environment that helps create an active- orientation to one's job (Spreitzer, 2007). The four psychological states of Thomas and Velthouse was: meaningfulness, competence, choice and impact. The first component *meaningfulness*, relates to the value of the task, involving intrinsic caring about a given task. The employees' perceptions of how meaningful their tasks are, affect their feelings of empowerment (1990:672). *Competence*, the second component, refers to the belief that

George (2003:4) assert that this component was the strongest control mechanism for empowerment, which only works when employees want to be competent. The third component, *choice*, is the degree or regulating task actions. The last component, *impact*, is the degree to which employees perceive their behaviors as "making difference" in terms of accomplishing the task. In other words, the "employee feels that the work has impact beyond the immediate job" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 672-3).

Building on Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) model, Spreitzer (1992, 1995) defined psychological empowerment as a motivational construct manifested through four cognitions:

- Meaning, was defined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990, p. 668) as "the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards".
 It refers to the fit between the task requirements of a job and the employee's own values, beliefs, and behaviors (Brief & Nord, 1990).
- *Competence*, is concerned with "an individual's belief in his / her capacity to perform activities with skill" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443). In other words, it is the belief that one possesses the skills and abilities to perform a job well (Gist, 1987). Competence is analogous to agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989).
- *Self- Determination*, is the feeling of having control over one's work and focuses on the individual's sense of having a choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell & Ryan, 1989). Self- determination reflects autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviors and processes; examples are making decisions about work methods, pace, and effort (Bell & Staw, 1989; Spector, 1986).
- *Impact*, is the degreeto whichan individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operational outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). Impact is the converse of learned helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Further, impact is different from locus of control; whereas impact is influenced by the work context, internal locus of control is a global personality characteristic that endures across situations (Wolfe & Robertshaw, 1982).

Together, these four cognitions reflect an active, rather than passive, orientation to one's work role. In other words, the experience of empowerment is manifest in all four dimensions- if any one dimension is missing, then the experience of empowerment will be limites (Spreitzer, 1995).

Finally, Spreitzer (1995) observed psychological empowerment as a process that begins with the interaction between work environment and personality characteristics. This interaction shapes the four empowerment cognitions above, which in turn motivate individual behavior.

Menon (2001) emphasized that these two approaches are not mutually exclusive and offered a comprehensive description of empowerment in which structural and psychological empowerment are interdependent. Similarly, Spreitzer (2007) suggested that structural empowerment is associated with psychological empowerment. Although both perspectives on empowerment are related to performance, psychological empowerment has been conceptualized as a key mechanism in explaining how structural empowerment enables psychological empowerment, which, in turn, contributes to empowermentoutcomes (Spreitzer, 2007).

The interpretation of the empowering actions or behavior may differ from one person to another, based on a number of different individual factors, such as personality, education, position, and cultural factors that have shaped the cumulative experience of the individual. So in this study, we defined empowerment as the same way as Spreitzer (1995) defined.

1.3.2. Antecedent Variables Associated with Empowerment

Gender

Gecas (1989 cited in Fourie, 2009) re- examined the literature on the development of self-efficacy and how social structure and group process impact development. From the re-examination it was noted that males have a greater self- efficacy, personal controls, and mastery than females.

Kim and George (2005) reported that gender is not sitatistically related with differences in the scores of empowerment.

Pitts (2005) found no difference between men and women with respect to psychological empowerment in his study of leadership and empowerment in public organizations. Itzhaky and York (2000) assessed a group of activists in a low income neighbourhood and found that gender had no main effect on empowerment and its effects only became apparent when it interacted with participation.

Similarly, Finegan and Lashinger (2001) found no significant differences between men and women nurses experiences of empowerment.

Miller, Goddard and Laschinger (2001) examined empowerment levels of male and female physical therapists and also found no significant differences in their research.

Vardi (2000) examined 120 professionals and managers in Israel and found that men rated themselves significantly higher on overall empowerment than the women. On the contrary, Riger's (1993) findings indicated that women would be more likely, more willing to share information and power, promote values of egalitarianism in the work- oriented relationship and generally empower subordinates than men (Browne, 1995; Riger, 1993).

• Age

According to Fourie (2009, p.121) research of different age groups were regularly done based on cross sectional analysis and "a curvilinear pattern has typically been found with efficacy increasing through childhood and early adulthood, reaching a peak in middle age and gradually declining after age sixty."

Dimitriades and Kifidu (2004) conducted a study using a sample of 154 mature working students and their results yielded a positive relationship between age and empowerment. These results are supported by findings of a study conducted by Spreitzer (1996). These findings however, are contrary of that of Appelbaum and Honnegar's (1998) study on the link between age and empowerment.

Buckle (2003) reported that older employees view themselves as more empowered than their younger counterparts. The researchers ascribe this to the fact that older employees experience their work to have more personal meaning, with a sense of competence, a sense of self- determination and perceived impact than younger employees do.

In a study by Özarallı (2003) age was categorized as 20 to 30, 30 to 40 and above 40, and when a one way analysis of variance was conducted, a significant difference was found between the age groups 20 to 30, 30 to 40 and above 40. Özarallı concluded that as employees'age are higher, they feel more empowered.

Faulkner and Laschinger (2008) conducted a study to determine the effects of structural and psychological empowerment on perceived respect in acute care nurses. They found no significant relationships between age, gender, level of education, work status, type of hospital or nursing experience.

• Marital Status

There appears to be a paucity of information with regards to empowerment and marital status.

• Tenure

In two seperate South African studies by Dwyer (2001) and Hlalele (2003) findings indicated that tenure showed a positive relationship with empowerment.

Results of a study by Hancer and George (2003) revealed that employees with more than two years service indicated higher scores on the competence dimension than employees with less than two years service.

In the same vein, Özarallı (2003) found that employees' who had organizational tenure of seven years more, felt more empowered than employees whose tenure was three years or less. These findings suggest that as employees gain more experience with increased tenure, they feel more empowered.

Buckle (2003) observed no significant difference between employees with different years of service with regard to their experience of psychological empowerment.

ASouth African study conducted by Sauer (2003), in a steel manufacturing environment, it was found that employees with longer years of service see themselves as more empowered than employees with shorter years of service.

Kim and George (2005) and Miller, Goddard and Laschinger (2001) reported no difference in empowerment levels of physical therapists with different years of practice.

• Educational Background

Fourie (2009) postulates that different organizations yielded different results when level of education and empowerment are examined. Gecas's (1989 cited in Fourie, 2009) review of researched literature found "reference" to education as an aspect that enhances the sense of mastery and personal control.

Vardi (2000) conducted a study amongst managers and professionals and found that there were no significant differences between people's perceptions of empowerment in terms of different educational levels.

Miller et al. (2001) concur with this statement as the researchers' study also revealed the same findings.

On the other hand, Hancer and George (2003) posit that employees with high school and lower levels of education indicated significantly higher scores on the meaning dimension. In a study by Piazza (2006) results showed that certification increases nurses' perception of empowerment.

Buckle (2003) found no statistically significant differences between different qualification levels and psychological empowerment, leader empowering behavior, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

In empirical studies by Özarallı (2003), it was established that university graduates displayed a greater sense of self- empowerment compared to primary and high school graduates in different sectors. Similarly, Spreitzer (1996) conducted a study in a Fortune 50 organizations and found that those with higher education felt more empowered.

2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND EMPOWERMENT

This chapter explains the assumed relationships between the constructs and introduces the hypothesis, which will be tested in this study in order to explore these relationships.

2.1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EMPOWERMENT

Scholars have identified the important role that organizational leadership plays in empowering employees. Empowerment process may allow leaders to lessen the emotional impact of demoralizing organizational changes or to mobilize organizational members in the face of difficult competitive challenges. These processes may enable leaders to set higher performance goals, and they may help employees to accept these goals.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested that the organizational environment can have a powerful influence on cognitions of empowerment. The underlying philosophy behind this approach is contained in the belief that existing traditional organizational practices could render employees "powerless" to utilize their full productive and creative potential, thus resulting in passive mind- sets and ineffective or mediocre performance. By changing or removing the conditions that lead to feelings of powerlessness, it is expected that employees would perform at their productive and creative best. In most recent leadership research, the emphasis is on the energizing aspect of empowerment. Bennis and Nanus (1985) conclude that great leaders empower others to translate their vision into reality and to sustain it. These authors further comment that leaders with transformational behaviors energize and hence empower their followers to act by providing an exciting vision for the future rather than through rewards and punishments.

Leaders with vision can create a participative climate and more empowered condition in which organizational members assume the authority to take actions enhance the vision. Beyond providing a vision, transformational leaders engage in "inspiration" behaviors which build subordinates' self- confidence with respect to goal attainment (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Leaders who convey high expectations promote the self- efficacy and motivation of

subordinates, and ultimately establish norms for individual initiative, achievement-oriented behaviors, and goal attainment. (Eden, 1992).

According to Spreitzer (1995), two work context factors determine employees' feeling of empowerment: information and rewards. Specifically, information about the organization's mission and information about performance are cruical for empowering employees. Without being informed about where the organization is headed, employees will not be able to have the sense of control or being involved; without performance information, employees will not be able to know how well they are performing, which is fundamental to reinforcing a sense of competence (Lawler, 1992; Spreitzer, 1995). Transformational leaders characterized by open communication can empower employees by articulating clear organizational future goals, generating employee enthusiasm for worthy causes, and expressing high performance expectation from employees.

A second critical factor for empowerment is an incentive system to reward employee performance (Lawler, 1992; Spreitzer, 1995). Performance- based rewards, often associated with transactional leadership, may recognize and reinforce employee competencies. However, an over- reliance on rewards and punishments will create the perception of a lack of delegation among employees (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Therefore, overall, a negative relationship should be expected between transactional leadership and empowerment.

According to Özarallı (2003), management- by- exception behaviors, for example, focus primarily on mistakes or slippage of performance below certain levels, which can inadvertently communicate subordinates that poor performance is anticipated but they are not expected to take initiative to correct it. Such transactional behaviors are likely to suppress empowering norms.

According to the study of Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003), which was conducted to 888 bank employees working under 76 branch managers to examine the relationships between transformational leadership and empowerment & dependency, the researchers found that transformational leadership was positively related to both followers' dependence and their empowerment.

According to the study of Ceylan, Özbal, Dinç and Kegin (2005), which was conducted to 111 incidentally selected employees who are working in private training centers for elementary education to examine the impact of leader- member exchange and trust on psychological empowerment, the results of the study revealed that when leader- member exchange is high, the manager considers the desires of his/her employee individually, shows respect to his/her ideas and takes care of his/her needs. Due to the results of the study, we can make an interpretation that one of the dimensions of transformational leadership named as "individual consideration" has an impact on every dimenson of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self determination and impact).

According to the study of Arslantaş (2007), which was conducted to 233 blue collar employees of a manufacturing firm to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment on the basis of their dimensions, the results of the study revealed that inspirational motivation has a positive and significant effect on meaning and competence, inspirational stimulation has a positive and significant effect on self- determination and individualized consideration has a positive and significant effect on meaning, competence and impact.

According to the study of Boonyarit, Chomphupart and Arin (2010), which was conducted to 154 public school teachers from a central province of Thailand to examine the structural relationship between perceived transformational leadership, structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and the attitude outcomes of job satisfacion and organizational commitment among teachers, the results of the study revealed that perceived transformational leadership of the direct supervisors was positively related to teachers' psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological empowerment was positively related to both attitude and outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, psychological empowerment played a mediating role in the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and both attitude outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Men (2010), which was conducted to 166 employees from diverse work units of a *Fortune 500* company in the United States to measure leadership style (transactional leadership vs. transformational leadership) and employee empowerment (competence and control), the results of the study revealed that both

transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively associated with employees' feelings of control; transformational leaders were more likely to delegate power to employees and involve them in desicion making than transactional leaders are. However, style of leadership was not significantly related to employees' feelings of competence; also, higher level of managers were more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership than lower-level of managers.

According to the study of Shah, Nisar, Rehman and Rehman (2011), which was conducted to 6 companies from telecom industry to find the relationship of transformational leadership with organizational commitment and innovativeness, and to know if empowerment mediates the relationship between the transformational leadership, the organizational commitment and the innovativeness. The analysis of the study supported all the research hypotheses that there is significantly positive relationship between transformational leadership, organizational commitment, innovativeness and empowerment.

According to the study of Ismail, Mohammed, Sulaiman, Mohammad and Yusuf (2011) which was conducted to examine the influence of empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment using a sample of 118 usable questionnaires gathered from employees who have worked in one US subsidiary firm in East Malaysia, Malaysia, the results of exploratory factor analysis confirmed that the measurement scales used in the study satisfactorily met the standards of validity and reliability analysis. Further, the results of testing a direct model showed that transformational leadership was positively and significantly correlated with empowerment (r=0,39, p<0,01).

 H_1 : Transformational Leadership predicts Empowerment.

H₂: Transactional Leadership predictsEmpowerment.

2.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPOWERMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Numerious researchers have recognized a relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment claiming that employees who feel more empowered are more likely to reciprocate by being more committed to their organization (Hanold, 1997; Koberg et. al, 1999; Linden et al., 2000; Spreitzer, 1995). Bhatnagar (2005) hypothesisted that psychological empowerment is an antecedent of organizational commitment, and based on the findings the hypothesis was accepted.

Linden et al. (2000) state that empowerment may contribute to a sense of commitment through a process of reciprocation. Furthermore, the authors claim that individuals tend to be appreciative of an organization that provide opportunities for decision latitude, challenge, and responsibility, as well as, feelings of meaning, impact, self- determination, and mastery that result from these conditions. Hence, they are likely to reciprocate by being more committed to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Kraimer, Seibert & Linden, 1999); that is their identification, attachment, and loyalty to the organization will increase.

Organizational commitment has been shown to be an important outcome of psychological empowerment (Linden et al., 2000). Experiencing empowerment can result in an employee being more committed to their work and/ orto the organization as a whole. Honold (1997, p.3) posits that "the greater the empowerment, the greater the job autonomy, the more involvement beyond the defined job of the individual, the greater the organizational commitment."

According to Chan (2003), psychological empowerment has a strong and direct positive association with affective and normative commitment; but negative association with continuance commitment.

According to Jansen (2004), psychological empowerment can be seen as a way to stimulate an individual's commitment to the organization, as it leads to a fit between work roles and personal value system; confidence in an individual's capability to do work well, which in turn encourages him/her exerting more effort on the organization's behalf; more extensive

participation in decision making; and contribution to shaping organizational systems through a greater level of impact.

According to the study of Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004), which was conducted to 520 staff nurses employed by a large public hospital in Singapore, to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational commitment and psychological empowerment and the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on transformational leadership and organizational commitment, the results revealed that psychological empowerment was significantly related to organizational commitment for SSN level (G100= 0.10, X^2 (241)= 350.25, p<0.05, R^2 =0.40).

Regarding earlier research in this field, Sigler and Pearson (2000) found a positive relationship between certain dimensions and organizational commitment. Avolio et al. (2004) also found empowerment to increase an employee's commitment to the organization. According to Chen and Chen (2008), psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between work re-desing and organizational commitment.

Cunningham and Hyman (1999 cited in Bhatnagar, 2005) on the other hand, conducted a study and found that not many signs of increased commitment were at hand after the introduction of empowerment initiative and management controls appeared to have tightened instead of loosened.

Studies by (Locke and Schweiger, 1979; Spreitzer, 1996 cited in Vinya & Rawat, 2009) have revealed that empowerment induces organizational commitment for the following reasons:

- A meaningful job provides a suitable fit between requirements and purposes of one's organizational work roles and one's personal value system.
- A sense of competence gives workers the confidence that they are able to perform their work roles with skill and success, stimulating them to exert significant effort on behalf of the organization.
- Self- determination provides workers with control over their work and a voice in work- related decisions, leading to improved involvement in the organization.
- Having impact facilitates employees' possibilities to participate in forming the organizational system they are entrenched in.

According to the study of Şahin (2007), which was conducted to 404 employees from four and five stars hotels in Aegean Region to examine the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment, the result of correlation analysis revealed that there was a correlation between empowerment and organizational commitment (r=0,387, p=0,000<0,01) and further regression analysis was performed and the result of regression analysis revealed that there was a positive and significant relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment ($\beta=0,987$, p=0,000<0,05).

According to the study of Allanazarov (2008), which was conducted to totally 172 managers of textile sector in Turkey and Turkmenistan to examine the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment, the results of regression analyses showed that there were positive and significant relationships between psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment of Turkish managers (β = 0,547, p<0,05) and psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment of Turkoman managers (β = 0,296, p<0,05); and also the results of regression analyses showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and continuance commitment of Turkish managers, but there was a negative and statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and continuance commitment of Turkoman managers (β = -0.484, p<0.05); further also the results of regression analyses showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and normative commitment of Turkoman managers, but there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and normative commitment of Turkish managers (β= 0,378, p<0,05).

According to the study of Özbek (2008), which was conducted to 214 white-collor employees of a manufacturing firm in Ankara to examine the relationship beteen empowerment and organizational commitment, the result of correlation analysis revealed that there was a correlation between empowerment and organizational commitment (r= 0,327; p<0,05).

According to the study of Koç (2008), which was conducted to 102 employees of 3 private banks to examine the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment,

the result of correlation analysis revealed that there was a significant correlation between empowerment and organizational commitment (r= 0,620, p=0,000<0,01).

According to the study of Demiral (2008), which was conducted to 253 academician of government and foundation universities in Central Anatolia and Mediterranean regions of Turkey to find out the effect of empowerment on providing organizational commitment, the result of regression analyses revealed that there were positive and significant relationships between meaning and affective organizational commitment (β = 0,151, p<0,01) and impact and affective organizational commitment (β = 0,132, p<0,05), but there were no significant relationships between competence and affective organizational commitment and self- determination and affective organizational commitment; and also that there were negative and significant relationships between meaning and normative organizational commitment (β = -0,191, p<0,01) and competence and normative organizational commitment (β = -0,141, p<0,01), but there were no significant relationships between self- determination and normative organizational commitment and impact and normative organizational commitment. Finally, there was a positive and significant relationship between self determination and continuance organizational commitment (β= 0,257, p<0,05);but there were no significant relationships between meaning and continuance organizational commitment, competence and continuance organizational commitment, impact and continuance organizational commitment.

According to the study of Erdem (2009), which was conducted to 42 employees from Germany, 57 employees from England, 80 employees from Turkey and 59 employees from Poland to examine the relationship between pscyhological empowerment and organizational commitment, the results of the study revealed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment (β = 0,296, p<0,001) and the results of the regression analyses for the dimensions of pscyhological empowerment and organizational commitment revealed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of pscyhological empowerment named as "meaning- impact" and organizational commitment (β = 0,190, p<0,001). There were no statistically significant relationship between the other dimensions of psychological empowerment (competence and self- determination) and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Boonyarit, Chomphupart and Arin (2010), which was conducted to 154 public school teachers from a central province of Thailand to examine the structural relationship between perceived transformational leadership, structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and the attitude outcomes of job satisfacion and organizational commitment among teachers, the results of the study revealed that perceived transformational leadership of the direct supervisors was positively related to teachers' psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological empowerment was positively related to both attitude and outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, psychological empowerment played a mediating role in the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and both attitude outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Tuğ (2010), which was conducted to 650 health care personnel in Eskişehir Osmangazi University Hospital to examine the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment, the correlation analyses revealed that there was a medium level and significant correlation between psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment (r=0,481, p<0,001) and there was a low level and significant correlation between psychological empowerment and continuance organizational commitment (r=0,142, p<0,001) and there was a medium level and significant correlation between psychological empowerment and normative organizational commitment (r=0,329, p<0,001). Further, due to the regression analysis, it was found that there was a positive and significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment (β =0,227, p<0,001). This study also tried to examine the relationship between structural empowerment and organizational commitment. The correlation analyses revealed that there was a medium level and significant correlation between structural empowerment and affective organizational commitment (r=0,543, p<0,001) and there was a low level and significant correlation between structural empowerment and continuance organizational commitment (r=0,098, p<0,001) and there was a medium level and significant correlation between structural empowerment and normative organizational commitment (r=0,430, p<0,001). Further, due to the regression analysis, it was found that there was a positive and significant relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment (β =0,339, p<0,001).

According to the study of Jha (2010), which was conducted to 332 Indian Executives to understand the degree of influence psychological empowerment on organizational commitment, consistent with other previous studies the results of the study confirmed that the psychological empowerment influences affective and normative commitment positively. However no relationship was found between psychological empowerment and continuance commitment.

According to the study of Mujka (2011), which was conducted to 80 employees of a private bank in Kosovar to examine the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment, the results of correlation analyses revealed that there was a medium level significant correlation between meaning and organizational commitment (r=0,499, p=0,000< 0,01), there was medium level significant correlation between self determination and organizational commitment (r=0,365, p=0,01< 0,05); but there were no significant correlations between competence and organizationa commitment (r= 0,067, p=0,556> 0,005) and impact and organizational commitment (r= 0,028, p=0,804> 0,005). This study also contributed correlation analyses for the dimensions of organizational commitment and empowerment. Due to the results of correlation analyses, there was a significant correlation between empowerment and continuance organizational commitment (r=0,285, p=0,010< 0,05) and empowerment and normative organizational commitment (r=0,559, p=0,000< 0,05), but there was no significant correlation between empowerment and affective organizational commitment (r=-0,044, p=0,010< 0,05).

According to the study of Tolay, Sürgevil and Topoyan (2012), which was conducted to 243 research assistants of 23 faculties of the two big state universities in İzmir to examine the relationship between psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment, the results of the study revealed that psychological empowerment has direct and positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

*H*₃: Empowerment predicts Organizational Commitment.

2.3. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Stum (1999), employee commitment reflects the quality of an organization's leadership. Therefore it is logical to assume that leadership behaviour would have a significant relationship with the development of organizational commitment. Managerial research suggests that there is a positive direct relationship between leadership behaviours and organizational commitment.

Transformational leadership is generally associated with desired organizational outcomes such as the willingness of followers to expend extra effort (Bass, 1995; Bass, Waldman, Avolio & Bebb, 1987; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). A willingness to expend extra effort indicates some degree of commitment. Contingent reward behaviours that represent transactional leadership have been found to be reasonably associated with performance and work attitudes of followers although at a lower level than transformational leadership behaviour (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1990a).

A relationship between commitment and leadership style has been reported in the organizational and management literature. Billingsley and Cross (1992) reported a positive relationship between leader support and commitment. Tao et al. (1998) also found that supervisory behaviour predicted internalisation ($R^2 = .180$, p < .01).

In three seperate studies, Popper, Mayseless and Castelnovo (2000) found evidence to support the hypothesis that a positive correlation existed between transformational leadership and attachment.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) found that leadership behaviours explained 48 % of the variance in organizational commitment.

Kent and Chelladurai (2001) took the analysis further and looked at the correlation between different aspects of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. These authors found that individualized consideration has positive correlations with both affective commitment (r = .475, p < .001) and normative commitment (r = .354, p < .001). They also found positive correlations between intellectual stimulation and both affective commitment (r = .487, p < .001) and normative commitment (r = .292, p < .001). Hayward,

Gross and Tolmay (2004) also found that transformational leadership has moderate positive correlation with affective commitment (r = .528, p < .0001). Lower correlation coefficients between transformational leadership and normative commitment, as well as, continuance commitment was found. No correlation was found between transactional leadership and affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Work by Shamir and colleagues (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin & Popper, 1998) suggests that transformational leaders are able to influence followers' organizational commitment by promoting higher levels of intrinsic values associated with goal accompolishment, emphasising the linkages between follower effort and goal achievement, and by creating a higher level of personal commitment on the part of the leader and followers to a common vision, mission and organizational goals.

Transformational leaders influence followers' organizational commitment by encouraging them to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision- making processes and inspiring loyalty while recognizing and appreciating the different needs of each follower to develop his / her personal potential (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Yammarino, Spangler & Bass, 1993). By encouraging followers to seek new ways to approach problems and challenges and identifying with followers' needs, transformational leaders are able to motivate their followers to get more involved in their work, resulting in higher levels of organizational commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). This view was supported by prior research that showed organizational commitment was higher for employees whose leaders encouraged participation in decision- making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), emphasised consideration (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995) and were supportive and concerned for their followers' development (Allen & Meyer, 1990a, 1990b).

According to the study of Yavuz (2008), which was conducted to 678 employees who work in 4 or 5 star hotels in Antalya, Muğla and Aydın to examine the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment, the results of the study showed that there was a correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (r=0,554) and also there was a correlation between transactional leadership and organizational commitment (r=0,340). There was a statistically significant relationship between the all dimesions of transformatonal leadership and organizational commitment (for idealized influence and organizational commitment, r=0,543; for inspirational

stimulation and organizational commitment, r=0,505; for individualized consideration and organizational commitment r=0,487; for ; for inspirational motivation and organizational commitment r=0,464). Also the results of the study showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the two dimesions of transactional leadership and organizational commitment (for contingent reward and organizational commitment r=0,488; for management by objectives- active and organizational commitment r=0,382; but there was no statistically significant relationship between management by objectives-passive and organizational commitment, r=0,63).

According to the study of Tuna (2009), which was conducted to 163 employees from different Turkish companies to examine the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and affective organizational commitment, the results of the study revealed that there were statistically significant correlations between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment (r= 0,325) and transactional leadership and affective organizational commitment (r= 0, 262), and also due to the regression analysis, it was found that transformational leadership explained greater amount of variance on affective organizational commitment (β = 0,260) than transactional leadership (β = 0,121).

According to the study of Boonyarit, Chomphupart and Arin (2010), which was conducted to 154 public school teachers from a central province of Thailand to examine the structural relationship between perceived transformational leadership, structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and the attitude outcomes of job satisfacion and organizational commitment among teachers, the results of the study revealed that perceived transformational leadership of the direct supervisors was positively related to teachers' psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological empowerment was positively related to both attitude and outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, psychological empowerment played a mediating role in the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and both attitude outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Çakınberk and Demirel (2010), which was conducted to 148 health care personnel in Tunceli and Malatya to examine the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment, the results of the study revealed that

there was a strong and direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (r=0,732); but there was no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment and also was found that there is a strong relationship between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment.

According to the study of Kırlmaz and Kırılmaz (2010), which was conducted to 2525 employees of Turkish Ministry of Health Headquarters to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, the result of the study revealed that there was a correlation between the dimensions of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The strongest correlation was between "inspriational motivation" and organizational commitment (r= 0,189) and the weakest correlation was between "individualized consideration" and organizational commitment (r=0,138). There was found a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and organizational commitment; but the correlation was not strong due to sample's having medium level of transformational leadership characteristics.

According to the study of Farahani, Taghadosi, Behboudi (2011), which was conducted to 214 insurance experts working in 6 different branches of Social Security Organization of Qazin to explore the relationship between transformational leaderhsip and organizational commitment, the reults of correlation and regression analysis revealed that there was a direct and positive relationship between transformational leaddership and organizational commitment, the regression coefficient of which stands at 0,046.

According to the Study of Shah, Nisar, Rehman and Rehman (2011), which was conducted to 6 companies from telecom industry to find the relationship of transformational leadership with organizational commitment and innovativeness, and to know if empowerment mediates the relationship between the transformational leadership, the organizational commitment and the innovativeness. The analysis of the study supported all the research hypotheses that there is significantly positive relationship between transformational leadership, organizational commitment, innovativeness and empowerment.

According to the study of Gao and Bai (2011), which was conducted to a sample of 186 family businesses in China to examine the transformational leadership behaviours of

Chinese family business owners, and their influence on family employees' organizational commitment, the results of the multivariate analyses further indicated that the transformational leadership practiced in Chinese family businesses were effective in promoting family employees' value commitment and commitment to stay.

According to the study of Riaz, Akram and Ijaz (2011), which was conducted to 223 employees of 4 banks in Islamabad, Pakistan to examine the impact of transformational leadership style on employees' affective commitment, the results of the study revealed that there was a significant and positive relationship transformational leadership and employees' affective commitment.

According to the study of Ismail, Mohammed, Sulaiman, Mohammad and Yusuf (2011) which was conducted to examine the influence of empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment using a sample of 118 usable questionnaires gathered from employees who have worked in one US subsidiary firm in East Malaysia, Malaysia, the results of exploratory factor analysis confirmed that the measurement scales used in the study satisfactorily met the standards of validity and reliability analysis. Further, the results of testing a direct model showed that transformational leadership was positively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment (r=0,55, p<0,01).

According to the study of Hemedoglu and Evliyaoglu (2012), which was conducted to 144 blue collar employees of a firm from service provider sector to examine the relationship between employees' transformational leadership perceptions and organizational commitment, the results of the study revealed that inspirational motivation has significant effects on organizational commitment and its dimensions- affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

According to the study of Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood and Isaque (2012), which was conducted to 101 employees including Academic and Administration Staff of education sector in Pakistan to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transactional and transformational leadership) and organizational commitment, the results of study showed positive correlation between transactional leadership and organizational commitment (r=0,310) and transformational leadership and organizational commitment (r=0,327). It

was also found that transformational leadership had slightly higher correlation value with organizational commitment than transactional leadership.

*H*₄: Transformational Leadership predicts Organizational Commitment.

H₅: Transactional Leadership predicts Organizational Commitment.

2.4. THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMPOWERMENT

Generally speaking, a variable is a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relationship between a predictor or independent variable and a criterion or dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Baron and Kenny posit four mediation conditions which which have to be met for a variable to have mediation effects between a predictor and a criterion. These conditions are first, the independent variable must affect the mediator; second, the independent variable must also affect the dependent or criterian variable; third, the mediator has to affect the criterian variable and fourth, when both independent and mediator variables are regressed simultaneously on the criterion variable, the contribution that the independent variable has on the criterion has to be less than its contribution when solely regressed on the criterion (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Empowerment is a process of delegating both the authority and responsibility to subordinate which develops a sense of control over job being done by the employees (Wellins, Byham & Wilson, 1991). Thus, empowerment is a source of motivation among subordinates to deliver them control and power over the job they perform (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The intrinsic beliefs of individual to have sense of control motivate him/her when he/she perceives power and control over job (Henkin & Marchiori, 2003). The empowered employees design their own course of action and are committed with that action because they designed and played it. Commitment is therefore an identity with the task or with the organization and individual feels association and identification with the organization. Whereas empowerment is psychological feelings; have a sense of control over particular situation (Porter et al., 1974). Followers of transformational leaders recognize their leader and in turn they recognize the leader's organization by intellectual conceptualization of empowerment (Laschinger et al., 2001). Transformational leaders visualize appealing future prospects to their followers which cause them to increase their level of motivation and commitment with the leader. Transformational leaders easily

accompolish their tasks when they postulate higher level of integrity, solidarity and moral and behavioral standard in front of their followers (Avolio, 1999; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Transformational leaders show their concern with closed consideration at individual level and they are keen in observing followers' future needs for development. Thus, transformational leaders play the consistent role of coaching and guiding their followers to enhance their ability to perform better (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Kark & Shamir, 2002). Empowering employees on their job makes a sense of responsibility and commitment with the organization (Wayne et al., 2000).

Empowered employees feel themselves on a position which is influential for execution of their activities and they feel a sense of responsibility for the work they have done which reciprocates their firm commitment and optimal efforts for the job (Spreitzer, 1995). Empowered employees are more committed with their organization (Kraimer et al., 1999). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested that empowered employees owned their work because they have power and responsibility to get work done. Further, they sense their work and responsibility which results in higher level of commitment with organization (Wiley, 1999).

The philosophical approach of transformational leadership is to empower employees to make them more committed to the organization (Avolio, 1999). Several recent studies using an indirect effect approach have revealed the mediating role of empowerment in organizational leadership literature.

According to the study of Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004) which was conducted to 520 staff nurses employed by a large public hospital in singapore, the researchers examined whether psychological empowerment mediated the effects of transformational leadership on followers' organizational commitment. Results from Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) Analysis showed that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Boonyarit, Chomphupart and Arin (2010), which was conducted to 154 public school teachers from a central province of Thailand to examine the structural relationship between perceived transformational leadership, structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, and the attitude outcomes of job satisfacion and

organizational commitment among teachers, the results of the study revealed that perceived transformational leadership of the direct supervisors was positively related to teachers' psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychological empowerment was positively related to both attitude and outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Moreover, psychological empowerment played a mediating role in the relationship between perceived transformational leadership and both attitude outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

According to the study of Ismail, Mohammed, Sulaiman, Mohammad and Yusuf (2011) which was conducted to examine the influence of empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment using a sample of 118 usable questionnaires gathered from employees who have worked in one US subsidiary firm in East Malaysia, Malaysia, the results of exploratory factor analysis confirmed that the measurement scales used in the study satisfactorily met the standards of validity and reliability analysis. Further, the outcomes of Stepwise Regression analysis showed that the relationhip between empowerment and transformational leadership positively and significantly correlated with the organizational commitment. Statistically, this result confirms that empowerment acts as a mediating variable in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in the organizational sample.

According to the study of Givens (2011), which was conducted to 250 employees of 5 American churches to investigate the extent to which psychological empowerment and value congruence with the leader mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower commitment American churches, the results of the study showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' commitment. The results stand in contradiction to what was expected and to what has been demostrated in previous research in that psychological empowerment has been shown to fully mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' commitment.

According to the study of Shah, Nisar, Rehman and Rehman (2011), which was conducted to 6 companies from telecom industry to find the relationship of transformational leadership with organizational commitment and innovativeness, and to know if empowerment mediates the relationship between the transformational leadership, the

organizational commitment and the innovativeness. The analysis of the study supported all the research hypotheses that there is significantly positive relationship between transformational leadership, organizational and innovativeness and empowerment. The results of the study also supported the mediating impact of empowerment between transformational leadership, organizational commitment and innovativeness.

 H_6 : The influence of Transformational Leadership on Organizational Commitment would be lower than the influence of Empowerment on Organizational Commitment when the Empowerment intervenes

H₇: The influence of Transactional Leadership on Organizational Commitment would be lower than the influence of Empowerment on Organizational Commitment when the Empowerment intervenes

3. THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter defines the research design, the procedures and the data collection methods that were used for this study. It first discusses the research approach and strategy, and then goes on to clarify the techniques used for choosing sample. It also describes the way the data has been collected. The last part of this chapter presents the methods used for data analysis.

3.1. The Research Approach

A quantitative research method was used for the present study. An explanatory type of research design was selected because it seeks to find out cause and effect relationships between the leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership styles), empowerment and organizational commitment.

3.2.Aim of the Research

This study firstly aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and organizational commitment. Secondly, it aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and the empowerment. Thirdly, it aims to explore the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. Fourthly, it aims to explore the mediating effect of "empowerment". With this, it tries to examine whether the effect of transactional leadership and transformational leadership styles on organizational commitment is influenced by empowerment or not. Fifthly, it aims to find out whether the demographic variables (age, total work experience and tenure in the organization) moderate the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment, leadership styles and empowerment, empowerment and organizational commitment. Finally, it questions whether leadership styles, empowerment and organizational commitment differ according to demographic variables like gender, marital status and educational background.

3.3. THEORETICAL MODEL OF THE RESEARCH

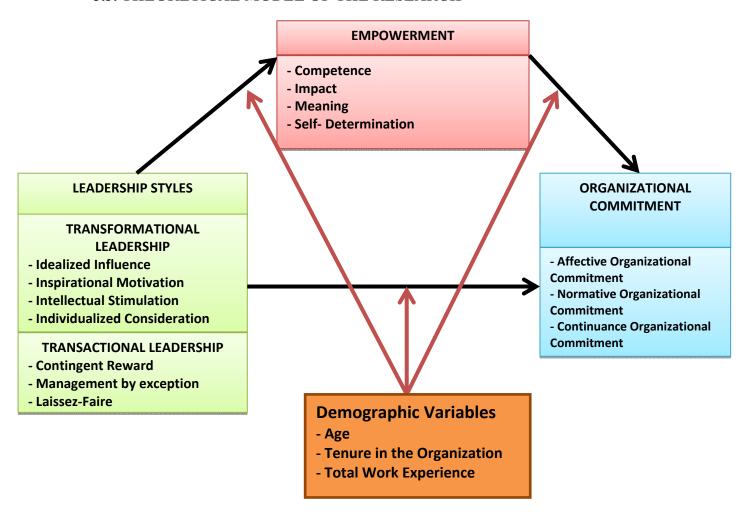


Figure 3: Theoretical Model of the Research

3.4. Research Instruments

The survey questionnaire developed for this study, of which a sample can be found in Appendix A, required followers to rate their leaders' behaviors based on two leadership styles (i.e. transformational and transactional), and they were asked to answer some statements on how much the followers identify themselves with their organizations to measure the level of followers'organizational commitment level. Finally, they were asked to answer some statements on whether they feel empowered or not. The survey also requested them to fill out a brief demographic profile consisting of age, job tenure, organizational tenure, gender, marital status, education level and position of the participants. The survey uses five measurement instruments in total. All the items; except

demographic questions, are measured using 5- point Likert- type scales. The following sections in this chapter give more detailed information on these scales.

3.4.1. Leadership Style Questionnaire

In measuring leadership style Bass and Avolio's MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is used. MLQ is first developed in 1985 since then it had been improved several times. In this study MLQ 5X is used. The questionnaire has three scales and 36 items all together. The survey was first translated into Turkish by Yurtkoru (2001) and used in her doctorate dissertation. Yurtkoru's translation was found to be appropriate and made no changes on the items. Yurtkorufound the scale is reliable with .937, the cronbach alpha reliability value for transformational leadership and .817, the cronbach alpha reliability value for transactional leadership and in her further analysis, Yurtkoru did not use the total score of transactional leadership as one higher order component, but used the factors seperately. The decided translated scale was also assessed with the respondents in one of the pharmaceutical companies in order to make sure that each item was understood well.

3.4.1.1. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership scale is composed of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. All dimensions have four items and measured on a 5 point scale, 1= "not at all" to 5= "frequently, if not always". During translation of one of the items of idealized influence "Instils pride in being associated with him/her" was changed as "I have pleasure in working with him" by Yurtkoru (2001) as the original item did not have the same effect in Turkish. All other items are kept the same original.

3.4.1.2. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership has four dimensions: contingent reward, management by exception- passive and management by exception- active and laissez- faire style which in fact is the absence of leadership, all of which have four items and measured on a 5 point scale, 1= "not at all" to 5= "frequently, if not always".

3.4.2. Empowerment Questionnaire

Empowerment scale was developed by Spreitzer (1995). The scale has four dimensions with 12 items: Competence, Meaning, Impact, Self- Determination. All dimensions have three items to measure Empowerment and all items used a 5- point scale, 1= "strongly disagree" to 5= "strongly agree".

The Empowerment Scale was used by Arslantaş (2007) in his two studies, Ergeneli, Arı & Metin (2007) and Çöl (2008). Therefore, researchers' translations were examined and cross check with the original scale. Arslantaş's translation was found to be more appropriate and made no changes on the items. Arslantaş, in his two of the studies, found that the scale is reliable with the cronbach alpha reliability valueof.88. The Cronbach-alpha Reliability score of the original scale for industiral sample was .72 and .62 for insurance sample (Spreitzer, 1995). The decided translated scale was also assessed with the respondents in one of the pharmaceutical companies in order to make sure that each item was understood well.

3.4.3. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

In the present study, Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale was used. As mentioned in the literature review, organizational commitment has three dimensions. Each six statements measures Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment respectively. Items related to organizational commitment were standardized in Turkish by Wasti (2000). Higher scores indicated greater organizational commitment. All items used a 5- point scale, 1= "strongly disagree" to 5= "strongly agree" to measure organizational commitment. The organizational commitment scale consisted of 18 items and Cronbach-alpha reliability score was .93 (Wasti, 2000). The Cronbach-alpha Reliability score of the original scale was .94 (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

3.4.4. Demographic Variables

There are seven demographic variables which are age, job tenure, organizational tenure, gender, marital status, educational level and position.

3.5. Sample Design and Size

In this study, the sample is chosen by convenience sampling, which is a type of the non-probability sampling method. In convenience sampling, the researcher collects information from the members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it. The sample of this study was chosen between white- collar employees of 3 pharmaceutical companies which do manufacturing in Istanbul. There were no special criteria for the people that could be chosen as samples, except their being white- collor employees. Between those, employees who could be reached conveniently enough, were selected. Although, there was no scarcity in this study in terms of people who could answer the survey, it was not easy to reach many of them, since e-mail addresses given by the two companies online were limited to four or five people. Therefore, in most cases, the person who was first contacted in these two companies was also asked to forward the survey to as many of his/her colleagues as possible.

To determine the minimum number of sample size, we used the formula, which is used if the number population size of the sample known, is below (Yazıcıoğlu & Erdoğan, 2004)

$$n = \frac{N. t^2. p. q}{d^2. (N-1)} + t^2. p. q$$

n: Sample size

N: Population size

p: the probability of a success on an individual trial

q: the probability of a failure on an individual trial

t value: the value in t- table

d: degrees of freedom

%95 confidence interval $\alpha = 0.05$ level

t = 1,96

p = 0.50

q(1-p) = 0.50

d = 0.05

According to the data which is taken from the web site http://www.aifd.org.tr/DataCenter/Table.aspx?p=644 of Association of Research- Based Pharmaceutical Companies in December 2012, there were 33 pharmaceutical companies which do manufacturing in İstanbul and the employee distirbution of these 33 companies are shown below:

Employee distribution

Engineer = 718 people

Technician = 524 people

Serviceman = 306 people

Laborer = 3.495 people

Administrative staff = 3.458 people

TOTAL = 8.501 people

Except Laborer (White-Collor Employees) = 5.006 people (=N)

$$n = \frac{N. t^2. p. q}{d^2. (N-1)} + t^2. p. q$$

%95 confidence interval $\alpha = 0.05$ level

t = 1.96

p = 0.5

q(1-p) = 0.50

d = 0.05

N = 5.006

n = 385 (minimum number of respondents)

The respondents answered the survey in two different ways:

1. Hard Copy: The booklets that they were asked to fill out were distributed in a closed envelope as hard copy, in other words, a traditional pen and paper form of collecting data was used.

2. Online Survey: The soft copy of the survey was sent to the person, who was first contacted in two companies, was also asked to forward the survey to as many of his/her colleagues as possible via email.

Respondents were assured about the confidentiality of their answers as they were told not to write their names on the booklet. The participants were asked to answer demographic questions on the first page of the booklet including their gender, age, job tenure, organizational tenure, marital status and education level. For each participant the procedure took approximately 20 minutes.

3.6. Limitations

The first limitation of this study is the sampling type of the research. The sample is chosen by convenience sampling, which is a type of the non- probability sampling method. In convenience sampling, the researcher collects information from the members of the population who are conveniently available to provide it. As we did not used random sampling, the findings of this study are limited for the sample. It should not be generalized.

Another limitation of this study is the sample size. The sample of this study was chosen between white- collar employees of 3 pharmaceutical companies which do manufacturing in İstanbul. There were no special criteria for the people that could be chosen as samples, except their being white- collor employees. Between those, employees who could be reached conveniently enough, were selected. Although, there was no scarcity in this study in terms of people who could answer the survey, it was not easy to reach many of them, since e-mail addresses given by the two companies online were limited to four or five people. Therefore, in most cases, the person who was first contacted in these two companies was also asked to forward the survey to as many of his/her colleagues as possible. If participants could have been chosen from more pharmaceutical companies which do manufacturing, the results would have been different. Also this study is implemented in İstanbul. It may give different results if the respondents can be chosen from different regions of Turkey.

Another limitation of this study is time. If the study could be performed in wider time period, the results would be different and also another consideration involves the demographic variables. Results might have been different if the percentages of the demographic variables were different.

3.7. Data Analyses and Findings

This chapter introduces the results of the empirical study, which was done with The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0. It first explains the profile of the respondents found as a result of the descriptive statistical methods applied and the relations between the demographic variables. Secondly, factor analyses results will be given and than means, standard deviations, correlation matrix and reliability analyses of the variables will be reported and finally hypothesis testing and reveals information about the relations between the study constructs will be given.

3.7.1. Descriptive Statistics

The first analysis with the data was done to find out the profile of the respondents. Table 2 represents the results.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

Variable	N	Percentage	Mean	Std. Deviation	Range
Age	480	-	34,42	7,77	21-63
Job Tenure	483	-	11,52 yrs	7,82	0,6- 42 yrs
Organizational Tenure	474	-	6,94 yrs	6,68	0,6- 40 yrs
Gender					
Male	244	50,2%	-	-	-
Female	246	49,8%	-	-	-
Marital Status					
Married	283	58,4%	-	-	-
Single	202	41,6%	-	-	-
Education Level					
High School	33	6,8%	-	-	-
University	252	51,9%	-	-	-
Graduate	168	34,6%	-	-	-
Doctorate	33	6,8%	-	-	-
Position					
Asst. Specialist	20	4,1%	-	-	-
Specialist	191	39,3%	-	-	-
Chief	89	18,3%	-	-	-
Manager	153	31,5%	-	-	-
Director	33	6,8%	-	-	-

As can be seen on the Table 3, the respondents of this study can be stated as almost equal (244 males and 246 females) in terms of gender. 34,6% of the respondents have the Graduate degree. Although the number of married and single respondents is close, statistically married respondents are weighted slightly more (58,4%). 4,1% of the respondents are Asst. Specialists, 39,3% of the respondents are Specialists, 18,3% of the respondents are Chiefs, 31,5% of the respondents are Managers, and 6,8% of the respondents are Directors. The mean for age is 34,42, the mean for job tenure is 11,52 years and the highest value is 42 years. The mean for organizational tenure is 6,94 years and the highest value is 40 years.

3.7.2. Factor Analyses

The purpose of the factor analysis is to define the sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors (Hair et al. 2006). Factor analysis for each construct is done in this study to see how many different dimensions the respondents perceive in the concepts and whether they perceive them the same in the original data which the scale was developed. In other words, factor analysis is done to find out, if with a different set of data, the same results defined in the literature, are found. At the begining of each factor test, the measure of sampling adequacy is calculated in order to see if the data is appropriate to apply the factor analysis to (Sipahi et al, 2006). Statistics that can represent this adequacy are Keiser- Meyer- Olkin (KMO) and Barlett's test of sphericity. KMO shows that the data used in the analysisis a homogenous collection of variables and that there are correlations between variables. The minimum level of acceptability of KMO is defined to be 0.50 in the literature (Hair et al., 2006, p.115). Bartlett's test on the other hand provides the statistical significance that there are significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the value of "p" in the test should be lower than .05. KMO and Bartlett's test in this study are found to be satisfactory for all constructs.

Table 3: Factor Analysis of Transformational LeadershipQuestionnaire

	Factor Loadings					
	1	2	3	4		
Factor 1: idealized influence						
MLQ 20Considers ethicalconsequences of his decis	ions.804					
MLQ 19His/her actions build my respect for him/her	.693					
MLQ 31Emphasize imp. of having collectivemissio	n .671					
MLQ 10Goes beyond his own self-interest our group						
MLQ 28Displays a sense of power and confidence	.637					
MLQ 11Specifies the imp. of havingsense of purpos	se634					
MLQ 1Instils pride in being associated with him .596						
MLQ 2: Talks about his most important values and be	liefs .592					
Factor 2: inspirational motivation						
MLQ 24Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be	accomplished .69	96				
MLQ 34Talks optimistically about the future		.695				
MLQ 3Talks optimistically about the future		.631				
MLQ 12Expresses his/her confidence that we will ach	ieve our goals .50	52				
Factor 3: individualized consideration						
MLQ 27Spends time teaching and coaching			.814			
MLQ 36Treats each of us as individuals with different	needs, abilities, a	and aspirations	.747			
MLQ 9Treats me as an individual rather than just a me	ember of a group		.624			
MLQ 18 Focuses me on developing my strengths			.544			
Factor 4: intellectual stimulation						
MLQ17Seeks differing perspectives when solving pro	blems			.831		
MLQ 4Re-examines critical assumptions to question v	whether they are a	ppropriate		.675		
MLQ 26Suggests new ways of looking at how we do	our jobs			.653		
MLQ 35Gets me to look at problems from many differ	rent angles			.582		
Percentage of Explained Variance	26.25	19.45	17.19	9,74		
Total Variance				72.63		
Factor's reliability alpha	.93	.80	.85	.85		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy				.96		
Barttlet's test of sphrecity			7	799,42*		

^{*}P<.001

As can be seen from Table 3 Transformational Leadership Scale was composed of four factors. The items loaded under the first factor indicate influence characteristics of a leader. Parallel with the literature, this factor has been named as **Idealized Influence** and explains 26.25% of the variance. This factor is composed of eight items and its cronbachalfa reliability score is .93. The items loaded under the second factor indicate the ways leaders take to inspire the followers to achieve both personal and organizational goals. Parallel with the literature, the second factor has been named as **Inspirational Motivation** and explains 19.45% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .80. The

items loaded under the third factor indicate satisfying the follower by advising, supporting and paying attention to their individual needs and motivating them to develop themselves. Paralel with the literature, the third factor has been named as **Individualized Consideration** and explains 17.19% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .85. The items loaded under the fourth and the last factor indicate encouraging followers to try new approaches. Paralel with the literature, the last factor named as **Inspirational Stimulation** and explains 9.74% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .85. All factors explain a total of 72.63% of the variance.

Table 4: Factor Analysis of Transactional Leadership Questionnaire

	Factor Loadings					
	1	2	-	3		
Factor 1: Contingent Reward						
MLQ 29:Expresses satisfaction when I do a g	ood job .850					
MLQ 13: Provides assistance in exchange for	my effort.830					
MLQ 21: Makes sure we receive rewards, ach	ieving targets.75	91				
MLQ 5: Makes clear what I can expect to reco	eive, if my72	29				
Factor 2:Management by Exception	n - Passive					
MLQ 32:Problems must become chronic befo	re she/hewill tak	e action .8	03			
MLQ 15: Things have to go wrong for him/he	r to take action	.8	02			
MLQ 7:Fails to intervene until problems beco	me serious	.7	58			
MLQ 23: Shows he/she is a firm believer in "I	If it ain't broke, o	lon't fix it" .73	56			
Factor 3: Management by Exceptio	n - Active					
MLQ 30:Never escapes his/her notice on the	mistakes to meet	standards		.796		
MLQ 22:Keeps track of my mistakes				.777		
MLQ 6: Directs his/her attention toward fails	ure to meet stand	ards		.579		
MLQ 14: Focuses attention onmistakes, ex	ceptions, and de	viations from stand	ards	.515		
Factor 4: Laissez-Faire						
MLQ 25: Avoids making decisions					.626	
MLQ 33: Postpones to answer urgent question	ıs				.582	
MLQ 8:Avoids getting involved when import	ant issues arise				.521	
MLQ 16: Is absent when needed					.496	
Percentage of Explained Variance	24.10	21.04	17.19		6,63	
Total Variance					68,96	
Factor's reliability alpha	.86	.75	.65		.80	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequa	ncy				.85	
Barttlet's test of sphrecity	-			2	962,29*	

*P<.001

As can be seen from Table4Transactional Leadership Scalewas composed of four factors. The items loaded under the first factor indicate rewarding style of a leader. Parallel with

the literature, this factor has been named as **Contingent Reward**and explains 24.10% of the variance. This factor is composed of four items and its cronbach-alfa reliability score is .86. The items loaded under the second factor indicate the actions that leader takes only after irregulations and deviations have occurred. Parallel with the literature, the second factor has been named as **Management by Exception-Passive** and explains 21.04% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .75. The items loaded under the third factor indicate actions that leader takes before irregulations and deviations have occurred. Parallel with the literature the third factor has been named as **Management by Exception-Active** and explains 17.19% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .65. The items loaded under the fourth and the last factor indicate the absence of the leaderhip. Parallel with the literature, the last factor has been named as **Laissez-Faire** and explains 6.63% of the variance. It contains four items and has a reliability of .80. All factors explain a total of 68.96% of the variance.

Table 5: Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment

	Factor Loadings				
	1		2		3
Factor 1: Affective Organizational Commitment					
oc3:I feel that I belong to this organization	.871				
oc5:I feel like the part of the family in this organization	.857				
oc6: This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for					
oc4:I feel emotionally attached to this organization	.810				
oc2:I feel as if the problems of this organization are mine	.800				
oc1: I would be happy to spend rest of my career in this org.	.769				
oc16: This organization deserves loyalty	.652				
oc7: I stay in this organization not with desire but with obliga	ntion.585				
Factor 2: Normative Organizational Commitmen	ť				
oc15:I feel guilty if I leave the organization	•		.780		
oc 17:I can't leave the org. because I feel obligation for the peop	ole whom I w	ork with	.758		
oc14:Even I got a better offer, I would not feel it was right to le			.728		
oc18:I feel that I am in debt with this organization	ave the orga	inzution	.671		
oo 10.1 feet tilde 1 din in deet with tills of guinzadon			.071		
Factor 3: Continuance Organizational Commitme	ent				
oc10:I don't think to quit because there is not much chance to f		job			.805
oc9:If I leave the organizaiton right now, my life would be ruin	ed .	,			.762
oc12:One of the major reason that I don't quit is that there is no		pportuniti	es		.759
oc11:I made lots of investment for this organization so I don't					.694
oc8:It would be very difficult for me to leave the organization r	•	n I wanted	l	.541	
Percentage of Explained Variance	29.70	14.89		14.20	
Total Variance	27.70	2 1.07		120	58.80
Factor's reliability alpha	.94		.70		.81
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy	.77		. 70		.87
Barttlet's test of sphrecity				1073.8	
*D < 0.01				10/3.0	7

^{*}P<.001

Table5 displays the results of the factor analysis of the Organizational Commitment scale. As can be seen, the scale, consistent with the literature consists of three factors. The items measuring **Affective Organizational Commitment** loaded under the first factor which explains 29.70% of the variance. The affective organizational commitment factor's cronbach-alpha score is .94. The second factor of the scale is called **Normative Organizational Commitment** just as in its original (Meyer and Allen, 1993) study. The normative organizational commitment factor explains 14.89% of the variance. This factor's cronbach-alpha score is .70. The third factor is similar to the original scale named as **Continuance Organizational Commitment**. The continuance organizational commitment factor explains 14.20% of the variance. This factor's cronbach-alpha score is .81. The total variance explained by these three factors is 58.80%.

The original scale consists of 18 items. Each 6 item measures Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively. The original scale was developed on the basis of American culture and standards. However, in the present study the distribution of factors for each type of commitment was not found as in the original scale. Specifically, Affective Commitment was composed of 8 items, Continuance Commitment was comprised of 5 items, and Normative Commitment was consisted of 4 items. Moreover, in the factor analyses, items loaded under 0,5 and loaded more than one factor were discarded from the scales. Furthermore, in order to understand the factor structure of the scales principal component analysis with varimax rotation was used. Any item with a factor loading less than .50 or loading to more than one factor was discarded from the analysis. Factor with Eigenvalue over 1.00 or more were taken into consideration in total variance explained. Factor's cronbach-alpha score is .88. Factor explains 56.26 % of the variance.

Table 6: Factor Analysis of Empowerment

	Factor Loadings				
	1	2	3		
Factor 1: Impact & Self-determination					
EMP 12: significant influence over what happens in my dept.	.853				
EMP 11: great deal of control over what happens in my dept.	.844				
EMP 10:My impact on what happens in my department is large	.833				
EMP 8: can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	.775				
EMP 7: have significant autonomy how I do my job	.737				
EMP9: haveopportunity for independence how I do my job	.694				
Factor 2: Meaning					
EMP 2:My job activities are personally meaningful to me		.913			
EMP 1:The work I do is very important to me		.900			
EMP 3: The work I do is meaningful to me		.892			
Factor 3: Competence					
EMP 5:I am self- assured about my capabilities to perform my wo	rk activities	.77	75		
EMP 4:I am confident about my ability to do my job			.765		
EMP 6:I have mastered skills necessary for my job			.684		
Percentage of Explained Variance	33,21	22.59	19.28		
Total Variance	-		75.08		
Factor's reliability alpha	.90	.94	.82		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy			.84		
Barttlet's test of sphrecity			4317,88*		

^{*}P<.001

Table 6 displays the results of the factor analysis of the Empowerment scale. According to the results of factor analysis in order to determine the dimensions of empowerment, it was found that there are three instead of four factors different from the literature. The items measuring **impact and self-determination** loaded under the first factor which explains 33.21% of the variance. The impact and self determination factor's cronbach-alpha score is .90. The second factor of the scale is called **meaning** just as in its original scale. The factor meaning explains 22.59% of the variance. This factor's cronbach-alpha score is .94. The third factor is similar to the original scale named as **competence**. The competence factor explains 19.28% of the variance. This factor's cronbach-alpha score is .82. The total variance explained by these three factors is 75.08%.

3.7.3. Reliability Analyses

Hair et al. (2006) define reliability as "an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable" (p.137). One of the measures of reliability is internal consistency which applies to the consistency among the variables in a scale. To assess this consistency, Cronbach's alpha is used in this study. It shows if the individual items or indicators of the scale are measuring the same construct and are thus highly intercorrelated. The lower limit for Cronbach's alpha that is generally agreed upon, is .70 (Hair et al. 2006, p. 137). Before proceeding with any further analysis, first the reliabilities of each scale are calculated. In fact, they were already tested by other researchers before- as mentioned in previous chapters. Therefore, it was necessary to check the reliabilities again to assure the inter term consistency of each factor. Table 8 exhibits these results.

Table 7: Scales and Subscales Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficients

Scale	Cronbach α	
Transformational Leadership	.96	
Idealized Influence	.93	
Inspirational Motivation	.80	
Individualized Consideration	.85	
Inspirational Stimulation	.85	
Transactional Leadership	.83	
Contingent Reward	.86	
Management by Exception-Active	.65	
Management by Exception-Passive	.75	
Laissez-Faire	.80	
Empowerment	.89	
Meaning	.94	
Competence	.82	
Impact and Self Determination	.90	
Organizational Commitment	.90	
Affective Organizational Commitment	.94	
Continuance Organizational Commitment	.81	
Normative Organizational Commitment	.70	

Cronbach-Alpha scores of scales and subscales are shown in Table 7. Scales internal consistencies are ranged from .81 to .90. All of the alpha scores both for scales and subscales are found equal to or higher than .70. except the dimension of Transactional Leadership which is named as "Management by Exception-Passive"

3.7.4. Correlation Analysis

In order to determine if there were any correlations between scales Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis was conducted. Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix were recalculated with the subscales found after the factor analyses and the other scales. Results are given in Table 8. According to Table 8the correlations among some of the dimensions of the independent variables' constructs are higher than .70, the probability of multicollinearity increases. In this respect, a regression analysis was conducted and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) scores were examined. As the VIF scores were lower than 10 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham,Black, 1988 and Bowerman and O'Conell, 1997), it was concluded that there is no multi-collinearity between these variables. It was concluded that there is no multi-collinearity between leadership, empowerment and organizational commitment factors so that these variables can take place in the research model.

Table 8: Scale's Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix

St.																	
Scale	N	Mean	Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12 13	14	
1 Idealized Influence	477	3,74	0,99	(.93)													
2 Inspirational Motivation	481	3,67	0,89	.83**	(.80)												
3 Individualized Consideration	481	3,64	1,10	.89**	.77**	(.85)											
4 Inspirational Stimulation	482	3,64	1,04	.82**	.77**	.80**	(.85)										
5 Contingent Reward	481	3,55	1,07	.88**	.81**	.84**	.76**	(.86)									
6 Management by exception (A)	468	3,50	0,52	.40**	.35**	.34**	.37**	.39**	(.65)								
7 Management by exception (P)	480	3,59	0,71	.40**	.32**	.35**	.35**	.32**	.19**	(.75)							
8 Laissez-Faire	485	4,08	0.98	.57**	.50**	.52**	.51**	.51**	.33*	.58**	(.80)						
9 Empowerment-Meaning	486	4,21	0,84	.46**	.42**	.48**	.42**	.45*	.19**	.19**	.16**	(.94)					
10 Empowerment-Competence	486	4,51	0,50	.09*	.11*	.15**	.12*	.07	.05	02	02	37**	(.82)				
11 EmpowImpact-Self Determinat	ion486	3,80	0,92	.42**	.38**	.43**	.35**	.41**	.17**	.03	.08	.46**	.37**	(.83)			
12 Affective Commitment	483	3,63	1,04	.65**	.61**	.62**	.58**	.62**	.25**	.20**	.39**	.52**	.19**	.47** (.9	94)		
13 Continuance Commitment	481	3,28	0,79	.45**	.44**	.45**	.40**	.43**	.24**	.10*	.28**	.38**	.10*	.38** .55	5** (.70)		
14 Normative Commitment	479	3,08	0,90	.57**	.55**	.54**	.46**	.53**	.29**	.16**	.33**	.49**	.14*	.38** .70	** .46**	(.81)	

^{*}P<0,05 **P<0,01 The scores in parentheses shows scale's cronbach's-alpha reliability

3.7.5. Regression Analyses

In order to test the hypotheses of the Study Single Regression Analyses, Three Stage Multiple Regression Analyses and Hierarchical Linear Regression Analyses were performed.

3.7.5.1. The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Empowerment: Single Regression Analysis

The first hypothesis of our research was as follows: "transformational leadership effects empowerment". In order to test this single regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Results of the Single Regression Analysis for Transformational Leadership and Empowerment

Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Idealized Influence	.089*	.458***	.416***
\mathbb{R}^2	.008	.210	.173
Adjusted R ²	.006	.209	.171
F Value	3.89*	128.78***	.101.06***
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Inspirational Motivation	.116*	.424***	.376***
\mathbb{R}^2	.013	.180	.141
Adjusted R ²	.011	.178	.140
F Value	6.59*	106.35***	79.70***
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Intellectual Stimulation	.122**	.420***	.345***
\mathbb{R}^2	.015	.177	.119
Adjusted R ²	.013	.175	.117
F Value	7.37**	103.85***	65.18**
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact &
			Self-Determination
Individualized	.149**	.481***	.423***
Consideration			
\mathbb{R}^2	.022	.232	.179
	.022 .020	.232 .230 145.92***	.179 .177 105,26**

Independent Variables: Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration **Dependent Variables** Competence, Meaning, Impact & Self Determination *P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

The single regression analysis conducted between factors of transformational leadership and empowerment. Table 9 shows these results. **Idealized Influence** significantly predicts **competence** (β =.089 P< .05) **meaning** (β =.458 P< .001) and **impact & self-determination** (β =.416 P< .001).**Inspirational Motivation** significantly predicts **competence** (β =.116 P< .05) **meaning** (β =.424 P< .001) and **impact & self-determination** (β =.376 P< .001). **Intellectual stimulation** significantly predicts **competence** (β =.122 P< .01) **meaning** (β =.420 P< .001) and **impact & self-determination** (β =.345 P< .001). **Individualized consideration**significantly predicts **competence** (β =.149 P< .01) **meaning** (β =.481 P< .001) and **impact & self-determination** (β =.423 P< .001).

3.7.5.2. The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Empowerment: Single Regression Analysis

The second hypothesis of our research was as follows: "transactional leadership effects empowerment" In order to test this single regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10
Results of the Single Regression Analysis for Transactional Leadership and Empowerment

	Competence	Meaning	Impact &
Predictor			Self-Determination
Contingent Reward	.076	.450***	.405***
\mathbb{R}^2	.006	.203	.164
Adjusted R ²	.004	.201	.162
F Value	2.81	123.10***	94.91***
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Management by Exception Active	.056	.193	.163***
\mathbb{R}^2	.003	.037	.026
Adjusted R ²	.001	.035	.024
F Value	1.54	18.64***	13.15***
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Management by Exception Passive	025	.190***	.035
\mathbb{R}^2	.001	.036	.001
Adjusted R ²	001	.034	001
F Value	1.37	18.13***	.591
Predictor	Competence	Meaning	Impact & Self-Determination
Laissez-Faire	026	.165***	.086
\mathbb{R}^2	.001	.027	.007
Adjusted R ²	001	.025	.005
F Value	.319	13.51***	3.56

Independent Variables: Contingent Reward Management by Exception Active-Passive, Laissez-Faire **Dependent Variables** Competence, Meaning, Impact & Self Determination

The single regression analysis conducted between factors of transactional leadership and empowerment. Contingent reward significantly predicts meaning (β =.450 P< .001) and impact & self-determination (β =.405 P< .001). Management by Exception Active onlysignificantly predicts impact & self-determination (β =.163 P< .001). Management by exception Passive only significantly predicts meaning (β =.190 P< .001). Laissez-Faire onlysignificantly predicts meaning (β =.165 P< .001). None of the transactional leadership factors significantly predicted the competence.

^{*}P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

3.7.5.3. The Relationship between Empowerment and Organizational Commitment: Single Regression Analysis

The third hypothesis of our research was as follows: "empowerment effects organizational commitment". In order to test this single regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11
Results of the Single Regression Analysis for Empowerment and Organizational
Commitment

Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Competence	.191***	.097*	.137**
\mathbb{R}^2	.036	.009	.019
Adjusted R ²	.034	.007	.017
F Value	18.32***	4.55*	9.19**
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Meaning	.516***	.374***	.476***
\mathbb{R}^2	.267	.140	.227
Adjusted R ²	.265	.138	.225
F Value	175.90***	77.77***	141.99***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Impact &	.464***	.374***	.378***
Self-Determination			
\mathbb{R}^2	.216	.140	.143
Adjusted R ²	.214	.138	.141
F Value	132.99***	78.80***	80.60***

Independent Variables: Competence, Meaning, Impact & Self Determination **Dependent Variables** Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment *P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

The single regression analysis conducted between factors of empowerment and organizational commitment. **Competence** significantly predicts **affective** (β =.191 P< .001) **continuance** (β =.097 P< .05)and **normative commitment** (β =.137 P< .01). In addition, **meaning** significantly predicts **affective** (β =.516 P< .001) **continuance** (β =.374 P< .001)and **normative commitment** (β =.378 P< .001). Furthermore, **impact & self-determination** significantly predicts **affective** (β =.464 P< .001) **continuance** (β =.374 P< .001)and **normative commitment** (β =.378 P< .001).

3.7.5.4. The Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment: Single Regression Analysis

The fourth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "transformational leadership effects organizational commitment". In order to test this single regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12
Results of the Single Regression Analysis for Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Idealized Influence	.645***	.449***	.558***
\mathbb{R}^2	.416	.201	.312
Adjusted R ²	.415	.200	.310
F Value	344.46***	121.91***	219.03***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Inspirational Motivation	.607***	.434***	.539***
\mathbb{R}^2	.369	.189	.290
Adjusted R ²	.368	.187	.289
F Value	282.88***	112.56***	198.12***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Individualized Consideration	.617***	.442***	.527***
\mathbb{R}^2	.380	.195	.119
Adjusted R ²	.379	.187	.117
F Value	296.75***	117.57***	186.16***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Intellectual Stimulation	.572***	.396***	.454***
\mathbb{R}^2	.327	.157	.206
Adjusted R ²	.326	.155	.204
F Value	234.85***	89.77***	125.19***

Independent Variables: Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Individualized Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation **Dependent Variables** Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment

The single regression analysis conducted between factors of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Table 17 shows these results.

^{*}P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

Idealized influence significantly predicts affective (β =.645 P< .001) continuance (β =.449 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.558 P< .001). Inspirational motivationsignificantly predicts affective (β =.607 P< .001) continuance (β =.434 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.539 P< .001). Individualized considerationsignificantly predicts affective (β =.617 P< .001) continuance (β =.442 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.527 P< .001).Intellectual stimulation significantly predicts affective (β =.572 P< .01) continuance (β =.396 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.454 P< .001).

3.7.5.5. The Relationship between Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment: Single Regression Analysis

The fifth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "transactional leadership effects organizational commitment". In order to test this single regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13
Results of the Single Regression Analysis Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Contingent Reward	.618***	.430***	.524***
\mathbb{R}^2	.381	.185	.275
Adjusted R ²	.380	.183	.273
F Value	298.29***	109.27***	182.91***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Management by Exception Active	.245***	.237***	.282***
\mathbb{R}^2	.060	.056	.079
Adjusted R ²	.058	.054	.077
F Value	30.76***	28.59***	41.50***
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Management by Exception by Passive	.197**	.089	.154**
\mathbb{R}^2	.039	.008	.024
Adjusted R ²	.037	.006	.022
F Value	19.53***	3,82	11.75**
Predictor	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Laissez-Faire	.386**	.282***	.328***
\mathbb{R}^2	.149	.080	.108
Adjusted R ²	.147	.078	.106
Aujusteu K	.1 17	.0,0	

Independent Variables: Contingent Reward Management by Exception Active-Passive, Laissez-Faire **Dependent Variables** Affective, Continuance, Normative Commitment

The single regression analysis conducted between factors of transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Table 18 shows these results. Contingent reward significantly predicts affective (β =.618 P< .001) continuance (β =.430 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.524 P< .001). Management by Exception-Active significantly predicts affective (β =.245 P< .001) continuance (β =.237 P< .001)and normative commitment (β =.282 P< .001). Management by Exception-Passive significantly predicts affective (β =.197 P< .01) and normative commitment (β =.154

^{*}P<0,05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

P< .001). Laissez-Faire significantly predicts affective (β = .386 P< .01) continuance (β = .282 P< .001) and normative commitment (β = .328 P< .001)

3.7.5.6. The Role of Empowerment as a Mediator between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment: Three Stage Multiple Regression Analysis

Empowerment is shown as a mediator in Figure 3. In order to test the mediating influence, Empowerment was tested in a three stage multiple regression analysis (Caliguiri, Hyland, Joshi & Bross, 1998). In this analysis, first the influence of the independent variable on the mediator was examined. If the result is significant, the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variables is analyzed in the second step; the third step is carried out if the results are significant. In the third step the independent variable and the mediator are entered into the model together. If the mediating variable predicts the dependent variables significantly and the significance found in the first step of the analysis is found insignificant mediating role of the mediator variable is partially accepted or if the independent variable disappears in the third step, then the mediating role is fully accepted.

The sixth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "the influence of transformational leadership on organizational commitment would be lower than the influence of empowerment on organizational commitment when the empowerment intervenes". In order to test this hypothesis three stage regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14
Results of the Three Stage Multiple Regression Analysis for The Role of Empowerment as a Mediator between Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

First Step	Empowerment	Empowerment	Empowerment
Predictors	Meaning	Competence	Impact &S. Determination
Idealized Influence	.068	281*	.170
Inspirational Motivation	.088	.075	.087
Individual Consideration	.317***	.285***	.258**
Inspirational Stimulation	.044	.068	067
\mathbb{R}^2	.240	.034	.189
Adjusted R ²	.234	.026	.183
F Value	37.99***	4.27**	28.09***

Second Step Predictors	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Idealized Influence	.303***	.148	.314***
Inspirational Motivation	.201**	.177*	.258***
Individual Consideration	.157*	.173*	138**
Inspirational Stimulation	.044	.001	111
\mathbb{R}^2	.440	.220	.336
Adjusted R ²	.435	.214	.331
F Value	94.40***	33.97***	60.97***

Third Step			
Predictors	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Idealized Influence	.261**	.083	.269**
Inspirational Motivation	.168**	.152*	.230**
Individual Consideration	n .050	.093	.043**
Inspirational Stimulation	n .046	.011	113
Empowerment Meaning	.209***	.162***	.251***
Empowerment Compete	nce002	075	037
Empowerment Impact &	Z.		
Self-Determination	.161***	.193***	.100***
\mathbb{R}^2	.510	.275	.398
Adjusted R ²	.503	.264	.389
R ² difference	.070	.055	.062
F Value	71.09***	25.85**	45.08**

Independent Variables: Transformational Leadership and Empowerment **Dependent Variables** Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment *P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

Three stage multiple regression analysis showed that empowerment has no full mediation on Organizational Commitment. For affective commitment it can be concluded that empowerment partially mediated the relationship between

Transformational Leadership -namely *individual consideration*- and Affective Organizational Commitment is mediated. That is, in the second step of the analysis transformational leadership factors' Beta coefficients were found to be significant; .303 (p<.001) .201(p<.01) .157 (p<.05) respectively. In the final step of the regression analyses Meaning, Impact & Self Determination were significantly predicted Affective Commitment. However, in the third step, although continue to be significant, the Beta coefficients of transformational leadership factors decreased. In addition, individual consideration became insignificant in the third step of the regression analysis (β = .050 p>.05). Results showed that transformational leadership is a significant predictor of Organizational Commitment. Empowerment has a partially mediating role between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis about the mediating role of Empowerment was partially confirmed.

3.7.5.7. The Role of Empowerment as a Mediator between Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment: Three Stage Multiple Regression Analysis

The seventh hypothesis of our research was as follows: "the influence of transactional leadership on organizational commitment would be lower than the influence of empowerment on organizational commitment when the empowerment intervenes". In order to test this hypothesis three stage regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15
Results of the Three Stage Multiple Regression Analysis for The Role of Empowerment as a Mediator between Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment

First Step	Empowerment	Empowerment	Empowerment
Predictors	Meaning	Competence	Impact &S. Determination
Contingent Reward	.482***	.108*	.475***
Mng by Exception Ac	etive .035	.046	.052
Mng by Exception Page	ssive.122*	019	038
Laissez-Faire	165**	085	170**
\mathbb{R}^2	.220	.013	.184
Adjusted R ²	.213	.005	.177
F Value	33.85***	1.64	27.14***

Second Step			
Predictors	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Contingent Reward	.576***	.371***	.462***
Mng by Exception Ac	tive010	.069	.080
Mng by Exception Pa	ssive064	129*	074
Laissez-Faire	.130**	.143*	107*
\mathbb{R}^2	.390	.205	.288
Adjusted R ²	.385	.198	.282
F Value	77.01***	30.94***	48.71***

Third Step Predictors	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Commitment	Commitment	Commitment
Contingent Reward	.360***	.175***	.261***
Mng by Exception Acti	ve025	.059	.068
Mng by Exception Pass	ive087*	147**	105*
Laissez-Faire	.201***	.203***	.172**
Empowerment Meaning Empowerment Compete Empowerment Impact & Self-Determination	ence .003	.209*** 075 .214***	.294*** 044 .132**
R ² Adjusted R ² R ² difference F Value	.510 .503 .120 71.09***	.284 .274 .079 27.13**	.380 .371 .092 41.83**

Independent Variables: Transactional Leadership and Empowerment **Dependent Variables** Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment *P<0.05 ** P < 0.01 ***P < 0.001

Three stage multiple regression analysis showed that empowerment has no mediation between transactional leadership and Organizational Commitment. For each type of commitment in the final step of the regression analyses transactional leadership continue to be significant predictor of organizational commitment. Rather than mediating role empowerment has a moderating role between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis about the mediating role of Empowerment was not confirmed.

3.7.5.8. The Moderating Effect of Demographic Variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) of the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment: Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis

The eighth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "the demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization)moderates the relationship between Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment". In order to test this hypothesis Hierarchical Linear Regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16
Results of the Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis forModerating Effect of Demographic Variables on the Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Commitment

Predictors	В	Beta	Adjusted R ²	R ² Difference	F
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.438	.662***	.437	.438	377,24***
Age	.448	.662***	.435	.010	8,40***
Step 2					
Transformational Leadership x Age	.448	.669	.445	.000	,273
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.438	,656***	.437	.438	377,25***
Total Work Experience	.453	,124***	.451	.015	13,58***
Step 2		ŕ			ŕ
Transformational Leadership x Total Work Experience	.453	.00	.450	,000	,007
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.662	.662***	.437	.438	377,24***
Tenure in the Organization	.673	.124***	.451	.015	13,58***
Step 2					- ,
Transformational Leadership	.685	.175***	.467	.016	14,95***
x Tenure in the Organization					,
Step 1					
Transactional Leadership	.454	.458***	.206	.206	125,46***
Age	.470	.122**	.015	.023	9,25***
Step 2					
Transactional Leadership x Age	.474	.288	.003	,004	2,12
Step 1 Transactional Leadership	.454	.460***	.206	.206	125,46***
Transactional Leadership	.434	.400	.200	.200	
Total Work Experience	.478	.151***	.229	.023	14,32***
Step 2					
Transactional Leadership x	.482	.230	.233	,004	2,41
Total Work Experience					
Step 1					
Transactional Leadership	.454	.449***	.204	.206	125,46***
Tenure in the Organizationa	.491	.189***	.238	.036	14,32***
Step 2	40.4	4	•••	0.00	- 44
Transactional Leadership x Tenure in the Organiation	.494	.165	.239	,000	2,41

^{**} p<.01; *** p<.001

Hierarchical Linear Regression analyses were conducted to understand the moderating role of demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) on the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment.

Table 16 shows the results of age, total work experience and tenure in the organization as moderator variables between leadership and commitment. Results showed no moderating role of these demographic variables except for the **tenure in the organization**. Specifically increased tenure in the organization explains more variance in the organizational commitment.

3.7.5.9.The Moderating Effect of Demographic Variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization)of the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Empowerment:Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis

The eighth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "the demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) moderates the relationship between Leadership Styles and Empowerment" In order to test this hypothesis Hierarchical Linear Regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17
Results of the Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis forModerating Effect of Demographic Variables on the Relationship Between Leadership Stylesand Empowerment

Predictors	В	Beta	Adjusted R ²	R ² Difference	F
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.476	.474***	.225	.227	141,80***
Age	.509	.182***	.257	.033	21,51***
Step 2					
Transformational Leadership x Age	.510	125	.256	.001	,646
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.476	.474***	.225	.227	144,80***
Total Work Experience	.516	.200***	.264	.040	11,38***
Step 2					
Transformational Leadership x Total Work Experience	.520	169	.265	,003	2,14
Step 1					
Transformational Leadership	.476	.473***	.225	.227	377,24***
Tenure in the Organization	.494	.133**	.241	.018	13,58***
Step 2					
Transformational Leadership x Tenure in the Organization	.499	186	.244	.004	2,76
Step 1					
Transactional Leadership	.168	.175***	.026	.028	14,04***
Age	.256	.193**	.062	.037	19,29***
Step 2					
Transactional Leadership x Age	.256	.028	.060	,000	0,16
Step 1 Transactional Leadership	.168	.177***	.026	.028	14,04***
•					
Total Work Experience	.271	.213***	.070	.045	23,65***
Step 2					
Transactional Leadership x Total Work Experience	.271	.000	.068	,000	,000
Step 1					
Transactional Leadership	.168	.165***	.026	.028	14,04***
Tenure in the Organization	.219	.141**	.044	.020	10,01***
Step 2 Transactional Leadership x Tenure in the Organization	.221	.105	.043	,001	,429

^{**} p<.01; *** p<.001

Hierarchical Linear Regression analyses were conducted to understand the moderating role of demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) on the relationship between leadership and empowerment. Table 17shows

the results of age, total work experience and tenure in the organization as moderator variables between leadership and empowerment. Results showed no moderating role of these demographic variables.

3.7.5.10. The Moderating Effect of Demographic Variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) of the Relationship between Empowerment and Organizational Commitment: Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis

The nineth hypothesis of our research was as follows: "the demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) moderates the relationship between Empowerment and Organizational Commitment". In order to test this hypothesis Hierarchical Linear Regression was conducted. Results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18
Results of the Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis forModerating Effect of Demographic Variables on the Relationship Between Empowerment and Organizational Commitment

Predictors	В	Beta	Adjusted R ²	R ² Difference	F
Step 1					
Empowerment	.646	.542***	.292	.294	100,79***
Age	.000	.004	.291	.001	,
Step 2					
Empowerment x Age	.004	.231	.291	.001	.517
Step 1					
Empowerment	.647	.543***	.293	.294	201,99***
Total Work Experience	.002	.020	.292	.000	.275
Step 2					
Empowerment x Total Work	.002	.006	.291	,000	.130
Experience					
G. 1					
Step 1	(0.6	~ 4 A alc alc alc	202	204	001 004444
Empowerment	.626	.514***	.293	.294	201,99***
Tenure in the Organization	.014	.046	.307	.015	10,44***
Step 2					
Empowerment x Tenure in the	.002	080.	.305	.000	0,077
Organization					

^{**} p<.01; *** p<.001

Hierarchical Linear Regression analyses were conducted to understand the moderating role of demographic variables (Age, Total Work Experience, Tenure in the Organization) on the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. Table 18 shows the results of age, total work experience and tenure in the organization as moderator variables between empowerment and organizational commitment. Results showed no moderating role of these demographic variables.

3.7.6. Results Regarding the Questions of the Study

The influence of demographic variables (Gender, Marital Status, Education Level and Position at Work) on Leadership Styles, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment were assessed through the questions of the study.

Question 1: Do Leadership styles, Empowerment and Organizational commitment differ according to Gender?

Table 19
Reults of the T-Test of Leadership Styles, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment Differences in terms of Gender

Variables					
		N	Mean	T	Significance
Transformational	Woman	230	3,80	2.40*	.017 <p .05<="" td=""></p>
Leadership	Man	235	3,59		
Transactional	Woman	225	3,69	2.12*	.034 <p .05<="" td=""></p>
Leadership	Man	234	3,56		
Empowerment	Woman	244	4,08	1.88	.141 >P .05
•	Man	242	3,97		
Organizational	Woman	244	3,34	1.47	.061 >P .05
Commitment	Man	242	3,24		

^{*}P<0.05

T-test analyses showed a significant difference between men and women. According to results women have significantly higher levels of transformational leadership ($\overline{X} = 3,80$ P<.05) and transactional leadership ($\overline{X} = 3,69$ P<.05) than men. However, it was found no significant difference in empowerment and organizational commitment.

Question 2: Do Leadership styles, Empowerment and Organizational commitment differ according to Marital Status?

Table 20 Reults of the T-Test of Leadership Styles, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment Differences in terms of Marital Status

Variables					
		N	Mean	T	Significance
Transformational	Married	272	3,70	.155	.877 >P .05
Leadership	Single	192	3,68		
Transactional	Married	269	3,57	-1.68	.093 >P .05
Leadership	Single	189	3,68		
Empowerment	Married	283	4,07	1.90	.058 >P .05
	Single	202	3,96		
Organizational	Married	283	3,33	1.48	.141 >P .05
Commitment	Single	202	3,23		

^{*}P<0,05

T-test analyses showed no significant difference in terms of marital status of the participants.

Question 3: Do Leadership styles, Empowerment and Organizational commitment differ according to Education Level?

Table 21Results of the ANOVA of Leadership Styles, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment Differences in terms of Education Level

	Education	N	Mean	F Value	Significance
Transformational	High School	33	3,85	,647	,585 >P.05
Leadership	University	252	3,69	,	-
•	Master	168	3,64		
	PhD	33	3,82		
Transactional	High School	33	3,74	,825	,481 >P.05
Leadership	University	252	3,63		
	Master	168	3,57		
	PhD	33	3,71		
Empowerment	High School	33	3,90	3,51	,015 <p.05< th=""></p.05<>
•	University	252	4,01		
	Master	168	4,01		
	PhD	33	4,35*		
Organizational	High School	33	3,42	2,06	,104 >P.05
Commitment	University	252	3,28	•	•
	Master	168	3,23		
	PhD	33	3,55		
	Total	486	,		

ANOVA results showed that participants who are PhD graduates have significantly higher levels of empowerment than other respondents ($\overline{X} = 4,35$ P<.05) Results demonstrated no significant difference in terms of leadership and organizational commitment regarding the education level of the respondents.

Question 3: Do Leadership styles, Empowerment and Organizational commitment differ according to Position at Work?

Table 22Results of the ANOVA of Leadership Styles, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment Differences in terms of Position at Work

	Position	N	Mean	F Value	Sig
Transformational	Director	20	4,36*	6,136*	,000
Leadership	Manager	191	3,79		
•	Supervisor	89	3,37		
	Specialist	159	3,63		
	Asst. Specialist	33	3,86		
Transactional	Director	20	3,94	,606	,257
Leadership	Manager	191	3,62		
•	Supervisor	89	3,56		
	Specialist	159	3,60		
	Asst. Specialist	33	3,68		
Empowerment	Director	20	4,72*	21,85*	,000
•	Manager	191	4,24*	•	
	Supervisor	89	3,85		
	Specialist	159	3,85		
	Asst. Specialist	33	3,66		
Organizational	Director	20	4,06*	9,96	,000
Commitment	Manager	191	3,42*	•	Í
	Supervisor	89	3,22		
	Specialist	159	3,09		
	Asst. Specialist	33	3,21		
	Total	486	- 9		

ANOVA results showed that participants who are directors have significantly higher levels of transformational leadership than supervisors and specialists (\overline{X} = 4,36 P<.05) Results demonstrated no significant difference in terms of transactional leadership and regarding the title of the respondents. In addition, participants who are in a managerial position namely directors (\overline{X} = 4,72 P<.001) and managers (\overline{X} = 4,24 P<.001) showed significant difference in terms of empowerment compared to specialists and supervisors. Furthermore, directors (\overline{X} = 4,06 P<.001) and managers (\overline{X} = 3,42 P<.001) were found to have significantly higher levels of organizational commitment than the other respondents.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this last chapter, the research findings of the study will be evaluated and discussed by referring to the research questions and purposes of the study. The outcomes of the data analysis of this study which is limited with our sample and the studies in the related literature will be compared. The practical implications of the findings will be discussed under "Theorethical and Practical Recommendations". Last, suggestions for future research will be presented.

4.1. Conclusions and Discussions

The main purpose of the present dissertation was to examine the association between transformational/transactional leadership and organizational commitment by focusing on psychological empowerment. The results showed a positive correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. However, findings did not show a significant mediation of empowerment.

As part of our findings, it was found that there is a significant and positive relationship between all dimensions of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) and all dimensions of empowerment (competence, meaning and Impact & Self- Determination). Our results are consistent with the results of Özarallı (2003), Kark et. al (2003), Ceylan et. al. (2005), Arslantaş (2007), Boonyarit et. al. (2010), Men (2010), Shah et. al. (2011) and Ismail et. al. (2011). In this study; the strongest, positive and significant relationship is between meaning and the dimensions of transformational leadership.

Furthermore, as part of our findings it was found that there is a significant and positive relationship between contingent reward and meaning and impact & self determination; management by exception- active and impact & self- determination; management by exception- passive and meaning; laissez- faire and meaning. Also if compared, the positive and significant relationship between contingent reward and meaning was found to be stronger than the relationship between cotingent reward and impact & self-determination. According to our findings, none of the transactional leadership dimensions significantly predicted competence. These results are consistent with the results of Lawler, 1992; Spreitzer, 1995.

The results of the present showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between all dimensions of empowerment (competence, meaning and Impact & Self-Determination) and all dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). Results suggest that differences in employee levels of organizational commitment maybe explained in part by the differences in how empowered employees feel with respect to working with their more senior and indirect supervisor. The results of the our study have similar findings with the earlier work of Spreitzer, where individual behavior is influenced and psychological empowerment emerges as an antecedent to organizational commitment in Turkish context. Numerous researchers have recognized a relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment, claiming that employees who feel empowered are more likely to reciprocate by being more committed to their organization. These results are also consistent with the results of Hanold, 1997; Koberg et. al. 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Linden et. al, 2000; Sigler & Pearson, 2000; Chan, 2003; Jansen, 2004; Avolio et. al., 2004; Bhatnagar, 2005; Şahin, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2008; Allanazarov, 2008; Özbek, 2008; Demiral, 2008; Erdem, 2009; Boonyarit et. al, 2010; Tuğ, 2010; Jha, 2010; Mujka, 2011 and Tolay et. al, 2012 in that empowered employees appear to be more likely to reciprocate with higher levels of commitment to their organization.

The results of current study demonstrated that there is a significant and positive relationship between all dimensions transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) and all dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment). As predicted, the transformational leadership has strong positive relationships with affective commitment that were significantly larger than that involving continuance commitment or normative commitment. This finding is consistent with the view that the inspirational aspects of transformational leadership enhance affective commitment but not the other less emotion-based aspects of commitment. The strong correlations should also be emphasized because they suggest that transformational leadership is a significantly better predictor of affective commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). These results are consistent with the results of Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Hayward et. al., 2004; Yavuz, 2008; Tuna, 2009; Boonyarit et. al., 2010; Çakınberk & Demirel, 2010; Kırılmaz & Kırılmaz, 2010; Farahani et. al.

2011; Shah et. al., 2011; Gao& Bai, 2011; Riaz et. al., 2011; Ismail et. al., 2011; Hemedoğlu & Evliyaoğlu, 2012; Rehman et. al, 2012.

The findings of our study showed that among other dimensions, findings showed a strong relationship between contingent reward and all dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative commitment); management by exception - active and all dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative commitment); Laissez- faire and all dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, normative commitment) and management by exception- passive and affective & normative organizational commitment. Conceptually, it is difficult to explain why leaders who rely heavily on differential rewards should not engender high levels of continuance commitment in their subordinates. A retrospective explanation relates to the specific nature of the continuance commitment item content. In particular, as noted elsewhere (cited in Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; McGee & Ford, 1987), this scale contains items reflecting both the accumulated benefits that would be lost by leaving and one's perception of the number of alternative employment options that exist. These results are consistent with the results of Yavuz, 2008; Tuna, 2009 and Rehman et. al., 2012; but our results are not consistent with the results of Cakınberk & Demirel, 2010.

Furthermore, as part of our findings it was found that empowerment has a partially mediating role between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis about the mediating role of empowerment was partially confirmed. This result is consistent with the result of Givens, 2011.

Moreover, findings indicate that a more complete understanding of what drives levels of employee commitment may need to include some focus on how empowered followers feel within their work roles and the relationship they have with both indirect and direct supervisors. Transformational leaders place emphasis on the meaning of tasks that followers engage in at work. Results demonstrated that by empowering employees transformational leaders may also be fostering their trust in their followers' capability, therefore creating opportunities for them to significantly impact their work, which could lead to higher levels of identification with and commitment to the organization.

Our results suggest that differences in employee levels of organizational commitment maybe explained in part by the differences in how empowered employees feel with respect to working with their more senior and indirect supervisor. The findings are similar to the prior research (e.g., Kanter, 1983; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Wayne, Liden & Sparrowe 2000) in that empowered employees appear to be more likely to reciprocate with higher levels of commitment to their organization.

The results of the present study showed that empowerment has a moderating role between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Therefore, the hypothesis about the mediating role of empowerment was not confirmed. According to the literature, all of the studies are focused on the mediating effect of empowerment between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. We could not find out a study which was focused on the mediating effect of empowerment between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

Finally, most of the theories of leadership were developed in North America. From a cultural point of view, since most empirical evidence on the effects of transformational/ transactional leadership has been more confined to the Western societies than in the other countries, the present study, therefore, continues and extends this line of inquiry by examining the effects of transformational/transactional leadership on employees' empowerment and organizational commitment attitudes in non-Western societies. The results also confirm Bass's (1985, 1995) claim about the universality of the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm across different nations and societies.

Bass suggested that the same conception of phenomenon and relationships can be observed in a wide range of organizations and cultures in different parts of the world. He stated that when exceptions to the generalisations occur, they are usually circumstances explained by the peculiarities of the organizations and cultures (Bass, 1995). Hofstede (1991) showed that cultural differences exist between Turkey and Western societies: Turkey has a a higher score on collectivism and power distance than Western countries like Canada, the US, and The Netherlands. The findings of the present study showed that in spite of the cultural differences, transformational and transactional leadership is not necessarily confined to the Western world.

The results of the current study showed no moderating role of these demographic variables (age, total work experience, tenure in the Organization) except for the tenure in the organization

The results of the present studydemonstrated that women have significantly higher level of perception of transformational leadership and transactional leadership than men. However, it was found no significant difference in empowerment and organizational commitment. As in the present study, most research on gender and leadership has been carried out by applying the sociodemographic definition of gender. Thus, a substantial amount of studies have been conducted examining how men and women differ from one another in their leadership style, behavior, and effectiveness. With respect to this, results of the present study showed that women have significantly higher levels of perception of transformational and transactional leadership than men. In a meta-analysis, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) investigated the differences between men and women on transformational leadership. Women were found to be more transformational than men as evaluated both by self- and others' reports. In addition, women were found to have higher scores than men on contingent reward and lower on active and passive management by exception and laissez faire leadership. However, transformational leadership may not be as effective when used by women leaders as when used by men. For example, Ayman, Korabik, and Morris (2009) found that the higher women's transformational behavior was in terms of intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration, the less effective their men, but not their women, subordinates thought they were as leaders. These findings from the literature provide support for the present study.

This study has importance for people who are practicing and/or teaching leadership and its personal outcomes empowerment and organizational commitment, respectively.

The literatur in leadership studies give more emphasis to transformational leadership than transactional leadership. As Bass asserted effective leaders make use of both type of leadership styles.

To our knowledge, this study is the first one in Turkey which is conducted on Pharmaceutical industy. The pharmaceutical industry plays a vital role in underpinning the economic development of a country. In order to gain the competitive advantage and adopt to the dramatic changing environment and the regulations & procedures of Ministry of Health, it should be important for Pharmaceutical Industry to achieve management efficiency by increasing the level of empowerment and organizational commitment. We also tried to mention transactional leadership has an important role in increasing the level of employee empowerment and commitment like transformational leadership.

We hypothesized that empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leaddership and organizational commitment; but we have found out that empowerment did not fully mediate; but partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Furthermore, we hypothesized that empowerment mediated the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment; but we found out that empowerment had no mediating effect on the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

Most of the theories of leadership were developed in North America. Most empirical evidence on the effects of transformational/ transactional leadership has been more confined to the Western societies than in the other countries. This study was also important to revalidate the effects of transformational/transactional leadership on employees' empowerment and organizational commitment attitudes in non-Western societies; but in a different sector.

4.2. Theorethical and Practical Recommendations

According to the results of our study, transformational and transactional leadership styles both play a role to increase the empowerment level of employees; but if compared the effect of transformational leadership is more than the effect of transactional leadership. Also, according to our results empowerment just like transformational and transactional leadership styles increases the level of employees' organizational commitment. The results show that empowerment partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Furthermore, empowerment has a moderating affect on the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment rather than mediating effect. In the light of our finding we may say that creating a greater sense of empowerment, more senior leaders could have a more positive indirect effect on levels of organizational commitment at subsequent levels within their respective organizations. In a less hierarchical organization, the transformational leadership especially middle level management may have more interdependence to empower their immediate followers. To promote greater feelings of psychological empowerment, top management should clearly articulate a vision that inspires employees to take greater responsibility for their work at all organizational levels. Goal clarification, and a clear specification of tasks, roles, and rewards, perhaps at the more immediate supervisory level, may also facilitate feelings of empowerment among employees.

Future studies should consider employing multiple sources of data collection, with variables collected at different times. Moreover, this type of research can be conducted by using hierarchical linear modeling so that leader-follower attitudes can be compared and contrasted.

Future research needs to collect ratings of leadership, empowerment, and outcomes from multiple sources over time to adequately test the mediating effects of psychological empowerment on the relationship between transformational/transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Future research also needs to investigate the effects of variables that were not measured in the present study, which can also directly or indirectly influence feelings of empowerment, such as the organization's structure, climate, and/or culture (Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Spreitzer, 1996;

Spreitzer, Janasz, & Quinn, 1999). Moreover, interviewing each level of supervision might provide insights into how the middle-level manager is perceived as empowering their immediate followers. Also, future research should be performed by random sampling method instead of convinence sampling method.

APPENDICES

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, liderlik özellikleri, örgütsel bağlılık ve güçlendirme arasındaki ilişkiyi

araştırmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Size sunulan bu anket formu, T.C. Okan Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme

Yönetimi Doktora Programı tezi için hazırlanmıştır olup, bilimsel bir çalışma

niteliğindedir.

Anket dört bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk bölümde sizinle ilgili kişisel bilgiler yer

almaktadır. İkinci bölümde **şu andaki** yöneticinizin davranışlarıyla ilgili sorulara ilişkin

anket maddeleri yer almaktadır. Anketin üçüncü bölümünde örgütsel bağlılığa ve

dördüncü bölümünde güçlendirmeye yönelik sorular bulunmaktadır. Her bir ifadeye ne

denli katıldığınızı ilgili kutucuğa (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

Araştırmada yanıtlarınız ve aktardığınız veriler, bilimsel ahlaka uygun olarak gizlilik ve

güven ilkelerine bağlı kalınarak sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir.

Verilerin doğru toplanması ve yapılacak istatistik analizlerinin anlamlı çıkması

açısından hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmamanızı önemle rica ederim.

Ankete değerli zamanınızı ayırarak gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve katkıdan ötürü teşekkürlerimi

sunarım.

Sinem Aydoğdu

T.C. Okan Üniversitesi

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

İşletme Yönetimi Programı Doktora Öğrencisi

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EK I: KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

Cinsiyetiniz	Kadın Erkek
Yaşınız	
Medeni Durumunuz	Evli Bekar
En son mezun olduğunuz ya da halen eğitiminizi sürdürdüğünüz eğitim kurumu	Lise Üniversite Yüksek Lisans Doktora
Pozisyonunuz	Üst Düzey Yönetici (Yönetim Kurulu Başkanı, Genel Müdür) Orta Düzey Yönetici (Müdür, Müdür Yard., Şef, vs.) Alt Düzey Yönetici (Takım Lideri, Süpervizör, vs.) Uzman Uzman Yardımcısı (belirtiniz: Diğer
Kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz	
Kaç yıldır şu an çalıştığınız firmada bulunmaktasınız	

EK II : Çok Faktörlü Liderlik Ölçeği

Anketin amacı şu andaki yöneticinizin, sizin algıladığınız liderlik davranışlarının tanımlanmasıdır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifade ve soruların <u>hiç birisini boş bırakmayarak</u> tamamını işaretleyiniz. Bu anket sizden basitçe şu andaki yöneticinizin davranışını mümkün olabildiğince doğru tanımlamanızı istemektedir.

Eğer yönetici (müdür, müdür yard.) pozisyonundaysanız, anketi doldururken kendinizi ya da bir üst amiriniz (varsa) değerlendirmeniz gerekmektedir.

Soldaki sütunlardan birisine **şu andaki yöneticiniz** için her bir ifadeye ne denli katıldığınızı ilgili kutucuğa (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

ÇOK FAKTÖRLÜ LİDERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ		Sadece bir kere	Bazen	Oldukça Sık	Her zaman
Onunla çalışmak zevklidir.	Hiçbir zaman	Sake	Ä	0	Н
Önem verdiği değerleri, inançları bizimle paylaşır.					
Geleceğe olumlu bakar.					
Kritik varsayımların planlanana uygun olup olmadığını sürekli inceler.					
Benim için konulan performans standartlarını tutturduğumda ne beklemem gerektiğini açıkça söyler.					
Hatalarımız konusunda bizi daima uyarır.					
Sorunlar ciddiyet kazanıncaya kadar karışmaz.					
Önemli bir konu karşısında karışmaktan çekinir.					
Bana grubun herhangi bir üyesi olarak değil de bir birey olarak davranır.					
Grubun iyiliği için kendi önceliklerinden vazgeçer.					
Güçlü bir amaca sahip olmanın önemini belirtir.					
Hedeflerimize ulaşabileceğimize güvendiğini belli eder.					
İçimdeki çabayı ve hevesi gördüğünde bana destek olur.					
Zamanı "söndürülecek yangınlar" arayarak geçirir.					

ÇOK FAKTÖRLÜ LİDERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ	Hiçbir zaman	Sadece bir kere	Bazen	Oldukça Sık	Her zaman
Harekete geçmesi için işlerin kötüye gitmiş olması gerekir.					
Gerektiğinde ortada yoktur.					
Problemler karşısında farklı bakış açıları ortaya koyabilir.					
Kendimi geliştirmeye beni yönlendirir.					
Davranışları ona saygı duymama neden olur.					
Kararlarının ahlaki, etik sonuçlarını dikkate alır.					
Performans hedeflerimize ulaştığımızda uygun şekilde ödüllendirilmemizi sağlar.					
Yaptığım hataları asla unutmaz.					
Mecbur kalmadıkça tedbir almanın gereksizliğine inanır.					
Ulaşmamız gereken hedefleri büyük şevkle anlatır.					
Karar vermekten kaçınır.					
İşimizi nasıl yaptığımıza farklı yönlerden bakmamızı önerir.					
Başkalarını yetiştirmek, onlara yeni şeyler öğretmek onun için önemlidir.					
Tavırları güç ve güven hissi verir.					
Yapılan iyi işi daima takdir eder.					
Hedefe ulaşmadaki başarısızlıklar asla gözünden kaçmaz.					
Ortak bir misyona sahip olmanın önemini vurgular.					
Harekete geçmesi için problemlerin kronikleşmesi gerekir.					
Acil sorulara cevap vermeyi geciktirir.					
Gelecekle ilgili düşleriyle bizi peşinden sürükler.					
Sorunlara çok farklı açılardan bakmamı sağlar.					
Her birimize farklı ihtiyaçları, yetenekleri olan bireyler olarak yaklaşır.					

EK III: Örgütsel Bağlılık Ölçeği

ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIK ÖLÇEĞİ	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Meslek hayatımın geri kalan kısmını çalışmakta olduğum kurumda geçirmek beni mutlu eder.					
Çalıştığım kurumun sorunlarını gerçekten kendi sorunlarımmış gibi hissediyorum.					
Kendimi çalıştığım kuruma ait hissediyorum.					
Kendimi çalıştığım kuruma "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissediyorum.					
Kendimi çalıştığım kurumda "ailenin bir parçası" olarak görüyorum.					
Çalıştığım kurum benim için çok şey ifade ediyor.					
Şu anda kendi isteğimden ziyade mecburiyetten dolayı bu kuruluşta çalışıyorum					
İstesem de şu anda çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmak çok zor olur.					
Şu anda çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılacak olsam hayatım sekteye uğrar.					
Dışarıdaki iş imkanları az olduğu için çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum.					
Çalıştığım kuruma kendimden o kadar çok şey verdim ki, buradan ayrılmayı düşünemiyorum.					
Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmamın olumsuz sonuçlarından biri de dışarıdaki iş imkanlarının az olması olabilir.					
Bu kurumda çalışmaya devam etmek için zorunluluk hissetmiyorum.					
Benim için avantajlı da olsa şu anda çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını düşünüyorum.					
Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılırsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.					
Çalıştığım kurum sadakat gösterilecek bir kurumdur.					
Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için çalıştığım kurumdan şu an ayrılamam.					
Çalıştığım kuruma çok şey borçluyum.					

EK IV: Güçlendirme Ölçeği

PSİKOLOJİK GÜÇLENDİRME	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
Yaptığım iş benim için çok önemlidir.					
İşimle ilgili yaptığım faaliyetler benim için anlamlıdır.					
Bir bütün olarak düşündüğümde işim bana anlamlı gelmektedir.					
İşimi yapacak yeteneğe sahip olduğuma inanıyorum					
İşimle ilgili faaliyetleri gerçekleştirecek kapasiteye sahip olduğumdan eminim.					
İşimin gerektirdiği beceriler konusunda kendimi geliştirdim.					
İşimi nasıl yapacağımı önemli ölçüde kendim belirlerim.					
İşimi nasıl yürüteceğime kendim karar veririm.					
İşimi özgürce yapabilmem için önemli fırsatlar verilmiştir.					
Departmanımdaki gelişen olaylar üzerinde etkim büyüktür.					
Departmanımdaki gelişen olaylar önemli ölçüde kontrolüm altındadır.					
Departmanımdaki gelişen olaylar üzerinde önemli ölçüde söz sahibiyim.					

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