

# **The Role of Leadership Styles toward Intrapreneurial Career Success in Higher Education Institutions of Pakistan**



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**By**

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my supervisor, parents, wife, and sweet little daughter and sister, because of their prayers and love I am successful in my life. May God give them a long and healthy life, Ameen.

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## Abbreviations

Well-known abbreviation not expanded: CEO

|         |                                                    |
|---------|----------------------------------------------------|
| AVE     | average variance extracted                         |
| CB-SEM  | covariance-based structural equation modeling      |
| CR      | composite reliability                              |
| CSR     | corporate social responsibility                    |
| EL      | ethical Leadership                                 |
| HEC     | Higher Education Commission                        |
| HEI     | higher education institution                       |
| HRE     | human resource executive                           |
| I4.0    | fourth industrial revolution                       |
| LMX     | leader member exchange                             |
| PE      | psychological empowerment                          |
| PL      | paternalistic leadership                           |
| PLS     | partial least squares                              |
| PLS-SEM | partial least squares structural equation modeling |
| POS     | perceived organizational support                   |
| RBV     | resource-based view                                |
| SEM     | structural equation modeling                       |
| SET     | social exchange theory                             |
| SME     | small and medium-sized business                    |
| TL      | tactile learning                                   |
| VIF     | variance inflation factor                          |

## **Abstract**

The main concern of this study is to investigate the impact of leadership styles on intrapreneurial career success in the higher education sector. In this regard paternalistic and servant leadership used as independent and intrapreneurial career used as dependent variable. Furthermore, Intrapreneurial behavior was used as a mediating variable and proactive career behavior was used as a moderating variable. In this research, psychological empowerment, paternalistic leadership management, and servant leadership management were used as independent variables, while intrapreneurial career success was used as a dependent variable. Hypotheses were tested in the second stage of the study, which was based on route analysis. The target demographic for this research was the teaching and non-teaching employees of institutions of higher learning in Pakistan. It was decided to employ continent sampling methods to gather data from 384 respondents; the sample size table used was Morgan's sample size table. According to the results of this study, only two direct hypotheses were rejected, which means that there was no significant impact of parental leadership on career success, and servant leadership also had an insignificant impact on psychological empowerment. The mediation analysis found that psychological empowerment did not mediate the relation between servant leadership and intrapreneurial behavior. On the other hand, one of the serial mediations do not exist. First and foremost, the findings of this research demonstrated that workers consider both the objective and subjective domains of career success when assessing their own professional performance. The objective domain of professional success has traditionally been the primary focus of study. Employees' objective career success is mostly assessed by the compensation they receive and the number of promotions they get, whereas their subjective career success is determined by their job and career happiness. As the statistics also reveal, work happiness is the most often reported topic by employees across the board. When comparing today's approach to job success to that of the past, there is a significant change to be seen, particularly when considering the two dimensions. As the barrier

between work and life becomes more blurred, the subjective aspect of success is becoming increasingly crucial.

**Keywords:** *Intrapreneurial Career Success, Intrapreneurial Behavior, Servant and Ethical Leadership, psychological empowerment*

## Chapter One

### Introduction

#### 1. Introduction

Worldwide, the organizational environment changes to support the economy; therefore, to achieve sustainability, establishments have to promote intrapreneurial behavior. According to [Antoncic and Hisrich \(2001\)](#), profitability can be gained by increasing or engaging in intrapreneurial activities; if intrapreneurial activities are low in an organization, then profitability will be low. Furthermore, [Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, and Frese \(2009\)](#) mentioned that intrapreneurial activities can improve employees' career success which, ultimately, affects organizational performance. The international economy is establishing rapid modifications to agencies and industries globally; the reason for this ruthless and inconsistent environment is intrapreneurship ([Lumpkin & Dess, 1996](#)). However, agencies that embody intrapreneurship operate higher than those that do not, but there are some organizational structures and procedures that discourage intrapreneurship, which makes it difficult for personnel to employ new techniques to improve their organization's productivity ([Rauch et al., 2009](#)).

Workers in a large company who are granted independence and assistance to develop new goods, programs, and processes and who do not have to obey the normal procedures or policies of the company are known as intrapreneurs. According to prior analysis, it has been recognized that management assistance is one of the most necessary organizational elements that have an impact on intrapreneurship ([Elenkov & Manev, 2005](#)). Management assistance refers to making decisions in order to ease and inspire intrapreneurship, supporting progressive ideas, and offering assets. It seems plausible, correctly, that the management style of employers will play a critical role in promoting employees' intrapreneurship ([Mahmoud, Ahmad, & Poespowidjojo, 2020](#); [Slamti, 2020](#)). Nevertheless, the influence of leaders on merchandising intrapreneurship has not been studied. Consequently, research is required to inspect a link between different styles of managerial leadership and the

intrapreneurial behavior of staff. However, “change management” has largely caught the attention of academics over the past two millennia, in the midst of organizational science management theories ([Özsungur, 2020a](#)). Transformational management has strongly linked worker behaviors, including complex, creative work that is circuitously related to intrapreneurship, with leadership practices in organizations. In fact, organizational identity, which is influenced by management, has a fundamental and direct effect on the behavior of workers and the overall success of an organization ([He & Hui, 2020](#)). According to how individuals see their organization, their consciousness and productivity are largely based on their sense of belonging to the business. In this respect, the achievements and losses of companies are regarded as the accomplishments and losses of individuals ([Özsungur, 2019](#)). Furthermore, effective leadership is entirely reliant on striking a balance between the self-confidence of employees and the interests and goals of the business in order to improve the conduct of employees toward the organization. Current study support the claim that leadership styles is increase the subordinate as well as organizational performance, therefore, workers leadership style indirectly increase the abilities of employees.

Known alternatively as intrapreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship is a set of strategic business activities that are primarily focused on finding and developing new company opportunities via innovation and corporate venture capital ([Chen & Nadkarni, 2017](#); [Zahra, 1996](#)). Internal entrepreneurship is an established and progressing subject in management and entrepreneurship study, with a long history of success. Many studies on intrapreneurship focused on the framework and historical context of intrapreneurship, as well as on the influences of intrapreneurship at the organizational level, leaving individual factors such as behaviors and their relationship with management practices to be explored more thoroughly ([Kuratko, Hornsby, & Covin, 2014](#); [Zahra, 1996](#)). According to [Heavey and Simsek \(2013\)](#), for small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs), intrapreneurship is a valuable instrument for reinvigorating their operations. Further research should be conducted in order to develop or improve present theories that evaluate the

motives for and results of intrapreneurship status and operations ([Bierwerth, Schwens, Isidor, & Kabst, 2015](#)).

### **1.1.Problem Statement**

The most important sector of emerging countries is the services sector, which is considered the highest taxpayer in economies. In this regard, Pakistani universities are categorized as public or private. All Pakistani universities come under the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan, which deals with the upgrading of universities to meet future needs. All the private universities in Pakistan are the subject of this research. Talent is valuable to an organization; organizations guard their talent. Organizations that possess talent capital in abundance are rewarded with improved organizational success. [Horton \(2000\)](#) professed that the real competition among organizations is over the contemporary competencies demonstrated by their employees. [Schwab et al. \(2017\)](#) proclaimed that the fourth industrial revolution (I4.0) will define our work environments and work designs. The transformation brought by technology in the I4.0 phase will significantly outline job profiles ([Kagermann, Wahlster, & Helbig, 2013](#)) and therefore outfit competencies of the present era.

The statement of the research problem is to measure the comparative impact of contemporary competencies on employees' career success. This research thesis studies and establishes the significance of the comparative amplitude and impact of contemporary competencies on the career success of individuals and employees. The thesis will bring forth a framework for organizations to leverage the astounding potential of employees.

In the Pakistani context, the education industry is considered one of the most important sectors in which students from different cultures gather at one place with the aim to develop their career and enhance their leadership skills ([Mahmoud et al., 2020](#)) for business or a job. Over time, the trend of employees being required to diversify in different fields has increased. Private higher education institutions (HEIs) struggle to improve their profitability. In this regard, [Özsungur \(2020b\)](#)

suggested that organizations with intrapreneurial activities gain more profit than organizations that do not have intrapreneurial activities. Moreover, [Antoncic and Hisrich \(2001\)](#) pointed out that organizations that adopt intrapreneurship across diverse fields are more profitable than those that do not adopt or implement intrapreneurship. [Cheng, Chang, Kuo, and Cheung \(2014\)](#) discussed about leadership and proposed that other style also important to discussed style need to be discussed. [Özsungur \(2020a\)](#) explained the relationship between ethical leadership and suggested to take other leadership style. Furthermore, personality traits are an important part of leadership style ([Cheng et al., 2014](#); [Mahmoud et al., 2020](#)). [Lévesque and Stephan \(2020\)](#) called for researchers to investigate different leadership styles in relation to intrapreneurial behavior because it is an under-researched area. Last, but not least, intrapreneurial interrogation with different leadership style are streamline of the research.

## **1.2. Significance of The Study**

This research is contributing to the literature of intrapreneurial career success, by selected the two main leadership qualities such as paternalistic and servant leadership. Furthermore, psychological empowerment, intrapreneurial behavior also included as mediating variables. on the other hand, the main reason of chosen these variables is to improve the performance of HEIs in a variety of ways: even performance is not measured as variable but indirectly improve the performance. In this regard, First, the present study is contributed to the existing literature on leadership, intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success. Second, this study also shed light on the inevitability of intrapreneurial culture and promote the intrapreneurial culture in universities of Pakistan. Third, the current research helpful to increase the performance of research universities through the effective use of leadership and intrapreneurship. This research also supports the improvement of policies regarding intrapreneurial behavior. It is also providing the guidance HEIs to increase profitability as well as employee growth.

### **1.3.Objective of the Study**

- To examine the relationship between perceived paternalistic leadership styles and psychological empowerment.
- To examine the relationship between perceived servant leadership styles and psychological empowerment.
- To examine the relationship between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial behavior.
- To examine the relationship between intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success.
- To examine the role of psychological empowerment as mediate the relationship between perceived paternalistic leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior.
- To examine the role of psychological empowerment, mediate the relationship between perceived servant leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior.
- To examine the mediating role of intrapreneurial behavior mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial career success.
- To examine the role of proactive career behavior as moderate intrapreneurial career success.

### **1.4.Research Questions**

- What is the relationship between perceived paternalistic leadership styles and psychological empowerment?
- What is the relationship between perceived servant leadership styles and psychological empowerment?
- What is the relationship between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial behavior?
- What is the relationship between intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success?
- Does psychological empowerment mediate the relationship between perceived paternalistic leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior?

- Does psychological empowerment mediate the relationship between perceived servant leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior?
- Is there any role of mediating role of proactive intrapreneurial behavior between intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success?

### **1.5.Hypotheses of the Study**

- There is a positive and significant impact of perceived paternalistic leadership styles on psychological empowerment.
- There is a positive and significant impact of perceived servant leadership styles on psychological empowerment.
- There is a positive and significant impact of psychological empowerment on intrapreneurial behavior.
- There is a positive and significant impact of intrapreneurial behavior on intrapreneurial career success.
- There is a significant mediating role of psychological empowerment between perceived paternalistic leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior.
- There is a significant mediating role of psychological empowerment between perceived servant leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior.
- There is a significant mediating role of intrapreneurial behavior between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial career success.
- There is a significant moderating role of proactive career behavior on intrapreneurial career success.

### **1.6. Nature of the study**

Researchers may get a better understanding and interpretation of people's ideas, experiences, and emotions via quantitative research ([Opsal et al., 2016](#)). Researchers may get a thorough understanding of a phenomenon by using the quantitative technique ([Barnham, 2015](#)). The quantitative research approach was deemed inapplicable for this investigation. According to the definition provided by Hoare and Hoe (2013), quantitative studies consist of testing theories or hypotheses and acquiring quantitative data for statistical inference. Therefore, the qualitative

approach was not required for this investigation. Due to the fact that qualitative data was not required for this investigation into employee engagement initiatives, mixed methods research was not used in this investigation. An exploratory case study approach was adopted in this investigation. Researchers may combine a variety of data sources and identify patterns in studies in order to get a more thorough knowledge ([Haddock-Millar, Sanyal, & Müller-Camen, 2016](#); [Yin et al., 2014](#)). In his 2015 paper, Tetnowski argued that case studies should be used because they enable researchers to understand how leaders affect career rather than just identifying whether or not an increase in career occurs. Another kind of study strategy that I examined and ultimately rejected was story research. Understanding the lives of persons necessitates the interpretation of their experiences as told via tales ([Petty, Thomson, & Stew, 2012](#)). It is not always feasible to discover themes from tales about people's lives, however, even though understanding stories about people's lives may provide the impression of being a part of the experience ([Petty et al., 2012](#)). This design was unsuitable because the objective of this research was not to interpret tales. Phenomenological design allows researchers to determine the lived experiences of different stakeholders in several associations using a single data source for each person involved in each organization. This data source is typically interviews before asked to fill the questionnaire for investigate the lived experiences of participants in several organizations ([Marshall & Rossman, 2016](#)). Utilizing upwards of one source of data, as is customary in a single case study, facilitates the conduct of a more in-depth research ([Marshall & Rossman, 2016](#)). As a result, the phenomenological design was found to be less appropriate for this investigation than the case study approach was. Ethnography is used by researchers to investigate the cultural patterns and beliefs of a group of people ([Tetnowski, 2015](#)). Because the major focus of this research was not on organizational culture, an ethnographic design was not the most appropriate option for this project.

## 1.7. Key Terms Definition

### 1.7.1. Paternalistic Leadership (PL)

[Silin \(1976\)](#) observed that during the 1960s, when Taiwan's economy was still in its infancy, the leadership ideas and behavioral styles of firm owner/managers in Taiwan differed remarkably from those of their counterparts in other parts of the world. A year's worth of observation and several interviews at a big private firm in Taiwan led Silin (1976) to this conclusion, which was supported with evidence. Different types of leadership were demonstrated via a range of activities, including instructional and moral uprightness, centralized authority, maintaining a psychological difference from subordinates while keeping intentions unknown, and the use of control methods, among others ([Silin, 1976](#)). In the 1980s, prompted by [Redding and Hsiao \(1990\)](#) conducted in-depth investigations with 72 entrepreneurs; they revealed a distinct economic culture known as Chinese communism, in which paternalism is a significant factor. The presentations of PL by Redding and Hsiao and by Silin were almost identical, but Redding and Hsiao made one important observation: the presence of benevolent leadership in the situation. [Redding and Hsiao \(1990\)](#) remarks were also accompanied by the observation that Chinese cultures have a long history of personalism, which is defined by a proclivity to prioritize personal interests when making judgments. As a result, they claimed that a leader's totalitarianism and benevolence would not be applied uniformly to all subordinates, but rather would be administered differently to different subordinates in different degrees. According to [Westwood \(1997\)](#), who drew on the work of ([Silin, 1976](#)) and ([Redding & Hsiao, 1990](#)), central foreign beaver was given paternalistic headship as a paradigm, which was advocated.

Westwood tried to argue that leadership behavior is verbally expressed by centralized control, low formalization, harmony building, and methodological individualism through the accompanying three stylistic elements of paternalistic headship: centralization, low formalization, harmony establishing, and personalism. Global leadership that is discursive and non-specific in its goals and objectives is exemplified by reputation building and dominance protection, deliberate misinformation, patronage and favoritism, conflict dissemination, aloofness and

social stratification, as well as the dialogue ideal, according to the World Economic Forum. Taiwanese researchers ([Y. C. Cheng & Tam, 1997](#)) employed a number of case studies and questionnaires with quantitative data to explore leadership in family businesses, high-tech industries, schools, and the Taiwanese army. Their research revealed that the practice of PL is pervasive across a broad range of Chinese institutions, including family enterprises, high-tech industries, schools, and the army, among others.

But what exactly is PL, and how does it manifest itself? What is the most important structural component? According to [Farh and Cheng \(2000\)](#), who conducted a comprehensive review of all research conducted since ([Silin, 1976](#)), in the context of personal leadership, PL is characterized as leadership that blends strong discipline as well as authority with fatherly kindness and moral purity, all deeply invested in a personalistic atmosphere. PL is described as having three key components: authoritarianism, compassion, and moral leadership. It is referred to as authoritarianism when a leader's behavior is characterized by the exercise of ultimate authority and control over subordinates and the expectation of unquestioning acquiescence on the part of subordinates. Leaders who are benevolent display customized and comprehensive care for the personal or family well-being of their subordinates via their actions and words. It is possible to describe moral leadership as the behavior of a leader who displays excellent personal traits, such as self-discipline and generosity of spirit, among other characteristics. An evaluation survey instrument for assessing the constructs of PL has been designed in accordance with this concept. Conceptual analysis and previous research conducted by [Farh and Cheng \(2000\)](#) led to the modification of the dyadic leadership questionnaire developed by [B. S. Cheng \(1997\)](#), which was then used to develop the three-dimensional PL scale developed by ([T. Cheng et al., 2000](#)). Also explored was the internal consistency, reliability, and validity of the three parts of PL: providing favors, inspiring amazement or dread, and producing awe or fear. When mid-level supervisors and workers from a range of various kinds of organizations and schools were polled, it was observed that the management functions of superintendents and school administrators could be categorized into three subtypes: sympathetic, moral,

and authoritative leadership styles. The construct validity and internal consistency of the PL scale were both quite high, as was the internal consistency.

PL's cultural origins have been the subject of a few research investigations. [Farh and Cheng \(2000\)](#) stated that authoritarian leadership stems from the traditional culture of communism and natural law, and that this is substantiated by scientific evidence. A father's bond with his child is always viewed as crucial and takes priority over all other social ties under the shadow of Confucianism. To the best of his ability and according to Confucian ideals, a father has complete authority over his spouses and children ([T. Cheng et al., 2000](#)). Conquering and manipulating the political process are highly valued concepts in China's traditionalist philosophy, and they were emphasized and improved during the era of imperial China's climb to power. As a result, authoritarian leadership was promoted, and leaders retained great influence over their subordinates, who were required to obey.

PL in indigenous Chinese civilizations should have some characteristics that are distinct from those of Western leadership notions. [Becker and Morris \(1999\)](#) developed a framework for theory development that utilized both emic and etic approaches. When Western leadership ideas are compared with participatory leadership concepts, it may be feasible to merge indigenous and European leadership models in order to establish universal leadership models. According to conventional leadership thought, a leader's responsibility is transaction, consisting only of managing subordinates by outlining their job tasks and obligations in order to achieve organizational goals and achieve success. Through tailored care, charisma, mental challenge, and inspirational motivation, transformational leaders not only guide subordinates to carry out their responsibilities, but also encourage them to strive for achievements that exceed others' expectations ([Bass, 1985](#)). Transformative leadership was selected as the most well-valued contemporary leadership theory in the Western world after an in-depth assessment of current theoretical approaches to leadership in the Western world ([Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002](#)). As has been shown in innumerable research studies, there is a correlation between transformative leaders and subordinates' performance ([Yukl et al., 2002](#)). In the actual world of business, one of the most pressing concerns is how to develop and nurture a transformative leader for the

organization ([Light, 1998](#)). In Western societies, transformational leadership is derived from distinct leadership theory and research that have developed in different cultural contexts. Transformational leadership and PL are based on substantially different assumptions about the duties and responsibilities of superiors and inferiors, respectively. Transformational leadership and PL have distinct leadership structures as well as various individual styles, which are easily discernible by subordinates and peers. According to [Farh and Cheng \(2000\)](#) paternalistic leader, a transformative leader demonstrates personal charm and intellectual inspiration while maintaining power and control ([Farh & Cheng, 2000](#)) transformational leader ([Bass, 1985](#)). There is a considerable level of resemblance between the two types of leadership discussed here. Personalized care techniques, such as benevolent leadership and transformative leadership, are similar in nature and may be used interchangeably. Some researchers are now investigating the demonstration of integrity by transactional leadership, which is similar to moral leadership ([Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002](#)).

### **1.7.2. Servant leadership**

First and foremost, servant leaders are servant themselves. It all begins with a deep-seated desire to serve others that springs from inside each of us. Then, by making a conscious choice, one may aspire to be a successful leader. When it comes to serving others, the most important test is whether or not the people who are served grow as persons as a consequence of the leader's service. What about the consequences for the most disadvantaged people of society; will they gain or at the very least will they not be further disadvantaged as a result of this policy decision? [Spears \(2010\)](#) was a British novelist who lived from 1977 to 2002 [Quay \(1997\)](#). Serving as the inspiration for the term servant leadership, which was coined by a former AT&T executive in 1970, the notion has since sparked a quiet transformation in the way we think about and practice leadership. After more than a century and a half since its origin, the concept of servant leadership is gradually being recognized as the ideal management style toward which many people and organizations aspire. We are now seeing an unprecedented surge in interest in, and adoption of, servant leadership, something that has never been witnessed before in the history of the human race. The trend toward servant leadership as a method of being in connection with people is accelerating in many businesses and non-profit organizations, which is a great development. Servant leadership must be firmly based in ethical and loving behavior in order to effectively incorporate people in

decision-making processes. Service-oriented leadership encourages the growth of personnel while also enhancing the level of care and the overall quality of performance management. Sometimes, the terms "servant" and "leader" are conceived of as being diametrically opposite to one another. Robert Greenleaf gave rise to the apparently paradoxical notion of "servant leadership" by the planned blending of such principles in a meaningful way, which he developed over time. Serving as an example of rising leadership for the twenty-first century has been a popular subject among many of today's most inventive thinkers. The names of leading leadership authors and advocates can be found today in the field of servant leadership. When it comes to quantum sciences and leadership, Zohar goes so far as to state in her groundbreaking book *Rewiring the Corporate Brain* (1997 pp-15) that "Servant-leadership lies at the heart of quantum thinking and quantum leadership." The following are the 10 qualities of the servant leader that I have found after years of careful consideration of Greenleaf's original writings. These traits, I believe, are crucial to the formation of servant leaders.

Communication and decision-making abilities have always been seen as important characteristics of effective leaders. Despite the fact that these are equally important qualities for the servant leader, they must be accompanied by a strong commitment to paying careful attention to what others are saying in order for the servant leader to be successful. The servant leader is concerned with identifying the will of a group and assisting in the clarification of that will. He or she is receptive to what is being said and what is not being stated to him or her. Hearing one's own inner voice is included in the process of listening. Servant leaders must listen in order to learn and develop their own leadership skills. Listening must be combined with intervals of contemplation.

#### **1.7.2.1. Empathy**

Even though one is compelled to refuse to recognize certain behaviors or competency requirements, everyone at work considers the best intentions of their teammates as well as companions and does not disregard them as persons, even if one is required to do so. Perhaps the most successful servant leaders are those who honed their talents as outstanding empathetic listeners over years of practice.

#### **1.7.2.2. Healing**

It is possible to achieve these goals through re-establishing connections, which is a tremendous force for change and integration in and of itself. One of the most significant benefits of servant leadership is the ability to repair one's personal self as well as one's relationships with others. This is one of the most significant advantages of serving as a servant leader. Many individuals have had their souls torn apart, and, as a consequence of their ordeals, they have suffered from a wide spectrum of emotional scars. Regardless of the fact that trauma is an inextricable element of human experience, servant leaders know that they have the chance to assist individuals with whom they come into contact to heal and be whole again. In his article, "The Servant as Leader," ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) said that "there is something subtle transmitted to one who is being serviced and led if, implicit in the agreement between servant leader and led, is the awareness that the desire for wholeness is something they both share." The essay by Greenleaf is accessible on the Internet.

#### **1.7.2.3. Awareness**

The servant leader is strengthened by a general knowledge of his or her surroundings, and particularly by self-awareness. Being conscious of one's surroundings helps in comprehending concerns including ethics, authority, and values. Having this perspective allows you to see most situations from a more integrated and comprehensive perspective. As ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) pointed out, "Awareness is not a source of comfort; on the contrary, it is a source of distress." It is both a disrupter and an awakening agent. Able leaders are often well-awakened and not too distracted in their daily activities. They are not on the lookout for comfort. They have their own sense of inner tranquility.

#### **1.7.2.4. Persuasion**

Servant leaders depend on persuading rather than on their positional authority as the foundation for their decisions when making decisions inside an organization. Instead of striving to coerce others into compliance, the servant leader attempts to convince them. This particular element serves as one of the most evident differences between the previous significantly enhance and the servant style of leadership, and it is thus worth discussing in the context of the comparison. The servant leader excels in bringing people together in order to achieve a shared point of view. This

emphasis on persuasion rather than coercion has its roots in the doctrines of the Religious Community of Friends (Quakers),

#### **1.7.2.5. Conceptualization**

Servant leaders put forth a lot of effort to develop their capacity to foresee great objectives and see them to completion. In order to conceptualize a problem or an organization from a conceptualizing position, it is important to think beyond the realities of the day. This is a characteristic that many leaders aspire to, but it takes time and work to cultivate over time. It is the desire to attain short-term operational objectives in the shortest period of time possible that consumes the average leader. The leader who wishes to become a servant leader must broaden his or her vision to incorporate a fuller conceptual understanding in order to achieve this goal. Trusteeship boards or directors, by their very nature, play an important part in the formulation of an organization's strategic direction and direction-setting. Because company boards may get involved in day-to-day operations, which is something that should be avoided, they may sometimes fall short of developing a visionary view for an institution, which is something that should be discouraged. In their orientations, trustees must be largely conceptual, whilst staff members must be predominantly operational. The most effective executive executive likely to be able to combine the best aspects of both perspectives within their own personalities. When it comes to their work environments, servant leaders must strike a careful balance between intellectual thinking and a hands on, day-to-day approach that is grounded in reality.

#### **1.7.2.6. Foresight**

The ability to foresee the outcome of a situation in the future is difficult to define, but it is much easier to detect. It is strongly related to the process of conceptualizing. When one has foresight, it is easy to recognize it. Serving as a servant leader requires having foresight, which allows him or her to see and appreciate lessons learned from history, realities of today, and the anticipated consequences of a choice made in the future. It is also profoundly ingrained in the intuitive mind of the individual. Foresight is a topic that has received little attention in leadership studies, despite the fact that it is one of the most important leadership traits.

#### **1.7.2.7. Stewardship**

[Block \(1993\)](#), author of *The Empowered Manager*, defines stewardship as "holding something in trust for the benefit of others." Robert Greenleaf saw all institutions favorably, believing that CEOs, workers, and trustees all played essential roles in holding their companies in trust for the greater good of society. Servant leadership, unlike management, is defined by a commitment to first serve the needs of others. This view emphasizes openness and persuasion above command and control.

#### **1.7.2.8. Commitment to the Growth of People**

Employees' intrinsic value, according to servant leaders, goes beyond the monetary contributions they provide to the organization; so, the servant leader is sincere in his or her dedication to the advancement of all employees. Given his or her enormous duty, the servant leader vows to do all possible to help employees and coworkers improve personally and professionally. This can be accomplished through practical steps, such as making funds available for personal and professional growth, expressing a compassionate desire to participate in the advice and concepts of all employees, trying to encourage worker participation in decision making, and actively assisting laid-off employees in finding new employment.

#### **1.7.2.9. Building Community**

The servant leader feels that the building of communities has been lost in recent history due to the shift from tiny communities to huge institutions shaping human lives. As a result of this realization, the servant leader looks for ways to foster a sense of belonging among individuals who work in a particular organization. Those who work in companies and other organizations may be able to create a meaningful sense of community if they follow the example of servant leadership. ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) stated that all that would be required to rebuild the general public as a viable biological system was for a sufficient number of supplicants to carry the torch, not through street protests, but rather through each steward attempting to exemplify his or her unlimited responsibility for a very specific demographic within the community.

### 1.7.3. Psychological empowerment (PE)

As an additional mediator trying to link personal and situational factors to entrepreneurial orientation, this study draws on expectation that autonomous motivation significantly influences the role of individual goals and employing organization in work behaviors in order to study the relationship between employee engagement and entrepreneurial orientation ([Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017](#)). Previous studies on human resource development have shown that PE is critical in promoting good work attitudes and behaviors among workers ([B.-K. Joo & Shim, 2010](#); [B.-K. B. Joo, Bozer, & Ready, 2019](#); [D. s. Kang & Bartlett, 2013](#)). PE, as a combination of psychological states, is essential for individuals to have a sense of control over their life and their job environments, as well as over their finances ([Spreitzer, 2008](#)); PE is categorized with dimensions ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)). Meaning relates to the importance of a work objective as determined by one's own criteria, while self-determination refers to one's feeling of control over the acts that one initiates and regulates ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)). In order to be competent, one must have self-confidence in one's ability to do a task with expertise, while impact relates to the extent to which one can affect workplace results ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)). [K. W. Thomas and Velthouse \(1990\)](#) stated that these cognitive qualities are closely associated with “motivational construct,” which refers to the pleasant emotions that one gets as a result of engaging in an activity. PE, according to previous studies, has been demonstrated to increase employees' job engagement ([B.-K. B. Joo et al., 2019](#); [Ugwu, Onyishi, & Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2014](#)), voice behaviors ([Khor et al., 2016](#)), organizational commitment ([B.-K. Joo & Shim, 2010](#)), citizenship behavior ([D. s. Kang & Bartlett, 2013](#)), and creative behaviors ([Matsuo, 2022](#)). According to research, PE increases creative process participation and intrinsic motivation, which in turn results in greater staff innovation [To, Fisher, and Ashkanasy \(2015\)](#). Furthermore, ([Matsuo, 2022](#)) indicated that different components of PE have favorable effects on the ability to think creatively on one's own. Employees who are psychologically empowered think that they are capable of beginning acts on their own. As a result, they can comprehend difficulties from a variety of informational sources and produce a number of alternative solutions to problems, which may result in innovative behavior ([Qin et al., 2012](#)). [To et al. \(2015\)](#)

stated that employees who are psychologically empowered are organically driven to recognize issues, seek for and encode knowledge, and produce new ideas.

#### **1.7.4. Intrapreneurial behavior**

Intrapreneurial behavior represents the actions of an entrepreneur who is working within a large organization ([M. Z. Alam, Kousar, Shabbir, & Kaleem, 2020](#); [Farrukh, Ying, & Mansori, 2016](#); [Octilia & Daniel, 2016](#); [Pinchot, 1985](#)). Intrapreneurial behavior is a practice in which corporate management integrates innovation, risk-taking, and proactiveness approaches, as well as aggressive competitiveness, autonomy, and strategic renewal, which are traditionally perceived as elements within the domain of entrepreneurship ([Farrukh, Khan, Khan, Ramzani, & Soladoye, 2017](#); [Guan et al., 2020](#); [Leutner, Ahmetoglu, Akhtar, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014](#); [Valsania, Moriano, & Molero, 2016](#)). Similarly, intrapreneurial behavior connotes individual innovative initiatives embarked on within an organization to create new products and/or services, ventures, and/or business models through the design and creation of new/innovative ideas (Ali & Bulent, 2016; ([Givnish et al., 2018](#); [Sena et al., 2020](#)). Intrapreneurial behavior demonstrates employee initiative which focuses on creativity, innovation, and transformation of novel ideals into profitable venturing within an existing organization ([Liu, Wang, & Lee, 2020](#); [Şahin, 2019](#); [Shefiu, 2019](#); [Varda, Nishith, & Darshan, 2014](#)). Succinctly put, intrapreneurial behavior is an insider-entrepreneurship disposition aimed at achieving predetermined organizational goals.

[Pinchot \(1985\)](#) revealed that an intrapreneur could be an employee or an organizational leader who demonstrates characteristics that are similar to entrepreneurs. Some of these characteristics may include self-motivation, proactivity, creativity, innovativeness, autonomy, courage, confidence, flexibility, adaptability, self-confidence, risk-taking, decision making, tenacity, persuasiveness, optimism, goal-mindset, self-motivation, vision-oriented, ability to network, passion, social skills, empathy, open-mindedness, professionalism, curiosity, team building, decisiveness, risk tolerance, persistence, long-term focus, structured experimentation, money management, resourcefulness, adventurous, future-

orientated, decisiveness, versatility, and collaboration ([Gupta et al., 2021](#); [V. Miller, 2020](#)). Intrapreneurs differ from entrepreneurs and traditional managers.

Interestingly, intrapreneurial archaeological reports hold that the first known written use of "intrapreneurship" or "intrapreneurial behavior" is traceable to a 1978 white paper titled "Intra Corporate Entrepreneurship," which was co-authored by Gilford Pinchot and Elizabeth S. Pinchot ([Pinchot & Pinchot, 1978](#)). Subsequently, Howard Edward Halkler was reportedly the first to conduct academic research on intrapreneurship when his master's in management thesis was submitted and accepted

| Basis               | Intrapreneurs                                         | Entrepreneurs                                      | Traditional Managers                                    |
|---------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| Motives             | Independent within the large corporate sphere         | Independence within a small business system        | Dependent on their corporate system                     |
| Risk                | Moderate risk taker                                   | Moderate risk taker                                | Meticulous/careful                                      |
| Decision            | Able to get others to help achieve a goal             | Deal with mistakes and failure                     | Usually agrees with those in upper management positions |
| Status              | Not concerned about the traditional status            | Not concerned about traditional states             | Concerned about status                                  |
| Activity            | Direct involvement more than delegation               | Direct involvement                                 | Delegates and supervises more than direct involvement   |
| Relationship        | Transaction within hierarchy                          | Transactions and deal-making as basic relationship | Hierarchy as basic relationship                         |
| Serves              | Self, others, and sponsors                            | Self and customers                                 | Others                                                  |
| Failures & Mistakes | Attempts to hide risky projects from view until ready | Deals with mistakes and failures                   | Tries to avoid mistakes and failures                    |
| Time Orientation    | Depends on urgency                                    | Depends on urgency and need                        | Periodic schedules                                      |

**Source:** Adopted from Hisrich et al. (2005) and modified to suit the purpose of the study.

in this regard. The thesis was titled "Intrapreneurial creation of prime leasing" and was later published as "Intrapreneurial success: A prime example" ([Demott, 1985](#)). published an article in Time magazine, titled "Here come the intrapreneurs." In the same year, intrapreneurship was referred to by Steve Jobs, the chair of Apple Computers. Thereafter, the term "intrapreneurship" crept into the African context. Within this African context, the University of Cape Town and the University of Pretoria were recorded as the first universities in Africa to research this concept ([Demott, 1985](#); [Pinchot & Pinchot, 1978](#)).

This viewpoint is supported by the arguments of ([Ward & Baruah, 2014](#)) and ([Baruah & Ward, 2015](#)) who suggested that intrapreneurial behavior would flourish in an intrapreneurial environment. They pointed out that some organizational elements might contribute to the development of an intrapreneurial atmosphere. For example, when an organization is flexible enough to motivate, encourage, and reward

employees with development opportunities and adequate resource mobilization and distribution, then such an organization might seamlessly become an industry leader and key player. This illustrates that intrapreneurial behavior can be systematically adopted to define the strategy, plans, and actions of an organization and incorporate significant contributes of employment in an appropriate intrapreneurial climate ([Deprez & Euwema, 2017](#)).

Although firms may have the tools, culture, and environment necessary to foster intrapreneurial activity among their workers, they may have difficulties recognizing people that exhibit these traits. ([Engelen, Gupta, Strenger, & Brettel, 2015](#)) pointed out that such organizations should develop an intrapreneurial climate to help identify such employees, nurture them, groom them, and give them all the support they need to succeed. This would give organizations the potential to improve in terms of profitability, market attractiveness, sales, turnover, and overall organizational growth.

Furthermore, ([Ambad & Wahab, 2016](#); [Fisher, Kuratko, Bloodgood, & Hornsby, 2017](#)) submitted that intrapreneurial behavior has evolved for more than four decades now, and because of these developments, intrapreneurial behavior is now regarded more as a strategy that may assist a company to deal successfully with the competitive challenges of the global marketplace. All organizations are faced with the global reality of today ([Anderson, Kreiser, Kuratko, Hornsby, & Eshima, 2015](#)), requiring innovativeness, risk-taking, courage, and intrapreneurial leadership ([Urban & Wood, 2017](#)). [Kuratko, Hornsby, et al. \(2014\)](#) emphasized the importance of organizations realizing the necessity of intrapreneurship in the twenty-first century. This is because organizations that exhibit intrapreneurial behaviors are typically perceived as being flexible ([Urban & Wood, 2015](#)), dynamic ([Oyedokun, 2015](#)), and adequately prepared to take on new opportunities ([Burgers & Covin, 2016](#); [Turner & Pennington, 2015](#)), if and when they arise.

Indeed, intrapreneurial attitudes and behaviors are increasingly becoming a necessity for organizations irrespective of their size ([M. Hughes & Mustafa, 2017](#); [Kaya, 2015](#)). Intrapreneurial behavior is a vision-directed, organization-wide strategy

relying on intrinsically motivated, intrapreneurial instincts and cognition in order to continuously and purposefully revitalize, rejuvenate, and resuscitate an organization, and shape the scope of its operations ([Bicer et al., 2014](#); [Kuratko, 2017](#)).

#### **1.7.5. Proactive career behavior**

Individuals who participate in proactive career behaviors are those who are proactive in anticipating possibilities and overcoming hazards as they go through their professional lives ([De Vos & Soens, 2008](#)). According to the findings of this research, proactive career behaviors are defined as "the degree to which someone is proactively building his or her career as reflected by a variety of professional behaviors" ([Hirschi, Freund, & Herrmann, 2014](#)). A proactiveness assessment of solo self-employed employees is significant from an entrepreneurial viewpoint since it may assist the solo self-employed in exploring their surroundings and adapting to possible changes, as well as doing better than their rivals ([Blesa & Ripollés, 2003](#)). In this case, individuals who are already self-employed or who are building on insights into individual career behaviors garnered from entrepreneurship and career literatures are able to upset the status quo by engaging in a range of proactive professional behaviors. First and foremost, through engaging in knowledge and skill development, the solo personality invests in know-how and builds expertise in terms of skills and experiences that may be important both now and in subsequent career phases ([Bozarth, Warsing, Flynn, & Flynn, 2009](#); [Engel, van Burg, Kleijn, & Khapova, 2017](#)). Second, solitary self-employed individuals actively share resources by working in cooperation with other self-employed individuals. As a consequence, they obtain employment and wealth mostly via collaboration rather than rivalry ([Freese & van den Groenendaal, 2020](#); [Magni & Mazzini, 2018](#)). Preventive networking seems to be the third technique, and it looks to be especially beneficial for single self-employed individuals who do not have access to a formal organizational career structure ([Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016](#); [Van Dierendonck, 2011](#)). Fourth, by taking on a second job as an employee, solo self-employed individuals can mitigate the risks associated with being self-employed, such as financial insecurity ([Burke, 2001](#)). This is referred to as proactive career behavior, and it refers to the practice of engaging in hybrid employment. According to ([Murphy & Ensher,](#)

2001), hybrid employment is a method for the solitary self-employed to "exercise agency over their working life when confronted with an elevated degree of uncertainty." In addition, the solo self-employed might take steps to increase their chances of finding a position in the workforce ([Chin, 1998](#); [Kuratko, 2005, 2017](#); [Kuratko, Covin, & Hornsby, 2014](#); [Kuratko, Hornsby, et al., 2014](#); [Wernerfelt, 1984](#)), which could include making an effort to leave solo self-employment ([Wernerfelt, 1984](#)). Specifically, in the context of solo self-employment, motivations not only impact the decision to establish a firm, but they also drive subsequent "behaviors with the objective of surviving, succeeding, and avoiding failure" in their professional lives ([Carsrud & Brännback, 2011](#)).

What a solo self-employed person believes about his or her "future work selves" determines how much they want to survive, prosper, and avoid failure in solo self-employment ([Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012](#)). Future work selves, according to ([Strauss et al., 2012](#)), are "representations of the self in the future that encompass personally meaningful ambitions and aspirations in connection to work" (p. 581). In other words, it refers to the person who the individual aspires to be in the future as a result of his or her professional activities ([Strauss et al., 2012](#)). In the case of the solitary self-employed, it can be contended that the initial motivations represent the prospective work selves that people want to be in the future ([Feldman & Bolino](#)). As an example, persons with beginning motivations that are related to lifestyle might see themselves as a lone self-employed person who balances economic, familial, and social requirements in the future ([Bredvold & Skålén, 2016](#)). A number of studies have shown that individuals participate in proactive professional actions that aid them to become their "future work selves" ([Strauss et al., 2012](#)). Because beginning motivations are a mirror of career advancement selves ([Feldman & Bolino](#)), starting motives may influence participation in innovative activities among the lonely self-employed. In order to be able to integrate their job and personal lives, small business owners might partner with other self-employed persons, for example. More aggressive career behaviors, such as seeking hybrid job opportunities or leaving solo self-employment, would be expected among the pressed solo self-employed to obtain working conditions that were equivalent to their previous employment position.

## **1.8. Structure of the Thesis**

The thesis is divided into five chapters, beginning with the introduction and ending with the conclusion. Descriptions of each chapter are given below.

**Chapter 1:** This is the thesis's introductory chapter, which covers the study's background, problem statement, and justification for the problem, as well as the purpose of the study, its objectives, and the research question that needed to be explored.

**Chapter 2:** The review of the literature is comprehensively covered in this chapter. More than 30 articles are discussed. The flow of the literature is from the introduction to the relevant variables, which are discussed one by one, and ultimately to the conclusion of the overall literature review.

**Chapter 3:** This chapter discusses the data collection methodology used. It explains the philosophical stances that the study is focused on, as well as the research design, population and sampling procedures, data collection methods, and analysis techniques used in this study. All the methodology choices are justified by references to the literature.

**Chapter 4:** This chapter is about the data analysis and the conclusions that are obtained from it. In this regard, the requisite thematic analysis is carried out and included in this chapter. The results are presented by evaluating the responses of the respondents. In addition to the results, interpretations are given to help with understanding.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter delves into the details of the results presented in Chapter 4. This discussion contrasts the results and that of related past research considered in the literature review. Conclusions are drawn after a thorough examination of the phenomena. In addition, policy recommendations for practical implications in the affected areas are given based on the conclusions reached. Future research areas are also proposed, taking into account the limitations and delimitations of the current and previous studies. However, apart from that, at the end of the report, references

and other required supporting documents are added as appendices which can be consulted if needed. For both in-text citations and end-list references, the APA referencing style is used.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2. Literature Review**

##### **2.1. Theoretical Review**

##### **2.1.1. Intrapreneurial Career Success**

In the workforce, career success is defined as the accumulation of excellent work and positive psychological outcomes as a result of one's professional experiences ([Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#)). Career success is often operationalized in one of two ways by researchers. A career success index comprises factors that quantify objective and extrinsic professional success ([Gutteridge, 1973](#)). Job success indicators that can be observed and assessed objectively by others include things like salary attainment and the amount of promotion achieved over the course of one's professional career, to name a few examples ([Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz Jr, 1995](#)). The second way to operationalize career success uses variables that determine subjective or fundamental career success ([Judge et al., 1995](#)). The subjective assessments of persons regarding their professional achievements, such as job and career satisfaction, are captured by such variables ([Burke, 2001](#); [Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999](#)). The objective and subjective measures of professional success are the primary focus of the current meta-analytical review. Despite the fact that these are two distinct outcomes of a person's professional life, the term "career success" is used throughout the remainder of this theoretical study to refer to both components of the construct. A more fine-grained separation between these two dimensions of professional success is presented later in the thesis.

Careers without limits are defined as "a series of work chances that extend beyond the confines of a particular employment location" according to the notion of boundaryless careers (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, p. 307). Boundaryless professions may be conceptualized in a number of ways; for example, Arthur and Rousseau (1996, p. 6) suggested "six meanings" of boundaryless careers, which are described as follows: crossing a range of different sorts of barriers, including organizational,

relational, hierarchical, work-life, and psychological limits. However, this first study (i.e., Arthur and Rousseau, 1996) did not suggest a systematic framework for characterizing a boundaryless professional life. In order to better comprehend the organization and measurement of boundaryless careers, Sullivan and Arthur (2006) found it necessary to distinguish between physical mobility and emotional mobility. Physical mobility is considered to be a component of actual career movement patterns and transitions across physical boundaries, whereas psychological mobility is recognized to be a component of one's emotional configuration toward making those movements. There are many different types of career transitions that may occur across occupations, companies, and physical mobility. These transitions may occur between jobs, organizations, professions, industries, geographical regions, and employment patterns. This section provides a comprehensive review of the studies that have been conducted on the links between different indicators of physical functioning and professional achievement. In addition, data about the link between psychological mobility and job success is discussed. Briscoe and Hall (2006) proposed the notion of highly decentralized career satisfaction, which comprises three dimensions: highly decentralized mind frame, which refers to a natural preference to collaborate with people outside one's current organization; and mobility predisposition, which refers to a desire to switch between different employers.

Both objective and subjective markers may be used to determine one's level of professional achievement. It is possible for one's objective career success to be represented in one's social standing (e.g., hierarchical position, promotions), earnings (e.g., pay), and professional abilities ([Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005](#); [Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005](#)). Individuals' subjective assessments of their achievements, work-life balance, health, and well-being that are related with their professional growth might be indicative of their subjective career success ([Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990](#); [Judge et al., 1995](#); [W. Zhou, Sun, Guan, Li, & Pan, 2013](#)). This examination will look at both objective and subjective indications of professional success, with an emphasis on the former.

Not only do people care about their professional advancement, but so do corporations, since an employee's personal advancement may ultimately contribute to the organization's overall success ([Judge et al., 1999](#)). Because of this, researchers continue to look for individual and organizational characteristics that contribute to workers' professional advancement ([Bourlakis, Maglaras, & Fotopoulos, 2012](#); [Judge & Bretz Jr, 1994](#); [Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#); [Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999](#)). Despite the fact that several research studies have employed broad-based multivariate approaches to find factors of professional success, there is still a lack of consensus on the subject ([Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#)); there have been no large-scale systematic efforts to review the available research ([Kirchmeyer, 1998](#)). For a variety of reasons, doing a quantitative evaluation of the literature on professional success is essential. The first and most important thing to remember is that doing a critical evaluation and compilation of a piece of research may be quite valuable in the formulation of constructs and development of theories ([Rigtering & Weitzel, 2013](#)). This would be particularly valuable in the field of career success, considering the enormous number of research studies that have been conducted on the subject and the wide variation in results across individual studies. The second issue is that academics have used a number of types of integration of career success, and some have argued that tools for data collection are conceptually distinct from subjective indicators when measuring career success ([Greenhaus et al., 1990](#); [Judge et al., 1995](#)). It would be conceptually advantageous to compare and evaluate the correlates of these two main components (objective and subjective) of professional success in order to give advice to future researchers and theory creation in this area. A rigorous meta-analytic examination of the factors that influence both objective and subjective career advancement is used in this study.

Historically, two well-known theoretical viewpoints have been used in the study of career mobility ([Cable & Murray, 1999](#); [Rosenbaum, 1984](#); [Wayne et al., 1999](#)): the contest mobility approach and the sponsorships standpoint ([Cable & Murray, 1999](#); [Turner & Pennington, 2015](#); [Wayne et al., 1999](#)). In this study, the factors that influence objective and subjective career advancement are investigated in order to

contribute to the ongoing development of the theoretical foundations of these complex constructs.

Three other theoretically grounded moderators (gender, time, and location) as well as one methodology moderator (statistical technique bias) are also explored for their impacts. The importance of knowing the influence of gender on professional success is critical since men and women's work experiences are frequently vastly different, which has implications for comprehending the relationships between predictor variables and career achievement ([Stroh, Brett, & Reilly, 1992](#)). In this context, time is particularly important to consider since, during the past 20 years, enormous attempts have been made to increase women's development opportunities and close the pay gap between men and women. Lastly, given the fact that many studies of professional success are based on perception–perception data, it is crucial to investigate if effect sizes may be altered by common method variation. Due to the prevalence of perception–perception data in many professional success studies, there is a worry that correlations between predictor–criterion connections may be unduly increased as a result.

The American Psychological Association defines career success as "the positive psychological or occupational repercussions or successes that a person accrues as a result of employment experiences" ([Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011](#)). ([E. C. Hughes, 1937](#)) difference between objective and subjective career success is the most often cited model for professional achievement by academics in the field of organizational behavior. When someone talks about "objective career success," they are referring to the outer metrics of employment success that a person accumulates over the course of their careers, such as compensation and the number of promotions they get. External indicators of objective professional achievement are clearly observable and measurable by others since they are external to the individual's personality ([Heslin, 2005](#)). According to the definition given above, a person's subjective professional performance can be defined as his or her consciousness and examination of his or her profession in terms of a variety of processes that are essential to that individual. In contrast to other types of success, this kind of success is largely focused with the individual's personal satisfaction with the work he or she is doing and with his or

her career, and as a result is not easily evident to others. In terms of subjective professional success, job happiness and career satisfaction are the most important determinants, followed by financial success ([Abele & Spurk, 2009](#); [Arthur et al., 2005](#); [Judge et al., 1999](#); [Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001](#)).

Occupational success researchers have shown a great deal of interest in the two categories of professional success, concentrating their efforts on the factors that influence their achievement, such as demographic characteristics, individual characteristics or behavioral styles, and organizational variables ([Seibert et al., 2001](#)). But what factors, on the other hand, add to an employee's ability to achieve success? You may find success if you work in a field that you genuinely like, or if you maintain a good balance between work and your personal life by working full time and having enough time to be with your family. This is an intriguing question because it implies that success can be contingent on a variety of factors, such as your position at work or the organization for which you work, or it may be irrelevant entirely; for example, you may find success if you work in a field that you are passionate about. In terms of work and organizational elements, we may define success in a number of ways. Your current position and prospective advancement will be determined by organizational traits and viewpoints, as well as by the assistance you will get at work, among other considerations. Individual factors such as your traits, age, experience, and circumstances, as well as concerns at the community level, such as the economic and political climate, can all be taken into consideration ([Kramer, 1991](#)). It is possible to explain all of these criteria, but they disclose nothing about the key aspects of work performance, and they give no solutions when comparing equal groups. However, only a small amount of time and effort has been devoted to investigating the aspects of employment success in more depth.

It is the opinion of ([Heslin, 2005](#)) that career researchers have made four unconscious assumptions about the factors underlying professional achievement, and these assumptions have had a significant impact on, and altered, the career success literature, as shown by this study. It has been argued by ([Heslin, 2005](#)) that although the bulk of career success research has been done in management and professional

settings, objective career outcomes such as wage achievement and promotion are sufficient markers of career success in all work environments. Work and career happiness, according to the second implicit premise, involve a wide variety of subjective qualities via which people react to their jobs. The second, and perhaps more crucial, assumption is that individuals have the same professional worries about obtaining success in the objective domain as they have about achieved greatness in the psychological domain. This is referred to as the third assumption. In conclusion, the scholarship on career success is predicated on the idea that individuals assess and evaluate their own organizational effectiveness only according to their own terms, rather than measuring it in relation to the professional accomplishments of others in their sector ([Heslin, 2005](#); [Pinchot, 1985](#)). In order to get a better grasp of the nature of professional success, future career researchers should make an attempt to challenge these four implicit assumptions. In this study, participants will be questioned about their perspectives of professional success in both for-profit and not-for-profit businesses, as well as about how they vary from one to another. I will also look into whether there are any differences between the most critical success factors for for-profit and not-for-profit employees when it comes to their perceptions of career success.

### **2.1.2. Intrapreneurial Behavior**

Intrapreneurial behavior is the phrase used to describe a person who brings together ideas and utilizes current resources inside a business to promote creative new ventures ([Pinchot, 1985](#)). Entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs share a number of characteristics, with the primary difference being that successful entrepreneurs do not choose to leave their organizations or risk their financing in order to carry out what their topic allows, but rather choose to use the resources of an organization to innovate and promote change instead. Entrepreneurial behavior is described by three features ([Covin & Slevin, 1989](#); [Rauch et al., 2009](#)), namely, an array of inventive, proactive, and risk-taking behaviors ([Covin & Slevin, 1989](#); [Rauch et al., 2009](#)). The actions of workers who participate in intrapreneurial activities foreshadow or induce change, and proactive people are typically seen by corporations as catalysts of innovation and change ([A. M. Grant & Ashford, 2008](#)). Writers such as Rausch et al.

(2009) demonstrated that intrapreneurial conduct enhances the success of businesses, particularly those operating in dynamic and chaotic contexts ([Covin & Slevin, 1989](#); [Kraus, Breier, Jones, & Hughes, 2019](#); [Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005](#)). Accordingly, Hornsby and colleagues (1992) emphasized the importance of organizations understanding these behaviors among their workers and connecting them with the specific entrepreneurial goals of the company. According to ([Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006](#)), workers' intrapreneurial activities enable organizations to reinvent themselves from within, therefore increasing their competitiveness in the market.

During the 1980s, the notion of intrapreneurship garnered widespread attention as a consequence of the publication of the book *Intrapreneur: Why you don't have to quit the firm to become an entrepreneur* by ([Pinchot, 1985](#)). Employee intrapreneurship, according to Pinchot's book, is a way to promote corporate innovativeness and increase organizational responsiveness to changes in the environment via the encouragement of workers to start their own businesses ([Jennings & Lumpkin, 1989](#); [M. H. Morris & Paul, 1987](#)). Throughout history, the notion of intrapreneurship has developed, and research has focused on the advantages of entrepreneurship and innovation for companies. Intrapreneurship is defined as "emergent behavioral intentions and behaviors of an organization that are related to departure from the customary" ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#)). This approach to intrapreneurship at the organizational level is often used in conjunction with the idea of corporate entrepreneurship to describe the process ([Blanka, 2019](#)). The positive influence of intrapreneurship on firms has been attributed to two main occurrences, namely the formation of new ventures and the rejuvenation of strategic initiatives ([Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#); [M. H. Morris & Paul, 1987](#)). How intrapreneurship may lead to the formation and integration of new firms is captured in the phrase "new venture creation." New venture development is often manifested in the form of new goods and services, as well as the formation of new (semi-autonomous) organizational units that exist both inside and outside the company ([Narayanan, Yang, & Zahra, 2009](#)). A strategic renewal initiative is a business initiative designed to increase an organization's competitiveness in the global market, and risks are taken in the process of adapting correctly to internal advancements and changes in the

marketplace. As a result, organizational transformation, which may involve the rethinking of management systems, the allocation of financial resources, and the creation of new operations, products, and/or administrative processes, among other things, may be included in strategic renewal ([Ireland, Hitt, & Sirmon, 2003](#)). Internal entrepreneurial efforts of members of an organization are at the center of business strategy revitalization and new venture development, and they must not be overlooked in these endeavors.

Senior-level managers have been highlighted as having a crucial role to play in the establishment of an organizational vision and design that fosters intrapreneurship ([Belousova & Gailly, 2013](#)). When it comes to promoting, refining, and enabling beneficial bottom-up ideas to senior management, middle-level managers typically play an evaluative role. They also approve intrapreneurship tactics that are developed by top-level executives and implemented by main implementers (i.e., first-level managers). In order to exploit possibilities that others have not recognized or failed to exploit, first-level managers and their workers must operationalize and experiment with the resources made available by the company ([Floyd & Lane, 2000](#)). Intrapreneurship is a process in which employees play a variety of roles, and our understanding of these roles has improved dramatically over the last decade. However, little is known about the mechanisms that influence staff members' decisions to engage in internal organizational activities, or how this may affect their well though and performance while still employed in their current positions ([Blanka, 2019](#)).

In addition to a lack of a uniform conceptual framework of employee entrepreneurship and innovation as well as a continuous measure of employee intrapreneurship, another factor contributing to the relative scarcity of theories and empirical studies on employee intrapreneurship is the absence of an established methodology for conducting research on employee intrapreneurship. There are many methods to define and quantify employee intrapreneurship, including individual entrepreneurial orientation and the ability to innovate ([Edú Valsania, Moriano, & Molero, 2016](#)), using dichotomous measures to determine whether or not employees were involved in an intrapreneurial project ([Thurik, Stam, & Audretsch, 2013](#)), or focusing on the actual behaviors that are

characteristic of employee intrapreneurship ([Edú Valsania et al., 2016](#)). In addition to impeding the expansion of the literature, using a fragmented approach to examining employee intrapreneurship results in conceptual confusion regarding the notion of employee innovation capability, which is problematic. In the current literature, for example, there is no agreement on whether groundbreaking work behaviors are just a defining feature of workplace entrepreneurial orientation ([Rigtering & Weitzel, 2013](#)), or whether they are separate constructs that only share a few more similarities because entrepreneurship is a potential outcome of entrepreneurial orientation ([McFadzean, O'Loughlin, & Shaw, 2005](#)).

First and foremost, this dissertation will deal with the lack of clarity, understanding, and consistent measurement in the field of employee intrapreneurship, with the goal of increasing our understanding of employee innovation capabilities and stimulating comprehensive determinants of employee intrapreneurship. The fragmentation seen in the present literature on employee intrapreneurship is reflected in research on the antecedents of intrapreneurial activity, as well as in studies on the costs and benefits of intrapreneurial behavior for employees. Employee intrapreneurship has most commonly been studied as a result of a particular topic of interest, such as management methods ([Hornsby, Kuratko, & Zahra, 2002](#)) or job characteristics ([Jong, Parker, Wennekers, & Wu, 2015](#)). These phenomenon-driven studies have considerably increased our understanding of the importance of management and service design for entrepreneurial orientation; yet, they have not handled the topic of why employees choose to operate in an intrapreneurial manner. In terms of personal results, current studies reveal that employee intrapreneurship may have both positive and negative consequences for the individuals who participate in it. A number of qualitative research studies have shown that being a member of an intrapreneurial initiative leads to improved motivation and excitement on the one hand ([Marvel, Griffin, Hebda, & Vojak, 2007](#)); however, on the other hand, research has shown that intrapreneurship takes more work and is likely to be fraught with difficulties, and that it might result in undesirable results such as weariness and burnout ([Shepherd, Patzelt, & Wolfe, 2011](#)). Because there has been no research on the psychological factors associated with employee intrapreneurship, knowledge of why workers opt to take such an

approach is required in order to explain the apparently contradictory findings seen in the existing research. Furthermore, understanding the psychological process might aid in explaining intrapreneurial activities, as well as the psychological processes that link them. In order to develop a theoretical framework for employee intrapreneurship, it may be necessary to first incorporate the concept of employee entrepreneurship and innovation into existing literature on proactive behavior and job design. This may be a first and crucial step in developing a theoretical framework. Employee work behavior is discussed in terms of known theories, which give useful insights into the psychological processes that underpin employee work behavior. Proactive motivation theory ([Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010](#)) and job demands-resource theory ([Bakker & Demerouti, 2014](#)) workers' intrapreneurship because, taken together, they simply express the driving forces that drive proactive activity and illustrate how the examples provided might truly result in possible rewards and hazards for employees.

Intrapreneurship is described as a bottom-up strategy in which workers seize possibilities via initiative, innovation, and taking calculated risks (Neessen et al.). ([Pinchot, 1985](#)) described intrapreneurs as "the doers of dreams," those who assume direct responsibility for the creation of any kind of innovation inside an organization." Similarly, [B. Antoncic and Hisrich \(2003\)](#) stated that intrapreneurs may be creative in a variety of ways, including product creation, administrative methods, service delivery, and strategy formulation. [B. Antoncic and Hisrich \(2003\)](#) also adopted a broad definition of intrapreneurship, stating that it is "entrepreneurship inside an existing company whose actions deviate from the norm." [B. Antoncic and Hisrich \(2003\)](#) stated that the idea of intrapreneurship may be divided into eight categories by combining prior categorizations regarding the application of entrepreneurial principles in companies. The eight categories are: new ventures, innovativeness of goods/services, innovativeness in processes, self-renewal, risk taking, proactivity, and aggressiveness in the competitive environment. The term "new ventures" refers to the establishment of new divisions or businesses inside a company that are linked to the organization's existing goods or markets. Innovativeness of goods/services refers to an organization's commitment to developing new products and services.

Innovativeness in processes refers to continuous improvement and development of manufacturing methods and techniques. Self-renewal occurs when a business restructures its strategy and starts internal organizational transformation. Risk taking can be described as a business recognizing the potential of failure when it takes bold moves, experiments, and commits resources in search of new possibilities. Proactivity refers to top management's desire for their company to be a leader rather than a follower of change, which they do by grabbing market opportunities. Aggressiveness in the competitive environment refers to companies constantly confronting their rivals and responding to threats ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#)).

### **2.1.3. Benefits of Intrapreneurial Behavior**

In order to properly define intrapreneurship, it is important to first discuss why a company should participate in intrapreneurship. According to a large body of existing research, participating in intrapreneurial conduct may result in improved performance, increased profitability, and increased firm growth ([Antoncic, 2003](#); [Antoncic & Antoncic, 2011](#); [Zahra & Covin, 1995](#)). Some academics referred to intrapreneurship as "corporate entrepreneurship" before the term "intrapreneurship" became widely used. [Zahra and Covin \(1995\)](#) showed that entrepreneurial leadership has a positive impact on financial performance and that it has the potential to continue to grow over a long period of time. By incorporating entrepreneurship into a company's operations, entrepreneurship may serve as a long-term strategy for boosting business performance rather than as a quick fix for the purpose of developing a creative notion. Management should seriously examine the integration of entrepreneurship as a strategy to improve financial performance, as research has shown that it has a substantial impact on both growth and profit margins, according to suggestions for management actions. The authors also advised that managers should have a long-term view while designing and managing intrapreneurial activities in order to maximize the potential that such a strategy may have in the future. The ability of managers to support entrepreneurial efforts for a long length of time is critical to the success of integrating an entrepreneurial strategy and reaping the full advantages of doing so in the long run. In this process, management assistance is critical, and it is recommended that managers be willing and able to

provide their support over a period of time exceeding several years. Furthermore, [Zahra and Covin \(1995\)](#) stressed the significance of the context in which the entrepreneurial strategy is implemented, and how this may influence the extent to which entrepreneurial behaviors can have an impact on the environment.

#### **2.1.4. Prerequisites for Intrapreneurial Behavior**

Organizational support is required in order for intrapreneurial behavior to take place among workers and has been shown to benefit both intrapreneurship and the internal environment within the company ([Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001](#)). To encourage intrapreneurial activity, management should make a big effort to create a culture where support and tolerance are present to a significant degree. For a person to be confident in their ability to come up with ideas for innovation, even if the ideas are hazardous, it is crucial that they feel heard and supported, and not scared of losing anything if they fail. A paper by [Alpkan, Bulut, Gunday, Ulusoy, and Kilic \(2010\)](#) indicated that being fearful of the weight of loneliness and failure may hinder intrapreneurs in their idea-generating process, and thus it is essential to have a supportive and accepting atmosphere in order to develop innovation. ([Alpkan et al., 2010](#)) looked at five distinct forms of organizational support: managerial support, allocation of free time, concessional work, performance-based compensation systems, and tolerance for vulnerability. They found that managerial support, tolerance for risk, and incentive systems based on performance have a favorable influence on creative performance. Employee enthusiasm to act entrepreneurially was also a consideration in the results of the research performed by ([Yariv & Galit, 2017](#)), which found that organizational support helps encourage intrapreneurial behavior among workers. A key element in order for intrapreneurial behavior to occur in a company is the degree of tolerance for taking risks that the management and the culture permits. To stimulate innovation and create new initiatives where no one can accurately anticipate the results, the workers must be guaranteed that their job security is safe regardless of the outcome ([Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001](#)). Intrapreneurial conduct has a positive effect on management since it encourages workers to be innovative on their own. In addition to allowing communication and offering procedures that welcome ideas and enable them to be further developed and

executed, increasing communication and implementing helpful mechanisms for intrapreneurship are both favorably linked (to intrapreneurship). Other researchers, in addition to ([Yariv & Galit, 2017](#)), have shown that workplace support is a mediator of incivility and intra-organizational entrepreneurship.

Without the flexibility to manage time and work as they want, and with no centralized decision-making process, intrapreneurs cannot make use of their intrapreneurial capabilities ([Lumpkin & Dess, 1996](#)). To initiate intrapreneurial activity, a company has to provide freedom to act on an idea or vision. [Lumpkin and Dess \(1996\)](#) suggested that intrapreneurs work outside organizational restrictions and formality. In order to facilitate intrapreneurial behavior, ([Razavi & Ab Aziz, 2017](#)) recommended that intrapreneurs participate in networking activities that help them build personal networks as well as expand their network of connections. [Duncan, Ginter, Rucks, and Jacobs \(1988\)](#) noted that intrapreneurs must include the people they are working with in their actions in order to be successful.

To better embrace intrapreneurship, a business has to foster an organization-wide culture that encourages intrapreneurship. There is also a need for the company to have a plan in place to promote creative individuals and an understanding of how to integrate the ideas generated through innovation into the corporate strategy. In their paper, Duncan (1988) argued that the first major issue businesses face is devoting sufficient resources to the development of creative individuals. A second issue is that if the company does not pay creative individuals fairly, this is a strategic concern. They proposed making four strategic steps to address the strategy issue. Comments must be made by senior management to emphasize the significance of creativity. In order to encourage innovation and creativity, you must first establish clear goals. In order to motivate innovation, reward systems must promote it. Managers must understand that creative individuals are motivated by the desire to create something rather than to beat other people. To encourage intrapreneurs, ([Duncan et al., 1988](#)) proposed making intra-capital investment. Intra-capital is additional capital that is only generated through innovations in production that provide profits, such as a decrease in costs that results in higher earnings. When this revenue is received, a portion of it is then used to fund the intrapreneurs, who may

subsequently generate even more novel inventions. Another suggestion from [Duncan et al. \(1988\)](#) is that businesses may reward intrapreneurs with stocks and dividends, which in turn means the organization benefits when an intrapreneur succeeds. Despite all of this, ([Duncan et al., 1988](#)) still asserted that, even with an abundance of entrepreneurs, there will always be some who buck the system, typically isolated wolves. However, these days, in order to express their creativity, entrepreneurs require both costly resources as well as corporate resources.

## **2.1.5. Psychological Empowerment**

### **2.1.5.1. Introduction**

In light of constantly changing work requirements and rising global competitiveness, human resources have been emphasized as the most critical element in meeting organizational demands. The trend toward giving workers more flexible roles and promoting creative solutions to difficult issues has become a cornerstone of human resource development. The concept of PE, which includes the four qualities of competency, purpose, self-determination, and impact, has emerged as a widely recognized strategy for enhancing employee performance, in contrast to materialistic motivations such as cash bonuses. The primary goal of psychological capital is to increase employees' ability to recognize and acknowledge their own positive aspects and qualities, while also assisting them to admire the meaning and significance of their own jobs, and to increase their desire to contribute to their organization as a whole, which will ultimately result in a sense of accomplishment ([Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997](#)). Following the establishment of a theoretical framework for the characteristics and definitions of both words, this chapter reviews the research conducted on the relationship between psychological ownership and individual creativity.

### **2.1.5.2. Definition of PE**

The widely held theory of employment empowerment states that managers are empowered to delegate authority to each employee, with regard to the work processes and techniques that they handle ([Sibson, 1994](#)). PE has been attempted on many

occasions, and with mixed results. Self-efficacy refers to the employees' view of themselves as empowered, which includes their feeling of effectiveness ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)). the extent to which the work an employee does is personally and professionally meaningful ([Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)). Psychological empowerment is a four-dimensional construct developed by Dr. Spritzer that extends beyond control and competence to include integration. It is best defined as a sense of perceived behavioral control, understandings of competence, and the institutionalization of the organization's goals and objectives, among other things. Thomas and ([Velthouse, 1990](#)) redefined PE as being made up of four cognitions that were identified by ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)): purpose, competence, and self-determination all contribute to an employee's active attitudes toward his or her job ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)). When we have a sense of perceived control, competence, and internalization of objectives, we are psychologically empowered. Empowerment is seen as a positive function of all three elements of psychological enablement ([Sanjay, 1999](#)). ([Goetze, 2000](#)) defined empowerment using practical, real-world language: "The process of helping employees take personal responsibility for job performance improvement while simultaneously helping the company reach its overall objective". According to ([Degago, 2014](#)), PE involves empowering people, bringing them into decision making, promoting participation, and rewarding them. It provides workers with the chance to make a positive contribution to the overall success of the organization ([Degago, 2014](#)). We can say that PE may be defined as a motivating notion manifested via four main cognitive concepts, which, taken together, suggest an active approach to a work position rather than a passive one.

We empower ourselves psychologically when we believe we have the information, abilities, and authority to engage as active participants in our own lives and communities. In the beginning, the study of PE involved power and control ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)). It was in the workplace that the first PE applications and strategies were developed, with the goal of enhancing the effectiveness of organizational management procedures ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)). In their article "Power Struggle, Empowerment, and Better Relationships," ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)) looked at power struggles between employers and employees using empowerment as a lens. Future

research on PE, in addition to power distribution, was first conducted on the topic of workplace power distribution. Many people have examined PE from many perspectives and approaches throughout the years. Empowerment has been described as a process and an outcome, depending on the views of the individuals who have contributed their ideas. Employees with low levels of PE make deliberate efforts to get access to, and control over, resources that they previously lacked. ([Bolton & Brookings, 1998](#)) defined empowerment as a method or approach that empowers individuals who are marginalized from participating in and shaping their own lives and communities. In other words, it is critical for people from disadvantaged backgrounds to increase their self-efficacy and personal control ([Bolton & Brookings, 1998](#)). Others have described empowerment as resulting from activities that help someone to feel empowered and capable. PE can be defined as a sense of perceived competence, self-control, and agency ([Menon, Morris, Chiu, & Hong, 1999](#)). People may grow to understand and exercise control over their own life regardless of whether it is seen as a process or a consequence.

PE has been expanded in meaning in order to allow it to be used in a wide variety of study fields. The study's aim was to provide more information on African American youths' tobacco use by using a PE method. When African Americans feel empowered, they may have a greater understanding of the factors and processes that shape their own life. Furthermore, it may be possible that individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy believe they have more control over their fate and that they will be motivated to use their power to prevent tobacco use. Individuals and intergroup interactions are important in the development of empowerment conceptualizations, but so are community movements. For example, ([Holden, Messeri, Evans, Crankshaw, & Ben-Davies, 2004](#)) looked at participation movements, in which they help with planning, organizing, and other tasks, which give community members back their power. ([Holden, Evans, Hinnant, & Messeri, 2005](#)) put forward a framework that reflects empowerment for tobacco control campaigns and personal responsibility, giving individuals the opportunity to take a proactive stance in community efforts to reduce tobacco use. ([Holden et al., 2005](#)) perspective is rooted in ([Zimmerman, 1995](#)) An individual's ability to work with other members of the public toward a shared

objective is emphasized in the notion of PE, which emphasizes the elements that impact an individual's own skills and self-perceptions (e.g., knowledge and competence). ([Holden et al., 2004](#); [Zimmerman, 1995](#)) emphasized the critical role of an individual's views of their own control and a knowledge of environmental power distributions in their developing into a successful and effective community agent. This study integrates ([Zimmerman, 1995](#)) and ([Holden et al., 2005](#)). Approaches to PE characterize it as: a mix of one's perceived effectiveness and control; one's capacity to comprehend one's circumstances and the power at operation in them; and one's ability to exercise influence over one's surroundings, among other things. Other authors, such as ([Zimmerman, 1995](#)) and ([Holden et al., 2005](#)), It is important to consider the concepts offered below in the context of an overall theoretical framework, which will assist individuals in better comprehending the numerous intrapsychic elements that influence an individual's personality, power, and subsequent behaviors. Additionally, these studies aid in the understanding of empowerment in connection to tobacco use and participation in anti-tobacco activities.

In light of constantly changing work requirements and rising global competitiveness, human resources have been emphasized as the most critical element in meeting organizational demands. The trend toward giving workers more flexible roles and promoting creative solutions to difficult issues has become a cornerstone of human resource development. The concept of PE, which includes the four qualities of competency, purpose, self-determination, and impact, has emerged as a widely recognized strategy for enhancing employee performance, in contrast to materialistic motivations such as cash bonuses.

#### **2.1.5.3. Dimensions of PE**

PE, according to Spreitzer's concept, comprises four primary aspects (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact). According to ([Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)), empowerment is complex and cannot be encapsulated in a single idea. It enhances intrinsic task motivation, as measured by a set of four cognitions that

represent an individual's attitude toward his or her job role: meaning, competence, self-determination, and effect. PE encompasses the following dimensions.

1- It refers to the value of a work aim or purpose as compared to an employee's own objectives and standards, or to a feeling of personal importance linked with their employment, as judged by an individual's own goals and standards ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#); [K. W. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)). It is the value of a work aim or purpose as compared to an individual's own personal views or standards of performance ([K. W. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)). This suggests that employment acts as a catalyst for empowering; but, if employees detest working in a particular area or if the activity they are doing disagrees with their sense of morality, they will not feel as motivated as they otherwise would.

2- Competence. Self-efficacy is a person's conviction in his or her capacity to execute tasks competently ([Gist, 1987](#)). Competence may be described as the sense of achievement experienced after successfully completing a task. Employees who feel knowledgeable about the job at hand will also be more willing to face challenges rather than abstain from trying to participate in these activities. When workers feel competent, they are more likely to enjoy job satisfaction as well. This is also connected to emotions of self-efficacy, which has an effect on how activities are addressed in the future ([Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)). [J. C. Chen and Silverthorne \(2008\)](#) said that empowered workers feel more appreciated and may be encouraged to increase their degree of self-efficacy. Employees may also be recognized in this manner, which encourages them to put in more effort at work and increases their commitment to the company. This may also increase workers' organizational commitment by making them feel more appreciated, as well as their self-efficacy ([J. C. Chen & Silverthorne, 2008](#)).

3- Self-determination is an individual's perception of having the ability to initiate and control activities ([Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989](#)). An important part of intrinsic motivation is the ability to make decisions for oneself, which is a key predictor of happiness. Also important for intrinsic motivation are competence and self-determination, both of which are key components and ingredients ([K. W. Thomas &](#)

[Velthouse, 1990](#)). Self-determination is associated with the ability to choose task activities that can be executed in a sense-making and acceptable manner, as well as with a feeling of autonomy in how a person accomplishes their own job.

4- Impact refers to a person's capacity to influence strategic, bureaucratic, or operational outcomes at their place of employment ([Ashforth & Mael, 1989](#)). Additionally, it may be described as the extent to which behavior can affect the task's overall result. ([Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997](#)) stated that empowered workers would also have a sense of ownership over the job (as they will have a greater ability to affect the result of these activities) and will be more interested in the tasks they do. Additionally, ([P. Rogers & Blenko, 2006](#)) said that "every achievement, every mistake, every opportunity seize or miss is the result of a choice someone made—or failed to make." These are the kind of workers who are expected to turn the university's goals and objectives into reality, rather than just goals and objectives on paper ([P. Rogers & Blenko, 2006](#)).

#### **2.1.6. Leadership Styles**

The notion of leadership has sparked much attention, discussion, and, at times, consternation. However, leadership is a subjective concept that is difficult to define. As a result, there is little agreement on how the area of analysis should be defined ([Franco & Almeida, 2011](#)). Leadership is defined as the ability of a person to influence the motivation or capabilities of others in a group ([Bass, 1990](#)). For years, the term "leadership" has been defined in a variety of ways. Additionally, several concepts have been reinterpreted as leadership ideas have evolved. Regardless of how leadership is defined, ([Bennis, 2009](#)) asserts that it should possess three fundamental characteristics. The first component is vision guidance, both professionally and emotionally. The leader is well-defined in their objectives. Passion is the second component. The leader is enthused about what they are doing. Integrity is the third key component. Self-awareness, honesty, and maturity are critical components.

Leadership descriptions have been broken down into components such as position, temperament, accountability, influence method, instrument for achieving the

objective, behavior and consequence of an encounter, and various more meanings have been attributed to each of these components ([Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008](#)). Leadership is also a manifestation of a leader's capability. ([Drucker, 2001](#)) observed that good leaders exhibit a range of personality traits, talents, limitations, attitudes, and beliefs, but they always have one quality: the capacity to do the right things at the right time. ([Bennis, 2009](#)) defined leadership as the capacity to confront each circumstance with an openness that enables a real response, rather than a battery of tactics. Additionally, the term includes leadership as a distinct component of the process. ([B. S. Cheng, 1997](#)) firmly thought that management is a method in which a leader's expertise and persistence encourage a group of subordinates to reach their full potential in order to achieve corporate goals under a certain time and budget. Because leadership is one of the important determinants of success, it is continually studied. Additionally, the findings of studies about leadership attitudes vary over time. ([Chemers, 2000](#)) argued that historical theoretical leadership concepts can be divided into four periods: before the contingency theory of leadership, 1965–1975, when situational leadership was developed and elaborated, 1975–1985, when learning mental health professionals and concerns about differences between the sexes emerged and since 1985, when the subject has been comprehensively addressed. Initially, leadership theory focused on the characteristics that set leaders apart from followers, but later theories included situational elements and skill levels. Many leadership theories exist, but most fall into one of five categories: "great man" theories, characteristic theories, behavior theories, and situational speculations (to name a few). Several studies summarized leadership research by following the history of leadership ideas or epochs.

#### **2.1.6.1. Servant Leadership**

Servant leadership, or servant style leadership, is at least 2,000 years old, but Robert K. Greenleaf, author of *Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power*, is credited as the founder of contemporary servant leadership philosophy. Servant leaders ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) believe that the main aim of service leaders is to serve others, while leaders whose focus is on holding power or amassing wealth may have other goals. Greenleaf also claimed that following a servant leader results in

increased personal growth, a better emotional and mental well-being, and more likelihood of serving others. Furthermore, Greenleaf argued that servant leaders do not further marginalize the disadvantaged in society; instead, they actually serve to diminish their degree of marginalization. According to ([Grint, 2010](#)), one of the critical components of servant leadership is recognizing and fulfilling the needs of others. To have an impact, one must first grasp the history of servant leadership.

Servant leadership, according to experts, may be described as effective leadership, daily practice, personal growth, and development. At the core of servant leadership is the desire to serve. In the service of others, an individual's life is enriched, and an organization is fortified. The theory of servant leadership has gained acceptance as a viable model of leadership. ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) said that he was influenced by Hermann Hesse's *Journey to the East* when he wrote his essay, "The Servant as Leader." It tells the story of a group of men on a quest to find the lost treasure of an ancient kingdom. The narrative revolves around Leo, a servant in the royal household, who attends the party and does menial tasks, but he uplifts their spirits by injecting energy and music into the proceedings. As the party is on their way, Leo vanishes; eventually, the trip and the group break down. Without Leo, the gang will not be able to finish the trip. The narrator discovers Leo, who has risen in power within the Order. There is still a guiding spirit who turns out to be a noble leader, but he has now been discovered to be Leo's reincarnation. Greenleaf claimed that Leo's accomplishment as a leader was due to his desire to put others before himself, which served as the inspiration for Greenleaf's servant leadership concept, which he developed later in life. Furthermore, ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)) postulated that a servant leader must be willing to share authority in order to enable individuals to attain their maximum potential in personal growth and professional achievement. The meanings of the terms "servant" and "leader" are opposites. Joining these two terms together gives you a new perspective of leadership. The conventional style of leadership prioritizes the institution above its members and has been recently revolutionized by servant leadership. In servant leadership, the humble conduct of the leader causes the subordinate's actions. Without Greenleaf's strong emphasis on the leader's duty to be humble, there would have been no common ground on which to build the idea

and the main motivating factor that would make a servant leader ([Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2017](#)).

According to the ideals of servant leadership, effective business practices have been shown in the private sector. Reforming the educational system in order to put into reality the ideals and practices embraced by servant leadership would be a significant step forward in preparing educational leaders for effective leadership and management in the twenty-first century. We must make sure our school leaders are not only great in leadership, but also have well-prepared plans in place to aid in our children's preparation for the future. A school leader plays an important part in helping employees to grow, getting people collaborating, leading the school community, and using resources to improve student performance. There is a need for more study on the implementation of servant leadership practices in education, especially in regard to the practicalities of urban school principals and principals-to-be.

Servant leadership was first developed by ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)); as his way of life, he placed the well-being of his followers above his own. Servant leadership empowers leaders to be great stewards of others first and gives them more decision-making authority ([Greenleaf, 2002](#)). Greenleaf said that servant leadership is an approachable way of interacting with everyone at all times, and anybody in the company may embody this. Greenleaf also stated that servant leadership incorporates a genuine want to empower others, the ability to collaborate, the capacity to trust, a desire to plan ahead, and the ability to listen. There is a growing emphasis on servant leadership today, and it is implemented in a wide range of notable companies. A transition from more conventional authoritarian and hierarchical leadership styles to relationship-based leadership has been enabled by servant leadership. A servant leader empowers individuals to act as change agents, care for others, uphold ethical conduct, and help their colleagues develop both personally and professionally. It is a common misconception that a servant is at odds with a boss. It should be noted, though, that Greenleaf brought them together. The idea of servant leadership was described by ([Barbuto & Wheeler, 2002](#)) as a vocation, in which servants are called to lead. ([Barbuto Jr & Wheeler, 2006](#)) pointed out that servant leaders are unselfish and

put the interests of their workers ahead of their own. According to ([Graham, 1991](#)), elevating employee development and service to others serves as a goal in itself.

This subsection has demonstrated how contrasts may be drawn between task-based leadership concepts and exchanged-based leadership principles. Servant leadership, however, differs from transformative leadership in important ways. Servant leadership focuses on character building, serving others, and improving the common good, whereas transformative leadership is more focused on personal growth, coming up with new ideas, and changing the world. In addition, [Bass \(2000\)](#) stated that servant leadership goes farther than transformational leadership does in bringing leaders and followers closer together, by also aligning the incentives of leaders and followers. Servant leaders have the effect of inspiring others to become servants as well, which is the opposite of the intended effect of transformational leadership ([Spears & Lawrence, 2004](#)). Servant leadership is also seen as important for fostering employee autonomy, a quality often lacking in transformative leadership ([Spears & Lawrence, 2004](#)). According to [Barbuto Jr and Wheeler \(2006\)](#), servant leadership works better in relationships than transformative leadership. A study of 80 elected politicians revealed that serving as a leader fostered greater connection between leaders and followers than being a transformative leader. There are additional leadership theories in the field, but the ideas mentioned above are the most related to the present research.

Next, this literature study mostly discusses the humanistic approach to leadership, although other approaches are considered to a lesser extent. In his book, *Servant Leadership: 10 Qualities of Servant-Centered Leadership*, Spears drew on Greenleaf's servant leadership philosophy and outlined 10 characteristics of servant-centered leadership. The 10 characteristics are: . With regard to developing servant leaders, the aforementioned qualities were defined as essential. The qualities are described in more detail below. Hearing: Servant leaders must be able to hear the views, frustrations, worries, and ideas of others while those others are expressing their thoughts. If a servant leader values the needs of others, he or she must first try to understand what those needs are. Reflecting on one's own ideas and emotions while considering how others see them is an important listening component.

Compassion. Listening first paves the way to understanding; one cannot understand the needs of others if one is unaware of the needs of others. Servant leaders should be able to show empathy and show gratitude for people's efforts. They should be able to identify with the members of their audience and understand them on a personal level, even if they do not embrace all of their ideas. The servant leader may improve a follower's morale, even if the follower's proposal was rejected, by expressing that the follower is still valued. Heal: servant leaders have the ability to mend relationships that have been harmed. Workers often have the scars of having been wounded at work or at other places. Servant leaders know that they have the ability to assist everyone that they meet, and this may result in positive outcomes. Attention. Awareness of others and of ourselves are key characteristics of servant leaders. When servant leaders engage with people and make choices, they are able to take in outside knowledge and their own, and so they get things done. Their knowledge gives them a better understanding of the organization, its members, and themselves as leaders. The power of persuasion. Rather than using an authoritarian leadership style, servant leaders try to convince their colleagues; instead of forcing others to follow, they seek to change people's opinions. This improves the leader's morale by increasing consensus among groups. Servant leaders may undertake day-to-day operations in a company, while also having a broader, long-term vision for the company. The use of foresight. A servant leader is not only able to see where an organization should be headed, but he or she is also able to see the probable results of different actions. They are able to use what they have learned in the past, as well as the present context, to forecast the result of a choice. They may also use intuition in choosing routes that avoid hazards. The ideal of stewardship. Stewardship is defined by its focus on fulfilling others' needs. To Greenleaf, organizations were composed of a number of leaders and followers who collectively sought to benefit society. Commitment to people's development. Leaders who put the interests of their subordinates above their own tend to think that their employees are more important than their job performance. The result is that servant leaders are willing to put out extra effort on behalf of every person in the organization; this may include a variety of approaches, such as making funds available for personal and professional growth. The promotion of community. A servant leader appreciates the significance of

creating a community instead of devoting all efforts to big organizations, which may, on occasion, distance themselves from the people who make up the organization and who they are meant to serve. They work to form a community with the individuals they come in contact with. When servant leaders put their time and effort into each person's development, they cultivate a mentality of trust that is critical for creating a cohesive community.

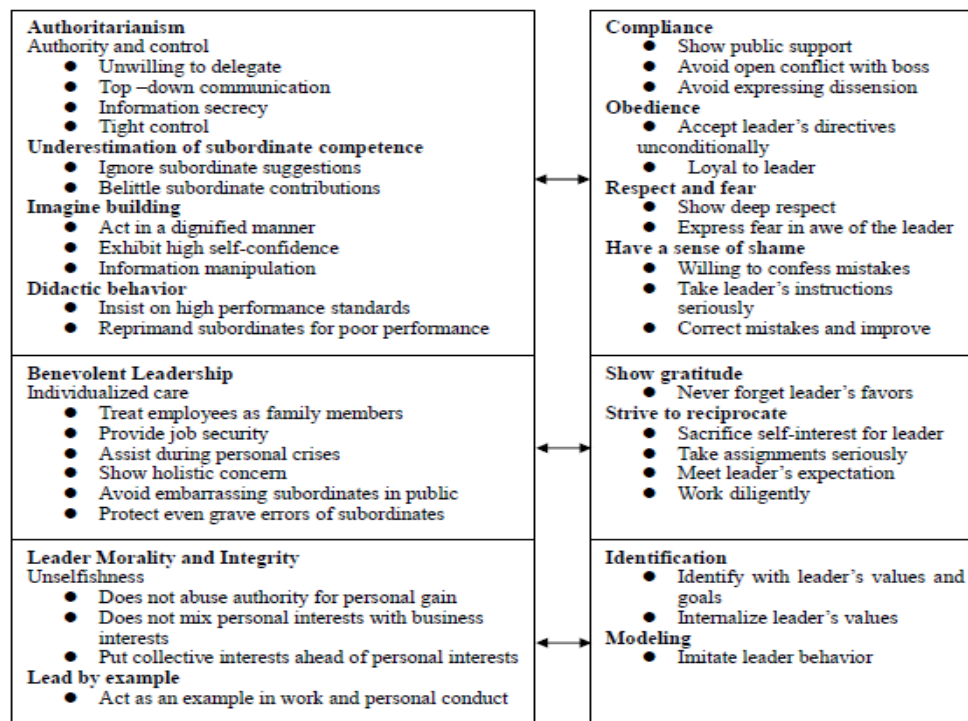
#### **2.1.6.2. Perceived PL**

[Hofstede \(1980\)](#) argued that good management must include cultural nuances, since cultural values vary among nations, regions, and groups. Due to the diversity of cultural views and values, there is an increased need for knowledge and acceptance of culturally based leadership approaches. [Jogulu \(2010\)](#) investigated whether the cultural environment aids in the creation of distinct leadership styles. He discovered considerable distinctions between leadership styles and cultural groupings, so corroborating the premise that culture and leadership interact differently in various circumstances. Western scholars have determined, based on the effect of culture, that successive generations of employees have distinct work qualities and favor distinct leadership styles ([Yu & Miller, 2005](#)). Chinese leaders cannot fully adopt Western leadership ideals. Clearly, applying Western leadership theories to Chinese hospitals does not accurately represent the origins of styles of leadership in Chinese hospitals; scholars researching leadership in Chinese healthcare institutions should focus on indigenous leadership theories ([Chong et al., 2013](#)). In the setting of Chinese culture, PL is formed. According to ([Fu, Li, & Si, 2013](#)), PL is a distinguishing attribute of senior executives in Chinese firms. According to ([W. Zhou et al., 2013](#)), PL is prevalent in corporations, governmental institutions, and other public organizations in both the Chinese and global cultural contexts. As a result, the current research focuses primarily on PL.

The current research defines PL, analyses its roots and evolution, presents a paradigm of PL, and compares it to transformational leadership. PL is characterized as follows: PL, as compared to other theories of leadership, was founded much later and is thus less often used and accepted. The concept of PL was developed by ([Fu et](#)

al., 2013). According to them, a paternalistic style of leadership is one that combines organization selects and authority with compassion and moral integrity, similar to that of a father. Three qualities of PL, according to their findings, are essential to understanding the style: authoritarianism, compassion, and ethical leadership. As illustrated, authoritarianism, benevolence, and moral authority are all ineffective in stimulating dependents' enthusiasm, whereas benevolence and moral leadership may aid in the generation of subordinates' enthusiasm. Authoritarianism is also ineffective in trying to stimulate subordinates' enthusiasm. The degree to which subordinates are enthused will have an impact on their ability to accomplish their jobs. Without a doubt, the performance of subordinates has a direct impact on the success of a team or an organization. To put it another way, authoritarianism has a negative impact on the enthusiasm of subordinates and employees. Benevolence and moral leadership are both factors that contribute to subordinate excitement in a good way. Because of this, we may conclude that authoritarianism is harmful to performance, but empathy and moral authority are advantageous.

**Figure 1: Leadership**



Source: Fan & Cheng (2000, p.98)

Furthermore, ([Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008](#)) asserted that paternalism is a successful leadership style in a variety of non-Western cultures, owing to paternalistic leaders' ability to be both benign and authoritative. The term "paternalism" derives from the Latin root "*pater*," which means "father." The leader steps into the position of a parent, a wise father ([Farrukh, Chong, Mansori, & Ramzani, 2017](#); [Fontana & Musa, 2017](#); [Franco & Almeida, 2011](#)). An authoritarianism style of leadership has been present throughout history, and it seems to derive its power from the psychological impact of growing up in a household in which the father takes on a particularly important role as a leader. According to ([Fu et al., 2013](#)), PL includes a comparable patriarchal approach and a strong and unambiguous authority that also incorporates elements of compassion, understanding subordinates, and moral leadership. They highlighted PL as a distinguishing feature of top executives' leadership styles in Chinese firms.

[Silin \(1976\)](#), a Western academic, initiated the first study of PL in Taiwan, China, toward the end of the 1960s. ([Silin, 1976](#)) described the leadership behavior of Taiwanese firms throughout the 1960s based on his research. He noticed that the owners' and administrators' leadership styles were quite different. Control, centralized power, insulation from subordinates, and unclear intentions (hiding intentions from subordinates to preserve dominance) are all distinct leadership traits. [Silin \(1976\)](#) established the concept of PL on the basis of his research findings.

In the 1980s, Redding concentrated on ([Silin, 1976](#)) as a case study. After interviewing Southeast Asian countries, he clearly proposed the concept of Chinese capitalism ([J.-W. Cheng et al., 2014](#)). He found that Chinese family businesses favored PL. ([Redding & Hsiao, 1990](#)) defined PL as the following: (3) Totalitarianism modified by responsiveness to subordinates' views; (4) Leadership that is not divisible once it has been specifically named with a person; (5) Obliviousness and decided to take a break within the hierarchical; and (6) Allowance for the leader's intentions to stay undetected.

Following Silin and Redding, Westwood is the third Western scholar to investigate PL. To differentiate himself from the Western cultural context's concept of

leadership, ([Westwood, 1997](#)) a "paternalistic headship" notion based on Eastern culture. He recognized nine PL styles: didactic, hazy, identity building, supremacy protection, election rigging, conflict diffusion, and dialogue ideal. Researchers found two new styles: conflict diffusion and conversation ideal ([X.-P. Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014](#)). Conflict diffusion occurs when leaders are intimately acquainted with their subordinates' thoughts and concerns about their growth through informal communication; leaders work to prevent and resolve public conflicts between their subordinates.

Cheng discovered PL was fashionable in the 1990s after interviewing 18 CEOs/owners and 24 managers of family businesses ([X.-P. Chen et al., 2014](#)). ([Chemers, 2000](#)) defined PL as having two dimensions: establishing authority and kindness. According to ([Su, Fan, & Rao-Nicholson, 2019](#)). Synonymous with the aspects of establishing authority and compassion in Cheng's paradigm; moral leadership is a new dimension ([X.-P. Chen et al., 2014](#)). In their empirical investigations, many academics have examined this leadership style in conjunction with the emergence of PL. They compared PL to Western leadership theory in order to determine its effectiveness. Their case studies focused primarily on mainland China and Taiwanese enterprises. This study focused on three aspects: scientific proof of PL's widely spread presence in various Chinese non-family businesses, the development of PL scale, and the performance test of PL, as well as comparison of effectiveness to Western management theories ([X.-P. Chen et al., 2014](#))

For a better understanding of the nature of authoritarianism and its relationship with empowerment, it is necessary to first examine cultural dimensions. Researchers have identified four measurements along which cultural norms can be described: power number of miles, individual freedom, masculinity, and the avoidance of uncertainty. Because my primary emphasis is on empowerment, the characteristics of power distance and individuality are likely to be the most relevant. Power distance is described as "the degree to which less important members of organizations and institutions within a nation anticipate and accept that power is allocated unequally" ([Hofstede, 1980](#)). In high power distance cultures, concentrated and paternal leadership is preferred, whereas low power distance cultures favor delegated and

independent leadership ([Eylon & Au, 1999](#)). These people are used to being treated equally, consulted, and working in autonomous groups ([Hofstede, 1980](#); [T. Morris & Pavett, 1992](#)). ([Hofstede, 1980](#)) cultural disparities in the extent of power imbalance acceptable for subordinate-authority interactions. Employees are required to respect people in charge in a high-power distance culture. The high - context cultures are accustomed to working in centralized workplaces where they are not instructed and told what to do ([Hofstede, 1980](#); [T. Morris & Pavett, 1992](#)). Overall, people from greater power distance cultures have less experience working in conditions that empower them. So they will be fewer familiar, more uncomfortable, and less competent ([Cakir, 2012](#)).

Those who subscribe to collectivism believe that the collective is the fundamental unit of reality and the ultimate measure of worth. Individualism is opposed to collectivism, which asserts that one's identification is defined by the groups with whom one interacts and that one's identity is mostly composed of one's interactions with others. When it comes to collectivistic civilizations, authoritarianism seems to be a highly regarded feature. According to the literature, paternalism is prevalent in nations in Pacific Asia ([Pye, 2005](#)), the Middle-East ([Ayman & Chemers, 1991](#)), and in Latin America ([Osland, De Franco, & Osland, 1999](#)). There is a high degree of conformity in such cultures, as well as more responsibility for others and greater interdependence ([Ayman & Chemers, 1991](#)). In a paternalistic relationship, cooperation with the paternalistic leader is voluntary on the part of the subject ([Singh & Bhandarker, 1990](#)). According to [Singh & Bhandarker \(1990\)](#), the paternalistic relationship is characterized as follows: “A person looks for a father-figure (symbolically speaking) in the workplace for empowering, protection, grooming, and development. In return, the individual develops respect for his superior and demonstrates willingness to accept his authority”.

Paternalism also means a willingness to submit to the authority of the paternalistic leader. Employees of the company become reliant on their employers because of the protection, direction, and numerous advantages they get. The practice of paternalistic parenting has been condemned in Western nations since it promotes compliance and dependence in opposition to individualistic principles like autonomy, self-reliance, and self-determination. In hierarchical cultures, paternalism is seen as legitimate. In the paternalistic relationship, the assumption of power

asymmetry between paternalistic leader and his subordinates serves as the foundation for the partnership. In societies with a high degree of power distance, disparity in the allocation of power is accepted rather than resisted. Paternalism is defined by ([VanDeVeer, 2014](#)) in his publication *Paternalistic intervention: The psychological constraints of kindness as a connection* “in which one person, A, intervenes with another person, S, in order to enhance his or her welfare.” This concept is based on the implicit premise that the superior "knows what is best for the subordinate," which is a fallacy. It is the leader's status that is conferred upon him by projecting a positive image, age and experience; as a result, his power and authority are legitimized and extended to his followers.

### **2.1.7. Social Exchange Theory (SET)**

Conceptual frameworks, theoretical foundation theories, and conceptual models are utilized to provide the groundwork for any study's research questions. The current research recognized SET ([Blau, 1964](#)) and the ([Meyer & Allen, 1991](#)) used three main factors which contribute to measure the model and supporting foundational models. The next sections will explore these important works. The theory of social trade. [Blau \(1964\)](#) theory of social exchange and ([Meyer & Allen, 1991](#)) measured employee commitment by using factors such as payroll giving, one-time fundraising events, and volunteer activities and employee commitment. [Blau \(1964\)](#) developed SET, saying that an exchange occurs between the company and the 37 employees, in which perceived acts of kindness for workers are rewarded by employee loyalty and dedication. There are two distinct kinds of social exchange ([Blau, 1964](#)): perceived organizational support (POS) and leader member exchange (LMX). POS is a kind of social exchange that occurs at the organizational level, with the employee reciprocating directly with the company, while LMX occurs at the individual level, with reciprocity occurring between the person and their immediate supervisor ([Blau, 1964](#)). POS was chosen as the kind of social exchange to investigate in this research because possibilities for employer-sponsored corporate social responsibility (CSR) are given at the organizational level, not by the direct supervisor. SET is often used in CSR literature and has been used to explain employer–employee interactions ([Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017](#)). [Blau \(1964\)](#) observed that an organization's charitable activities, which involve its social groupings, such as its

workers, are likely to have an effect on the dynamics of social exchange. [Blau \(1964\)](#) further observed that contributors receive appreciation not just from beneficiaries they may never meet, but also from colleagues and stakeholders who may join the charitable effort.

Individuals participate in a variety of social relationships according to their own evaluation of possible risk and reward, according to SET ([Rupp & Mallory, 2015](#)). Additionally, the quantity of economic and socioeconomic resources received by workers and other stakeholders is a factor in determining the amount of discretionary cognitive, emotional, and physical resources that a person is willing to provide via their job performance ([Azim, 2016](#)). According to SET, increasing reciprocity improves employee commitment (both emotional and normative) and work happiness, which eventually results in decreased turnover intentions ([Cropanzano et al., 2017](#)). All social interactions are predicated on reciprocity ([Göbel, Vogel, & Weber, 2013](#)). SET has been described as a value system based on reciprocity ([Shuck, Twyford, Reio Jr, & Shuck, 2014](#)). Thus, SET is often used to study the motivations for employee actions and the development of employee attitudes about their companies' strategic CSR efforts. Recent research findings corroborate these claims as well. ([Farooq, Payaud, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2014](#)), for example, found that workers' perceptions of CSR led to emotional organizational commitment, which was mediated by both organizational identity and trust. More recently, [Azim \(2016\)](#) found that when a CSR program meets employee expectations, workers have more favorable views and results toward their company. These findings indicate that an organization's benevolent acts of showing care and concern for community members motivate workers to reciprocate, thus validating the SET and its applicability to CSR research and employee outcomes. Additionally, these findings bolster the commercial case for CEOs to embrace CSR. Thus, when employer-sponsored CSR activities are implemented, the idea of social exchange is suitable for showing reciprocity in the workplace between a company and its employees. Notably, few studies have been conducted on this connection so far. When workers engage in employer-sponsored CSR activities, it is expected that they would develop a feeling

of responsibility to freely repay their organization's good deeds via positive workplace behaviors and attitudes ([IM, Rabelo, & Holland, 2018](#)).

Interest in this concept has spiked in recent years due to several studies that show beneficial impacts on job results ([Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005](#); [Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims Jr, 2013](#)). An individual's capacity to take risks as well as become more responsible for their behaviors and results has been shown to be influenced by EL ([Cheong, Spain, Yammarino, & Yun, 2016](#)). A favorable effect on employee satisfaction and retention has been seen when the use of EL is adopted ([Özaralli, 2015](#); [Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010](#)). The perks outlined above are important for twenty-first century businesses, which are striving to thrive throughout this period of change. However, analysis of the current body of data produced conflicting findings with regard to the efficacy of EL under specific conditions ([Cheong et al., 2016](#){[Sharma, 2015 #115](#)}). The Individual Life in is affected by characteristics that are specific to the employee. The examples of ([Hersey & Blanchard, 1982](#)) and ([Ahearne et al., 2005](#)) illustrate that workers in the more advanced developmental stages would be the most likely to accept EL, whereas workers at the early stages would better be suited for empowerment. In addition, employee tenure may be another significant element when it comes to EL. It was observed in one meta-analysis that having more confidence in their capabilities was more common among workers with shorter tenure ([S. K. Kang & Lee, 2018](#)). [Ahearne et al. \(2005\)](#) advanced the theory that a salesforce made up of more experienced salespeople may be fixed in their ways and thus be less open to EL. Additionally, it was said that individuals with less experience wanted to be trusted by their boss, and, because of this, they were more open to receiving empowerment. On top of this, the success of the employees' job has been mostly connected to uneven outcomes from EL. In line with role theory ([Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964](#)), it is possible for individuals to suffer increased work pressure and unhappiness when their follower role perspective does not coincide with what they are experiencing. Role ambiguity may lead to the feeling of lack of empowerment ([Sharma & Kirkman, 2015](#)). Other social factors may also contribute to inconsistent findings on the impact of EL. Cultural norms vary, and how leaders and followers respond to empowerment, trust, and innovation may be influenced by these different cultural norms. Another excellent example is how different cultures have shown varying degrees of empowered creation. In higher power distance cultures, the concepts of empowerment and social norms may be in conflict ([Chow & Chan, 2008](#)). Employees may not get the full feeling of empowerment in this scenario. A lower power distance society would thus be

more likely to adopt EL. Additional cultural factors such as uncertainty avoidance and individualism may affect these research findings ([Hofstede, 1980](#)).

Aside from the disparate results on the impacts of EL, the present study findings on how EL is linked to employee creativity were also in a state of flux. Some studies found a positive relationship between creativity and EL, whereas other studies showed no such relationship ([S. K. Kang & Lee, 2018](#); [Zhang & Bartol, 2010](#)). ([Ahearne et al., 2005](#); [Cheong et al., 2016](#); [J. Zhou & Hoever, 2014](#)) Some studies have shown that EL may lead to outcomes that decrease productivity, which can hamper the creativity of an organization ([Ma, 2000](#); [Sharma & Kirkman, 2015](#)). Contextual factors, which combine with interactionist creativity theory, may have a negative impact on creative output ([Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993](#)). Individual creativity is influenced by the culture and dynamics of a group. From this vantage point, it may be possible to explain some of the contradictory findings reported in the research on creativity ([Audenaert & Decramer, 2018](#)). Other research suggests it is possible that the effect of this innovation on creativity may be affected by different contextual variables, such as EL leadership style, which impacts creativity ([Audenaert & Decramer, 2018](#); [Cheong, 2016](#)). Research has shown that EL is linked to creativity when the occupations have significant problem-solving demands ([Audenaert & Decramer, 2018](#)). In addition, by providing more influence, EL helps to foster creative thinking in work settings where leaders support critical thinking growth ([Audenaert, 2018, p. 125](#)). Furthermore, research shows that work design and routinization influence how these two variables interact ([Raja & Johns, 2010](#)). EL improves employee creativity by considering variables such as work control, role complexity, job demands, and the degree of support provided by one's boss ([Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006](#)). It has also been observed that leadership creativity demands are likewise related to this connection ([Farmer, Tierney, & Kung-Mcintyre, 2003](#)). It is proposed that a group's capacity to exchange information, foster cooperation, and provide new workers with assistance with these systems directly affects how EL helps in the generation of creativity ([Rodan & Galunic, 2004](#)). While it is also linked to the production of innovative ideas, the higher the degree of coordination among the various aspects of a team, the greater the number of new ideas that will be generated ([Lorinkova et al., 2013](#); [Rodan & Galunic, 2004](#)). Other research discovered limits with regards to the relationship between EL and creativity that were related to personal characteristics ([Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016](#)). Conscientiousness, openness, and extraversion are all attributes of the Big Five personality characteristics ([Raja & Johns, 2010](#)). This relationship, between beliefs in one's creative self-

efficacy and positive views of oneself, is affected by this third connection ([Farmer et al., 2003](#); [Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009](#); [Özaralli, 2015](#)). Employee PE has impacted the benefits of EL on their creativity ([Lorinkova et al., 2013](#)). intrinsic desire, domain-relevant knowledge, and innovative thinking abilities ([Amabile, 1988](#)). This connection is also important to the employee's learning orientation ([Gong et al., 2009](#)). The failure of previous research to uncover mediating variables may point to the possible influence of external factors on the link between creativity and EL ([Audenaert & Decramer, 2018](#)). We may also turn to affect-based trust as a potential mediator. This is because confidence in a leader has seldom been examined as a mediator in other leadership styles ([Jung & Avolio, 2000](#); [Martin et al., 2016](#)). Although some academics contend that trust has a function in helping to promote employee creativity, it is not quite that simple ([Forret & Dougherty, 2004](#)). In other words, trust seems to affect the relationship between EL and creativity ([Chow & Chan, 2008](#)). A lack of confidence in a leader may lead to EL having a detrimental impact ([Y. H. Lee, Hwang, & Choi, 2017](#)). Researchers believe that a connection between trust and creativity should be further studied since it is believed to be essential and useful ([Bidault & Castello, 2009](#)). Several academic experts suggested further investigation on the relationship between EL and creativity ([Chow & Chan, 2008](#)). Researchers have said that studies have shown that EL has a possible range of effects (either good or negative) ([Ambad & Wahab, 2016](#); [Y. H. Lee et al., 2017](#)). This phenomenon is linked to different mediators. Taking a leap of faith in a leader may be a good intervening variable that encourages EL to generate positive reactions that may assist foster staff creativity. Organizations that have an ongoing need for innovation thus must consider using EL ([Ambad & Wahab, 2016](#)). Several studies have shown that knowledge of how affect-based trust influences the association mediates the interaction connecting adversely effect trust and the association. Previous research has shown that actually impact confidence in leaders is a mediator of the relationship between empowering advancement.

#### **2.1.8. Resource-Based View (RBV)**

RBV has emerged as one of the most widely used theoretical paradigms in management research, accounting, and finance ([Beard & Sumner, 2004](#); [Runyan, Huddleston, & Swinney, 2006](#)). Business competitive advantage enhanced by using the resource supported by the RBV ([J. Barney, 1991](#); [Peteraf, 1993](#); [Wernerfelt, 1984](#)). There has been an explosion of interest in researching the origins of enduring competitive advantage for organizations ([J. Barney, 1991](#); [Wernerfelt, 1984](#)). The

same organizing framework has been used for much of this research since the 1960s ([Andrews, Gnanadesikan, & Warner, 1971](#)), focusing on identifying possibilities and risks for businesses ([Ansoff, 1991](#)), as well as researching how these opportunities and dangers are matched to select strategies ([Penrose, 1959, p. 135](#)). There is no debate about how effective this method has been in shedding light on the connection between a company's internal and external environments and its development ([J. Barney, 1991](#)). RBV posits that an in-depth investigation of a company's internal strengths and shortcomings depends on two assumptions. First, [R. Penrose \(1959\)](#) suggested that businesses may be seen as collections of productive resources and because firms might vary in the resources they own, firms will have various bundles of these resources. This is known as the assumption of varying business resources. To accomplish the first goal, we may rely on the findings of ([Selznick, 1957](#)) and Ricardo (1966, p. 491), both of whom found that the marginal cost of producing an additional unit of a good is extremely high. Resource immobility is assumed. The RBV is defined by the emphasis on internal factors in a business. This method follows ([B. Penrose, 1959](#)) rather than another. This has renewed interest in the function of a firm's resources as a foundational component of the company's overall strategy ([R. M. Grant, 1991](#); [D. Miller & Shamsie, 1996](#)).

Some interest in industrial organization economics has resulted from frustration with the traditional static, equilibrium paradigm that has focused on how strategy is related to the external environment ([R. M. Grant, 1991](#)). At the strategic level, many advancements have been made on various levels, and all of them have contributed to what is now known as a resources-based perspective. RBV describes a business as consisting of all of the resources it combines. [R. Penrose \(1959\)](#) emphasized the fact that an enterprise is more than simply a single unit. It must also be made up of many resources. Resource is often restricted to characteristics that make the business more efficient and successful ([Wernerfelt, 1984](#)). Resources are needed to produce profits or to help to keep losses to a minimum. An abundant supply of general resources will balance the firm's competitive edge. Often, in order for a business to gain significant performance and ongoing market share advantage, it will need to accumulate a diverse set of heterogeneous resources that are rare, scarce, or difficult

to produce, replace, or duplicate by other companies. Tangible resources are known as resources whereas immaterial resources are referred to as resources. When it comes to resources, we are talking about tangible resources such as money, capital, and access to capital (among others). There are many intangible resources, including knowledge, talent, and reputation ([Runyan et al., 2006](#)). This theory holds that since markets are imperfect, there are a variety of companies, and they specialize in varying degrees. This mean that resources may be more efficiently transferred because they are of various types, magnitudes, and differing character ([Amit & Schoemaker, 1993](#)). Because of this, successful businesses may be found inside these businesses, since they have the resources and ability to expand and to maintain a competitive edge ([Peteraf, 1993](#)). This view has been brought up by a number of writers ([Chandler & Hanks, 1994](#); [R. M. Grant, 1991](#); [Mahoney & Pandian, 1992](#)).

Linking resources in capabilities with higher performance is one way for them to claim this is feasible ([Mahoney & Pandian, 1992](#)). According to [R. Penrose \(1959\)](#), rather than just having more or better resources, businesses achieve higher performance because of their unique competencies (whatever activities the company performs better than other firms). permanent and dependable resources ([Penrose, 1959](#)). Resources which may be attributed to both competencies and skills are called invisible assets in certain other studies ([Prakash, 2011](#)). Capabilities are often defined as the aggregate of an individual's competencies, assets, and acquired knowledge, which are exercised via organizational procedures that enable the utilization of resources more effectively ([Amit & Schoemaker, 1993](#)). It is important to be aware of the difference between resources and capabilities. Resources are the fundamental units of analysis ([Beard & Sumner, 2004](#); [R. M. Grant, 1991](#)). Intellectual assets, patents, brand names, and other such resources form the individual resources of a company ([Ireland et al., 2003](#)). Capabilities are the most important source of a firm's competitive advantage. Drawing these differences in principle is straightforward, but very difficult in reality. Various capacities may be created in both functional and physical sectors, or combined from physical, human, and technical resources. These resources are usually within the firm's control ([Amit & Schoemaker, 1993](#)). Competencies and resources go hand in hand when it comes to formulating a

company's strategy, and therefore they create the firm's identity ([Grant, 1991](#)). The more capacity that is used, the greater the number of refinements and the more difficult it is to replicate. the flexible approach resulting from the ability ([Nelson et al., 2010](#)).

A theoretical stream in the RBV, namely capabilities approach, may be seen as being on the creative horizon. The concept behind this idea is that business entities (firms) continuously search for new skills, and, on the other hand, their market rivals (competitors) are constantly developing or acquiring highest-level abilities. To go about things this way means putting more focus on internal procedures, assets, and market position as elements that constrain as well as on the capacity to respond ([Teece & Pisano, 1994](#)). ([Granstrand, Patel, & Pavitt, 1997](#)) found that managerial competencies are critical in addition to sales growth when it comes to expanding a company and bolstering its diversity and performance. According to ([R. M. Grant, 1991](#)), managers must utilize the firm's resources and skills more efficiently by selecting an acceptable strategy. The following concept is made known in the form of a question: To what degree are the resources and competencies essential to creating a competitive advantage used strategically? The VRIO approach, created by ([J. Barney, 1991](#)), is a systematic set of four questions used to probe businesses about their activities: There are four main questions which need to be considered. To understand if a given company resource or capacity is a strength or weakness, answers to these questions must be discovered. The VRIO model elucidates the factors that contribute to a firm's success. The competitive worth of resources may be increased or diminished as a result of changes in technology, rival behavior, or buyer requirements. All of these factors would be overlooked if an organization focused only on internal resources ([Porter, 1985](#)). [Chandler and Hanks \(1994\)](#) asserted that resources and capabilities provide an adequate foundation for developing competitive strategies. A critical element that contributes to a firm's long-term competitive advantage is the durability of its skills or core competencies ([Aliouat & Masclef, 1999](#); [Chandler & Hanks, 1994](#)). Sustaining skills are those that are difficult or impossible for rivals to replicate and must serve as the foundation for a firm's strategy. These assets and skills are critical for achieving competitive advantage and

should be safeguarded. As such, they play a crucial part in companies' competitive strategies.

## **2.2. Empirical Review**

### **2.2.1. Leadership and Physiological Empowerment**

[Yun, Won, and Park \(2016\)](#) pointed out the positive association between leadership and physiological empowerment; furthermore, they also suggested staying in competition needs innovation. In this regard, leadership plays an important role in engaging employees in innovation, and this is only possible while the employee is physiologically empowered. Moreover, [J.-W. Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, and Farh \(2004\)](#) explored the positive impact of physiological empowerment; they wished to investigate whether physiological empowerment led to employees' engagement which, in turn, would improve the performance of an organization. Leaders create a positive impact on physiological empowerment ([Schermuly & Meyer, 2020](#)). Personal empowerment is a kind of intrinsic motivation that results from a proactive attitude toward, and confidence in, one's own ability to influence one's own work. It is articulated in four beliefs: impact, competency, consciousness, and purpose. The significance of a work is determined by how closely it corresponds to the worker's own ideals and views ([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)). The impact of a person is his or her belief that he or she can have an impact on the unit's strategic direction, operational procedures, and results ([Ashforth & Mael, 1989](#)). Autonomy and control over the start, regulation, and continuation of work activities are necessary components of a person's feeling of self-determination ([Deci et al., 1989](#)). Competence relates to ideas about how competent one believes oneself to be ([Bandura, 1989](#)).

Transformational leaders may affect followers' views about their own roles within the company, and therefore they have a connection with employee PE that is especially essential ([Spreitzer, 2008](#)). Leadership that is transformational has an uplifting effect on its followers because it inspires them to connect with the collective rather than with an individual. Additionally, it has been shown that those who are psychologically empowered have a connection with organizational

dedication ([Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004](#)). In order to increase organizational performance, it is necessary to understand the influence of incentives such as task completion or citizenship on performance behavior.

Self-leadership is often seen as conceptually separate from PE ([M. Lee & Koh, 2001](#)). Like self-leadership, transformational leadership is a state of mind generated by a constellation of flexible cognitions. According to past research, self-leadership is an effective way to promote empowerment ([Manz, 1992](#); [Prussia, Anderson, & Manz, 1998](#)). For example, ([Shipper & Manz, 1992](#)) provided a case study of W. L. Gore and Associates and argued that self-management and self-leadership practices were a critical component of that organization's empowerment initiatives. Similarly, ([Manz, 1992](#)) argued that self-leadership abilities are important to the empowerment process and are required for workers to succeed in independent circumstances.

In addition to boosting emotions of importance, purpose, self-determination, competency, and consciousness ([M. Lee & Koh, 2001](#)). Natural reward approaches, for example, foster feelings of competency, personality, and significance. Self-reflection, self-goal planning, and self-rewarding may also promote self-determination and competence. Increasing self-efficacy is also a fundamental objective of self-leadership efforts ([Manz, 1986](#); [Neck & Manz, 1996](#); [Neck, Mitchell, Manz, & Thompson, 2004](#)). Empirical research has shown some support for an association between self-leadership and self-efficacy. [Neck and Manz \(1996\)](#), for example, found that self-leadership training increased self-efficacy in employees compared to no training. Prussia and coworkers ([Prussia et al., 1998](#)). This relationship may also be bidirectional in nature. A person who has strong moments of self, knowledge, significance, and influence may be more likely to engage in self-leading behaviors than someone who does not have these feelings. However, because self-leadership theory identifies that its various strategies should result in much of the psychological processing associated with PE, and because empirical studies support this assertion, it would seem more likely that self-leadership techniques enable PE rather than the converse. However, the question of whether encouraging self-leadership and psychological capital is

always helpful continues to be debated.

PE, as described by ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)) and ([K. W. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)), is a collection of four cognitions that indicate an individual's orientation to his or her professional function and are reflected in four areas: meaning, competence, self-determination, and influence. Using earlier research, ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)) proved that these four cognitions formed the basis of a higher order employee engagement concept. Self-determination theory ([Gagné & Deci, 2005](#)) states that a comparable meaning to the notion of motivation may be found in the definition of PE. Mental empowerment is derived from an individual's impression of their profession as meaningful, the capacity to execute the job successfully, the ability to govern activities, and the influence they have on their work environment, to name a few factors ([Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008](#); [Spreitzer, 1995a](#)). A study conducted by ([Gagné & Deci, 2005](#)) found that autonomy-supporting leaders have the capacity to increase their workers' levels of motivation. In fact, servant leaders may have a major impact on their followers' PE via their actions. Servant leaders are more likely to enable their followers to enjoy a greater sense of purpose in their professions if they stimulate their subordinates' potential and establish trust by selflessly helping others who are less fortunate than themselves ([Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017](#)). Servant leaders take pleasure in being able to give developmental support and encouragement to their followers as they learn new abilities and work toward achieving creative objectives. As a result, servant leaders may encourage followers to have increased sentiments of competence in order to effectively complete creative activities ([Newman et al., 2017](#); [Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010](#); [Yang, Liu, & Gu, 2017](#)). Servant leaders may also provide followers with increased autonomy, and followers may develop sentiments of greater freedom at work, both of which may help to strengthen an employee's sense of self-determination by increasing their sense of control (([Greenleaf, 2002](#); [Neuman & Kreuger, 2003](#); [Van Dierendonck, 2011](#)). Followers are more likely to become aware of the major impact they have on their work units when they are given the opportunity to participate in the judgment call process, according to servant leaders (Newman et al., 2017). As a result, servant

leadership has been shown to be positively connected with PE. PE would not only improve employee morale, but it would also enhance employee creativity, since psychologically empowered people are more driven to explore different creative options and develop fresh solutions, resulting in a tendency to be more innovative ([Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996](#); [Zhang & Bartol, 2010](#)). Employees who are psychologically empowered recognize the significance of their job and are more likely to devote time to understanding an issue from a variety of viewpoints, seek different solutions by using a variety of information sources, and provide innovative alternatives ([Shalley & Gilson, 2004](#)). Furthermore, personnel who are psychologically empowered are more confident in their capacity to do their duties effectively. As a result, they demonstrate a greater willingness to take chances and explore new brain pathways ([Liu et al., 2020](#); [Zhang & Bartol, 2010](#)). Furthermore, psychologically empowered individuals think that they have the ability to make decisions about the way their jobs are performed and the influence of their work on others. As a result, they feel less constrained by routines and more motivated to engage in creative activities ([Si & Wei, 2012](#)). Recent empirical research has stressed the favorable relationship between PE and employee creativity, according to the findings of ([Liu et al., 2020](#); [Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#)). I hypothesized that PE would act as a mediating factor in the association between servant leadership and employee innovation.

Employees' feelings of PE, which is an internal motivational condition, indicate whether they believe they are in command of their job while employed by the firm ([Spreitzer, 2008](#)). Being in command provides workers with a more active attitude to their jobs, which has a variety of beneficial implications for their performance. PE presents itself in four ways: via purpose, competence, self-determination, and impact (or the ability to make a difference) ([Spreitzer, 1995b](#)). The meaning of a job is the sense of its worth or significance held by the workers who do it ([D. J. Thomas & Griffin, 1996](#)). When workers have the skills to accomplish the job they are required to perform, this is referred to as competence (Bandura, 1977). It is the workers' perceptions of their ability to make choices about the procedure they will follow to complete the assignment that determines their level of self-

determination (Avolio et al., 2004). Last, but not least, the effect is the perception of workers about the potential of their job to make a difference in achieving the goal of the task or the broader goal of the business ([Spreitzer, 1995a](#)).

Given the evidence that PE is associated with a variety of positive outcomes, including performance ([Chiaburu, Baker, & Pitariu, 2006](#)), creativity ([Zhang & Bartol, 2010](#)), and organizational citizenship behavior ([Bhatnagar, 2012](#)), academics place a high value on it and look for ways to promote it that are both effective and efficient. Leadership was one of the factors that brought academics to the subject. Empowering leaders are those who empower their subordinates. The following actions or attributes have been seen in leaders who are considered to be empowering. They first enlighten their subordinates on the firm's production process and overall objectives, enhancing their sense of importance in the business ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#)). Second, encouraging leadership lavishes praise, support, and argumentation on employees who are acquiring new skills and therefore improving their total competency ([Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014](#)). Third, the leaders who empower their subordinates are willing to provide them with autonomy, so strengthening their sense of self-determination ([Bandura, 1989](#)). At the end of the day, empowered leaders quickly include subordinates in decision making, so allowing them to recognize that their actions have an influence on the organization's working environment ([Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014](#); [Manz, 1986](#)).

Servant leadership demonstrates the traits listed above as well, and, as a result, it may be characterized as empowering leadership. As Conger explained it, enabling leaders share knowledge with their workers; servant leaders, in a similar vein, disseminate information among their own workforce (Page & Wong, 2000). First and foremost, servant leadership embodies the competence-nurturing, support, and encouragement that are associated with empowered management practices ([Lindgreen & Wynstra, 2005](#); [Page & Wong, 2000](#)). In addition to sharing leadership ([Laub, 1999](#)) and delegating authority (Patterson, 2003), servant leadership fosters employee self-determination in a manner similar to that of an empowered leader, increasing employee self-determination. Employers see serving leaders as empowering because they include employees in their judgments and listen to their

input (Page & Wong, 2000; Spears, 2002). Along with the complementarity between servant leadership and empowering leadership, empirical research supports the relationship between servant leadership and PE ([Newman et al., 2017](#)).

### **2.2.2. PE as a Linking Mechanism**

To learn more about the connection between transformational leadership, PE, and work-related behaviors, we turn to transformational leadership, sensemaking theory, and self-concept theory ([Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993](#); [Weick, 1993, 1995](#)). Transformational leadership theory offers an explanation of how transformational leaders impact their followers by changing their employees' self-concepts, which includes a person's self-image, self-worth, self-esteem, and an ideal self ([Shamir et al., 1993](#)). [C. R. Rogers \(1959\)](#) stated that transformational leaders have a positive outlook about the future, and they are highly energized and committed in expressing what must be accomplished. These attributes enable workers to see the organization's mission as meaningful and their own work as contributing to its aims ([Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000](#)). [Piccolo and Colquitt \(2006\)](#) stated that by providing personalized assistance, education and coaching, and developing employees' strengths, transformational leaders help their colleagues become more self-aware of their full potential and motivate them to believe in their own skills and abilities ([Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002](#)); this comes from a transformational leader's very positive and confident statements of belief in an employee's abilities to execute and master activities ([Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000](#)). Transformational leaders inspire their followers to question assumptions, challenge the status quo, and participate in challenging issues to realize the full potential of the company ([Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003](#)). Transformational leadership practices enable employees to see themselves differently and more positively by boosting their self-concepts, by nurturing their psychological sense of the significance and effect of their job, as well as boosting their competence and self-determination while performing their tasks.

Transformational leaders engage in sensemaking in order to understand and shape the meaning of their workers' work ([Weick, 1993, 1995](#)); sensemaking is a way in which people make sense of organizational circumstances and perceive the

significance of an event ([Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005](#)). Leaders are essential to making sense of the environment, figuring out problems, and formulating new ideas because they keep an eye on what is going on, perceive issues and occurrences, and create meaning that affects the thoughts and perspectives of team members ([Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991](#)). The stories that leaders tell, as well as the methods they use to comprehend the environment, are essential ([Cunliffe & Coupland, 2012](#); [Weick, 2012](#)). Attention is captured and maintained when narratives are communicated in an energetic way, and when narrative material is ordered and structured, employees can comprehend the information being presented ([Maitlis, 2005](#); [Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001](#)).

Leaders that use the method of sensemaking participate in organization-oriented projects by framing such efforts as opportunities for workers and the company to both benefit ([Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008](#); [Nemanich, Keller, & Vera, 2007](#)). To assist workers to appreciate the significance of their job, transformational leaders help employees “manage the meaning” of their experience ([Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006](#); [Smircich & Morgan, 1982](#)). These can be inspired and romanticized explanations, encouraging workers to see their job as important and impactful ([Bono & Judge, 2003](#); [Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006](#); [Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006](#); [Sparks & Schenk, 2001](#)). Transformational leaders handle barriers to work in a unique way, too. Transformational leaders help employees build emotions of competence by reframing challenges as opportunities for learning, development, and progress ([Sosik & Godshalk, 2000](#); [Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino, 2004](#)). To approach their job with self-determination, workers should be inspired by their leaders to see their work as an opportunity to showcase their unique talents and insight. Transformational leaders help employees see their job as important and impactful and deal with difficulties by framing them in ways that enhance perceptions of competence and autonomy.

Companies should be aware of the emotional empowerment that transformational leaders have on their employees since this is linked to an improvement in task performance and citizenship behaviors. People get intrinsic motivation when they find their job meaningful and when they realize that their effort helps others; they have a greater internal desire to do better work as a result ([A. M. Grant, 2008](#)).

Furthermore, when workers feel competent and autonomous, they have the courage to pursue their projects with dedication and their job becomes an invaluable part of their lives. PE yields cognitive expressions such as increased resiliency in job tasks, which leads to high levels of performance ([K. W. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990](#)). Psychologically empowered workers also approach their job proactively, take on a greater sense of responsibility for positive change within the company, and strive to benefit the company further. As a consequence, these employees develop citizenship behaviors ([Conger & Kanungo, 1988](#); [Spreitzer, 1995a](#)). A CEO who excels at creating employee PE may be especially adept at fostering transformational leadership. Via their moving stories of group purpose and innovative visions of the future, workers' self-affirmed beliefs of significance and autonomy, and through personalized guidance and managerial support, employees' self-empowered beliefs of competence and personal choice ([A. M. Grant, 2012](#)). By this reasoning, transformational leaders inspire workers to greater levels of performance and good behavior by way of raising their confidence and enhancing their sense of empowerment.

### **2.2.3. Leadership and intrapreneurial Behavior**

According to [Bass and Avolio \(1994\)](#), leadership is considered an important indicator to promote intrapreneurial behavior within an organization. Furthermore, they also pointed out that leadership motivates coworkers to achieve objectives. There is a positive association observed among the variables. Moreover, [Bass, Stogdill, and Bass \(2008\)](#) concluded that the best way to recognition is reward give to subordinates to motivate and activate their coworkers, and second, the behavior of the leaders also matters. [Spreitzer, De Janasz, and Quinn \(1999\)](#) examined the positive association among these variables.

([Moriano, Molero, Topa, & Lévy Mangin, 2014](#)) studied leadership development, transactional leadership, passive-avoidant leadership, and other styles of leadership in their investigation of the link between leadership and intrapreneurship. Change agents are commended for connecting employees' self-concept to the interests and aims of the company, which has been proved to improve innovativeness and proactiveness in the workplace. Transactional leaders establish defined structures

and duties, and their relationship with their staff is transactional in nature, with the leader having complete control over compensation. Passive-avoidant leaders avoid outlining agreements, clarifying activities, and setting objectives and standards because they are uncomfortable with doing so. According to ([Moriano et al., 2014](#)), a quantitative study was carried out in which a questionnaire was distributed to various individuals in order to determine what type of leadership their leader possessed; this information was then compared to the intellectual characteristics of intrapreneurial behavior. The findings indicated that transformative leadership is associated with good intrapreneurial conduct, transactional leadership is associated with negative intrapreneurial behavior, and passive-avoidant behavior is not associated with intrapreneurial behavior. While the research did not go into detail about how leadership influenced the people, it did emphasize the need for transformational leaderships. They did not take into account or examine the implications and features of passive leadership.

Executives at the top and middle tiers are responsible for promoting and enabling intrapreneurship ([Hornsby et al., 2002](#); [Kuratko, 2005](#)). They may foster an intrapreneurial culture in which staff members help lead the team in encouraging the implementation of novel ideas, supplying required resources, or offering modest trial initiatives ([Kuratko, 2005](#)). Recent studies indicate that transformative leadership boosts workers' creativity and innovation ([Elenkov & Manev, 2005](#); [Eyal & Kark, 2004](#); [Jung et al., 2003](#); [Ling, Simsek, Lubatkin, & Veiga, 2008](#); [S. J. Shin & Zhou, 2003](#)). Transformational leadership theory divides leadership styles into three categories: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership ([Bass, 1985](#); [Bass et al., 2008](#)). Information-based transformation leadership has been defined as having five distinct characteristics: motivating others, idealistic influence (both ascribed and behavioral), individualized concern, intellectual challenge, and united leadership (among other things). "Charisma" is represented by the two central components ([Jung et al., 2003](#)). A very motivating source of inspiration is the envisioning of a successful future and showing hope and excitement for this future. Idealized influence involves actions such as exhibiting ethical conduct and setting a positive example for the group; sacrificing for the good

of the collective to inspire loyalty and trust in others. In the third element, personalized consideration, participants get the aid of counseling, coaching, and encouragement. The fourth factor, intellectual stimulation, includes activities that heighten awareness of issues, encourage experimentation, and foster creativity by encouraging people to think outside the box, question assumptions, and examine things from a different perspective.

One of the major benefits of extensive research conducted over the years is that it has confirmed the notion that those managers who have been given the highest ratings on transformational leadership components have been linked to inspiring higher levels of additional effort, innovative work, and organizational citizenship behavior ([Howell & Higgins, 1990](#); [Jung et al., 2003](#); [Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995](#); [Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990](#)). An additional advantage of transformative leadership is that it may provide the groundwork for intrapreneurship. The primary job of transformational leaders is to cultivate a clear vision for the whole company and the many means at their disposal to identify business possibilities ([Eyal & Kark, 2004](#)). Additionally, transformative leaders challenge their followers to explore new ideas and think beyond the box ([Howell & Higgins, 1990](#); [Jung et al., 2003](#)). Thirdly, transformative leaders are beneficial for their followers by giving them the confidence and abilities to think of and create new solutions to existing issues in their business ([Howell & Higgins, 1990](#); [Jung et al., 2003](#)).

When it comes to encouraging dynamic and imaginative behavior in businesses, effective leadership is essential ([Fontana & Musa, 2017](#)). Managers may inspire and motivate staff to cultivate intrapreneurial behavior in a variety of ways, including encouraging risk-taking, embracing innovation, and being proactive. Tactile learning (TL) is regarded the most successful of the leadership theories in terms of cultivating intrapreneurship in a business, since this form of leadership encourages innovation and creativity ([Razavi & Ab Aziz, 2017](#); [Si & Wei, 2012](#); [Tharenou & Terry, 1998](#)). Transactional leaders serve as creative role models for their employees by engaging in intellectual stimulation on a regular basis, according to research. As a result, employees will be more likely to learn from flamboyant and inspiring leaders, who in turn inspire others to do the same for them. TL characteristics have been suggested to be associated with managers who encourage employees to put forth additional effort, demonstrate good positive attitudes and

behavior, and work in an impressive manner within their organizations, according to research ([Asencio & Mujkic, 2016](#); [Valsania et al., 2016](#)). Workers that work with transformational leaders are motivated and encouraged to commit to long-term objectives while also instigating innovative ideas and devising new methods of doing things ([Qu, Janssen, & Shi, 2015](#)). In order to be successful, intrapreneurial behavior requires a strong desire for accomplishment and a low requirement for compliance ([Afsar, Badir, Saeed, & Hafeez, 2017](#)). ([Pearce, 2007](#)) explained that a transformational leader inspires people to take measured risks and be proactive in the performance of their job responsibilities in order to maximize the effectiveness of their possibilities for advancement. Because of a variety of factors, TL helps firms develop a platform for intrapreneurship. First and foremost, TL aids in the development of a better vision for the business that can be utilized to identify potential entrepreneurial possibilities ([Eyal & Kark, 2004](#)). hem in developing creative solutions to problems that face the company as a whole ([Howell & Higgins, 1990](#); [Jung et al., 2003](#)). Employees' intrapreneurial behaviors have been shown to be positively influenced by TL in recent research ([Razavi & Ab Aziz, 2017](#); [Valsania et al., 2016](#)). It has been stated that organizational culture can encourage people to innovate and engage in risk-taking activities ([Scott & Bruce, 1994](#)). TL is a critical component in creating an organization culture ([Gutteridge, 1973](#)). Iowa State University has downloaded this document. ([Hörnqvist & Leffler, 2014](#)). Transformational leaders create an atmosphere that empowers people while also providing sufficient support for them to innovate ([Jung et al., 2003](#)). Bass and Avolio highlighted some characteristics of TL, including idealized influence and inspiring motivation, which they described as follows ([Jung et al., 2003](#)). The combination of these two characteristics is referred to as "charisma." Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation are the third and fourth components of the framework. All these aspects are defined by traits such as encouraging employees, offering assistance, raising awareness, and being proactive; all of which are essential in supporting intrapreneurship in businesses of all sizes. Transformational leaders understand that in order to encourage people to engage in creative activity, they must first offer them internal strength, self-confidence, and a clear vision; in exchange, employees may be proactive in their work behavior ([Malloch, 2014](#)). The transactional leadership style is the second most common form of leadership style ([Bass, 1985](#)). These leaders inspire their employees by partaking in intellectual stimulation. Workers are more inclined to learn from charismatic and inspirational leaders. They also encourage people to work harder, be more responsible, and be more creative. ([Si & Wei, 2012](#)). Employees who work under the direction of transactional leaders, as opposed to those who work under the supervision of transformational

leaders, are less creative, according to ([Jong et al., 2015](#)). A similar finding was made by ([M. Lee & Koh, 2001](#)), according to whom there is a negative relationship connecting followers' contextual performance but instead transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is characterized by a higher focus on sustaining the status quo rather than on fostering innovation or change. Consequently, followers will be extrinsically motivated to carry out their obligations, which may result in a lack of creativity and invention on the part of the leaders ([Jung et al., 2003](#)). ([Afsar et al., 2017](#)) found a negative relationship between transactional leadership and entrepreneurial activity among workers of knowledge-intensive firms in China in a recent research study. Transactional leaders often keep a close eye on the execution of tasks and activities in order to prevent any mistakes or deviations from the norms. This helps to maintain organizational stability. This stringent supervision might be seen as inflexible, stiff, bureaucratic, and less independent, all of which could be detrimental to entrepreneurs' ability to innovate ([Afsar et al., 2017](#)).

#### **2.2.4. Leadership and Intrapreneurial career Success**

Coaches demonstrate appreciation and development for subordinates in the same way as other bottom-up leadership styles do, such as employee engagement, humble command structure, and servant leadership, and they put an emphasis on communication and authorization ([Park, Kim, & Krishna, 2014](#)). However, leaders who use a coaching leadership style place a higher premium on mutual advancement and growth of leaders and subordinates than leaders who employ other leadership styles ([Y. H. Lee et al., 2017](#)). Additionally, previous research has demonstrated the benefits of coaching leadership in areas such as increasing subordinate work satisfaction ([Park et al., 2014](#)). [Spurk, Hirschi, and Dries \(2019\)](#) described career success as the positive mentality and work-related achievements that a person collects during the course of his or her professional growth. According to [Heslin \(2005\)](#), objective career success is defined as a measure of an individual's proven and observable leadership development outcomes, such as salary level or number of promotions; subjective career success is defined as a measure of an individual's personal subjective feelings about his or her work and occupation, such as career satisfaction ([Heslin, 2005](#)). The power to educate and analyze subordinates' performance, as an agent of the organization, gives leaders the ability to have a direct effect on their subordinates' professional development ([Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000](#)). As a result of this inference, I

assumed a favorable association between coaching leadership and professional success. On the one hand, coaching leaders may inspire and encourage subordinates to attain their maximum potential by using coaching tactics such as teaching, assistance, engagement, as well as rewards and punishments ([Kim et al., 2013](#)). The development of subordinates' potential enables them to enhance their perceptions of competition both inside and beyond the company, ultimately advancing their career objectives. On the other side, coaching leaders' emphasis on empowerment, equality, and communication may provide subordinates with a stronger feeling of work autonomy and purpose, which increases their internal happiness and hence their subjective career success ([Pousa & Mathieu, 2015](#)).

The phrase "servant leadership" dates all the way back to the 1970s, when Robert Greenleaf wrote a foundational treatise on the subject. Servant leadership, according to his ideas, begins with a natural drive to serve, which eventually grows into a capacity to lead others. Unlike other leadership behaviors, which put a greater emphasis on the well-being of the business, servant leadership lays a greater emphasis on serving followers, satisfying their needs, and assisting them in achieving success ([Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008](#)). This people-oriented mentality leads to the development of a strong and deep connection between leaders and followers, as well as an environment that encourages followers to reach their full potential ([Van Dierendonck, 2011](#)). Furthermore, it is important to note that servant leadership does not mean that power is put in the hands of those who follow. Leaders, on the other hand, are accountable for strengthening followers' autonomy, motivating them to think for themselves, and bearing responsibility for future advancement ([Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014](#)). Servant leaders put their subordinates first, which means putting their subordinates' job demands ahead of their own. They assist subordinates in growing and succeeding, and by giving excellent resources, coaching, and chances, they demonstrate a real interest in subordinates' professional growth and development. Additionally, servant leaders empower subordinates by supporting and enabling their capacity to take on new duties, overcome obstacles, and decide the best time and method for completing job tasks ([Liden et al., 2008](#)). Indeed, servant leaders "want for their subordinates'

improvement for their own benefit and consider follower growth as a goal in and of itself, rather than just a means to the leader's or organization's objectives" ([Ehrhart, 2004](#)). In summary, servant leadership, characterized by "people-centered" and "servant first" characteristics, may increase the likelihood of subjective career success, as shown by high levels of professional satisfaction and individual employability.

Self-leadership may be defined as a self-evaluation and self-influence process through which individuals identify and replace ineffective habits, hence increasing individual accountability and progressing toward competent execution ([Kyguoliene & Ganusauskaite, 2017](#)). Self-leadership tactics fall into three categories: behavior-based strategies, standard compensation processes, and beneficial thinking strategies ([Neck & Houghton, 2006](#)). Self-leadership entails having a solid comprehension of what you are doing, what you have been going to do, and where you are going, as well as the capacity to impact workers' communication, emotions, and behaviors along the way ([Browning, 2018](#)). Typically, self-leadership is significant because it has a direct effect on group execution, on commerce administration and associations as a whole ([Trusler, 2018](#)).

Subordinates' work satisfaction takes precedence over the interests of servant leaders, which means that servant leaders put their subordinates' needs first. Servant leaders demonstrate a genuine concern for their subordinates' professional growth and development by providing valuable resources, mentoring, and opportunities. Servant leaders also enable subordinates by encouraging and facilitating their ability to assume responsibilities, overcome obstacles, and determine when, as well as how, to complete work tasks ([Liden et al., 2008](#)). According to ([Ehrhart, 2004](#)), servant leaders "want their supervisors to improve for their own good and view the development of followers as an end in and of itself, rather than simply a means to achieve the leader's or organization's goals". Accordingly, followers who receive noteworthy services, resources, and guidelines from their servant leaders devote more time and effort to their own development and accumulate a greater number of career competencies; this indicates that they are a valuable asset to the organization and more able to compete in the labor market, and that they could be more satisfied with the achievement of their career objectives ([Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003](#)). In conclusion, servant leadership, characterized by the characteristics of "people-centeredness" and

"servant firstness," may increase the likelihood of subjective career success, as evidenced by high levels of job satisfaction and individual employability.

In accordance with P–E fit theory ([Cable & Murray, 1999](#)), I propose that career skills serve as a mediating factor in the relationship between servant leadership and followers' subjective career success. An individual's knowledge base and an organization's knowledge base are both enhanced by career skills, which are defined as a set of career-related skills and job-related knowledge that accumulate over time (Arthur et al., 1999). It is important to note that these skills are broad, flexible, and transferable across a wide range of occupations rather than being specific to a particular job or company ([DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994](#)).

It is possible that the P–E fit hypothesis is the fundamental rationale for why servant leadership helps followers develop their professional skills. It is described as the degree of conformance or match between a person and their environment, which results in a variety of attitudes, behaviors, and performances ([Pervin, 1989](#); [Schneider, 1987](#)). The complementary fit and supplemental fit domains are two conventional study areas that are included in the P–E fit paradigm ([Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987](#)). Complementary fit occurs when a person's or an organization's traits meet or exceed the demands of the other, while supplemental fit happens when a person and an organization have features that are comparable or matching ([Cable & Murray, 1999](#)). Complementary fit may suggest a variety of things, including the fact that an employee has the skills and abilities that an organization needs; it can also be taken as indicating that an organization delivers resources or incentives that an employee desires. When it comes to the former, it is characterized as a demand–ability fit, while it is defined as a need–supply fit ([Cable & Murray, 1999](#)).

Because servant leadership places a strong emphasis on meeting the needs of followers, the impact of such a leader's actions may be measured by the degree to which needs, and supply are aligned. Individuals have a wide range of requirements, including those for autonomy, affiliation, social support, and personal development. Leaders may determine the corresponding supply for each need (Caplan, 1987). Specifically, in the context of servant leadership, research has shown that servant leadership is positively associated with the satisfaction of followers' fundamental psychological needs, which is perhaps the most typical example in the need–supply fit study arena ([Mayrhofer et al., 2016](#)). According to ([Chiniara & Bentein, 2016](#)), servant leadership is associated

with the satisfying of followers' demands for autonomy, competence, and connectedness. However, workers are also interested in self-development and skill improvement, and they are eager for possibilities to broaden and update their portfolio of talents in order to optimize their beliefs about their marketability and to achieve their professional objectives ([Akkermans & Tims, 2017](#)). Followers of servant leaders are encouraged to focus their efforts on meeting their own career development needs by the provision of important educational opportunities and resources, which include stretch assignments, and the opportunity to attend seminars, workshops, and even university for further education. Followers who make use of such materials and participate in a variety of human capital development programs will see a qualitative increase in their professional skills in the future ([Ng & Feldman, 2010](#)).

Following the logic of the career competencies hypothesis, career abilities (which fall under the category of "knowing how" predictors) are positively associated with both professional success and individual employability ([Eby et al., 2003](#)). Employees who possess a wide range of current and relevant abilities are better equipped to perform complicated jobs more effectively and efficiently. They will be seen as an asset or value-added resource by their employers as a consequence. There is also strong evidence of this connection from other empirical studies; for example, ([Tharnpas & Sakun, 2015](#)) studied managers' career performance and showed that the quantity of skills development a manager received was associated with their managing position and income. According to ([Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#)), skill development had a favorable impact on employees' pay advancement, promotions, and overall happiness with their careers. Employees' marketability in both external and internal labor markets, according to human capital scholars, is boosted when their human capital is higher than their competitors ([Göbel et al., 2013](#)). ([Ng et al., 2005](#)) found that job-related abilities are a substantial facilitator of subjective career success in their meta-analysis of subjective career success. This is the first time that this has been reported.

#### **2.2.5. PE and Intrapreneurial Behavior**

Psychologically empowered employees have an increased proclivity for innovation ([Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, Kalleberg, & Bailey, 2000](#)), trust ([Müller-Riemenschneider, Reinhold, & Willich, 2009](#)), and favorable work attitudes ([Sandhya & Sulphey, 2020](#)). Thus, psychologically empowered individuals will have the competitive edge necessary to foster beneficial organizational reforms ([Forrester, 2000](#)). [Sandhya and](#)

[Sulphey \(2020\)](#) Nowadays, organizations aim to develop a company culture that fosters employee innovation and creativity ([Özaralli, 2015](#)). PE is critical in an environment where workers are expected to perform autonomously and proactively, with optimism and persistence ([Henao-Zapata & Peiró, 2018](#)). Given intrapreneurial behavior's commitment to employee invention, initiative, and creativity, PE is critical to the study of intrapreneurial behavior ([Stull & Singh, 2005](#)). To be precise, psychologically empowered workers' influence, autonomy, and self-determination will result in increased employee creativity ([Amabile, 1988](#)). Additionally, the competence/self-efficacy of psychologically empowered personnel would enhance their inventiveness in successfully carrying out their jobs ([Amabile, 1988](#); [Markman & Baron, 2003](#); [Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993](#)). The impact and competency components are also likely to strengthen employees' capacity to execute their own ideas and suggestions for change, resulting in more work innovation ([Seibert et al., 2011](#)). Psychologically empowered managers see their job as meaningful, believe in their abilities to execute tasks properly, expend effort to allocate resources, seek knowledge, and devise alternative solutions to work-related problems, and are likely to be innovative ([Zhang & Bartol, 2010](#)). An abundance of empirical investigations have shown a statistically significant beneficial association between psychological ownership and intrapreneurial behavior aspects, such as creative behavior ([Seibert et al., 2011](#); [Somsriruen, Chavez, & Tayko, 2018](#); [Spreitzer, 1995b](#)) and employee proactive behavior. Additionally, the PE component of competence is connected with increased risk-taking ([Heath & Tversky, 1991](#)). However, all four dimensions of PE have a significant association with specific dimensions of intrapreneurial behavior ([Struzyna & Marzec, 2003](#)), providing evidence of PE's effect on intrapreneurial behavior ([Stull & Singh, 2005](#)). Additionally, studies demonstrated the existence of a considerable positive association between the notion of total PE and the construct of complete intrapreneurial behavior ([Park et al., 2014](#); [Stull & Singh, 2005](#)).

According to ([Afsar et al., 2017](#)), employees who feel emboldened are more innovative, proactive, and contingency, which eventually leads to improved performance. According to previous research, when companies build employee engagement, such employees feel good about the responsibilities entrusted to them

and engage in extra-role behavior. Psychologically empowered personnel, according to ([Afsar et al., 2017](#)), demonstrate extra-role and innovative conduct through promoting both personal and corporate objectives. This empowerment instills in them an inner motivation to improve the organization's success. It has been established experimentally that fostering employee empowerment and autonomy is critical for promoting extra-role conduct. Employers profit from personnel who are empowered in their work because they have more alternatives to exceed expectations and they discover more efficient methods to fulfill their tasks for the organization's advantage ([Farahani, Asgari, Heidari, Hosseini, & Goh, 2012](#)). According to ([Moriano et al., 2014](#)), a participatory organizational culture, decision-making flexibility, decision-making involvement, autonomy, and responsibility all contribute to the emergence of intrapreneurial behavior.

Employee PE refers to a company providing tools to allow workers to participate in good organizational behavior via relationship development ([Sengar, Rawson, Muthiah, & Kalakandan, 2020](#)). Entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship in organizations are connected with open communication, a high degree of engagement and trust, decentralized decision making, and a welcoming climate ([Moghaddas, Tajafari, & Nowkarizi, 2020](#)). Instead of acting reactively in response to the organization's power procedures or decentralization, employee empowerment encourages individuals to act proactively as a result of their sense of decision-making ownership ([Malik, Sarwar, & Orr, 2021](#)). On the other side, a pleasant work environment with a high degree of empowerment may have unintended repercussions due to unregulated intrapreneurship behavior ([Nassif, Hashimoto, & Amaral, 2014](#)). However, an authoritarian leader who ensures a high degree of power concentration or strives to preserve family control over the company may also stifle creativity and innovation ([Craig & Moores, 2006](#)). A balanced strategy is required as a consequence, in order to ensure organizational stability while simultaneously supporting intrapreneurship and innovation. Previous studies on family-owned enterprises disregarded the PE of workers as a factor in intrapreneurship.

### 2.2.6. Intrapreneurial behavior and Intrapreneurial Career Success

Several studies have shown that employee behavior may be a key predictor of company effectiveness ([Adriaans](#)). Increasingly, businesses are focusing their efforts on improving their employees' intrapreneurial conduct in order to enhance their competitiveness, flexibility, organizational growth, and profitability ([Castrogiovanni, Urbano, & Loras, 2011](#)). Employee activity that goes above and beyond the limits of their typical job description in order to assist the company for which they work is referred to as intrapreneurial behavior ([B. Antoncic, 2003](#); [Neessen, Caniels, de Jong, & Vos, 2018](#); [VanDeVeer, 2014](#)). Intrapreneurial personnel may be more likely to take the initiative, and identify and capitalize on opportunities ([de Waal, Kolker, Goedegebuure, & van der Heijden, 2013](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#); [VanDeVeer, 2014](#)). Additionally, these individuals may have the courage to take calculated risks with the organization's resources in order to seize opportunities with unpredictable outcomes (e.g., return on investment) in order to maximize the organization's profits ([Karimi, Malekmohamadi, Daryani, & Rezvanfar, 2011](#)).

As a result, intrapreneurial conduct may have a positive impact on an employee's overall performance ([de Waal et al., 2013](#)). Internal entrepreneurial activity has the capacity to produce value for a firm at the organizational level, resulting in the company's renewal and improvement in performance ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#); [De Vos & Soens, 2008](#); [Pinchot, 1985](#)). As a consequence, more research into the antecedents at the individual level is necessary and recommended ([Covin & Slevin, 1989](#); [Farrukh, Khan, et al., 2017](#)).

It has been a source of debate among professionals for decades about what factors influence an employee's conduct at work. Some academics think that an individual's personality dictates his or her conduct, while others believe that the environment in which the individual finds himself or herself has a role ([Epstein & O'Brien, 1985](#); [Kihlstrom, 2013](#)). This is known as the person–situation dispute. Finally, researchers concentrated on the interaction of personal and situational factors, referring to the two aspects interacting with one another ([Kihlstrom, 2013](#); [Simpson & Willer, 2008](#)). These diverse views are described by ([Lewin, 1935](#)) in the formula  $B=f(P, E)$ , which

asserts that an individual's behavior B is impacted by their dispositions P (e.g., features, attitudes), as well as their external environment E. The topic of how personal and environmental factors were integrated to influence or cause behavior was left unresolved by Lewin ([Kihlstrom, 2013](#)).

A wide range of antecedents have been discovered that are conducive to intrapreneurial conduct. Various psychological traits (e.g., the drive to achieve success) and cognitive abilities (e.g., educational achievement) are investigated in this research project ([Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Researchers selected organizational elements (e.g., organizational structure, management support, and employee incentives) as the most relevant situational components to investigate because they thought that they supported intrapreneurial conduct ([Covin & Slevin, 1991](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). These elements may be seen as organizational resources since they provide incentives for workers to exert their efforts inside the company ([Burgers & Covin, 2016](#); [Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#)). ([Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#)) and ([Karimi et al., 2011](#)) reported that situational circumstances are major antecedents for workers' intrapreneurial behavior in the workplace.

It appears that antecedents regarding the organization of jobs have received less attention relative to intrapreneurial behavior ([Neessen et al., 2018](#)). The design of a job might also affect employees' overall performance. Job design refers to the content and structure of someone's job tasks, as well as the qualities, responsibilities, and activities that are associated with those duties ([Parker et al., 2010](#); [Parker & Liao, 2016](#)). ([A. M. Grant, Fried, & Juillerat, 2011](#)) stated that the way a job is created is an important component of the experience and performance of everyday work. Therefore, it has a significant impact on the experiences and behaviors of workers in every sort of job, profession, and organizational setting. More importantly, the qualities of one's employment may be developed and tailored to inspire employee behavior and performance ([V. Miller, 2020](#)). So, the focus of this study will be on perceived features in one's employment that are associated with intrapreneurial conduct.

([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)) developed a model to explain the positive relationships between five job characteristics and a variety of outcomes such as motivation, job performance, and job satisfaction; the model is called the Job Characteristics Model. By integrating 21 distinct work qualities, such as problem solving, in their study, ([Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006](#)) significantly increased the scope of research on job characteristics and outcomes. It is intended that the work qualities of problem solving, and task importance be investigated in connection to intrapreneurial conduct in the current study project. Aside from that, no study has been conducted on the effects of such antecedents on intrapreneurial behavior; hence, the theoretical logic will be discussed.

Problem solving is a job feature that relates to the amount of unique solutions and active cognitive demands that are present in the workplace ([Wall, Jackson, & Mullarkey, 1995](#)). The cognitive psychology of problem solving is defined by ([Tallman, Leik, Gray, & Stafford, 1993](#)), as follows: "Problem-solving is a component of cognitive psychology that stresses the capacities of someone to grasp critical parts of a problem and to act in a matching manner." A person's positive outcomes are maximized when they engage in problem solving, while negative repercussions (e.g., avoidance of troublesome circumstances) are minimized when they do not engage in problem solving. Workers who address challenges might hunt for novel solutions when it comes to intrapreneurial conduct. They may be able to find and take advantage of possibilities at the same time. Furthermore, adopting solutions may be associated with making mistakes because the effectiveness of the solution will not be known until the solution is implemented ([Taylor, Lashman, & Helling, 1994](#)).

The job attribute task importance is concerned with the extent to which one's labor has an impact on others ([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)). Employees who sense task relevance, according to Vroom's expectation theory, are conscious of the fact that their activities may have a positive impact on others. It has been suggested that workers might spend more energy and time on their job in order to assist others ([A. M. Grant, 2008](#)), which can be associated with intrapreneurial conduct. To put it another way, workers might have a strong desire to take risks, and to uncover and

exploit chances, in order to become more useful to their employers ([Figner & Weber, 2011](#); [A. M. Grant, 2008](#)).

Individual variations might impact the manner in which workers react to their job features ([Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005](#)). ([G. Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001](#)) found that individual variations are represented in the personal component self-efficacy, which is concerned with one's perceived capacity to do specific tasks or to exhibit certain behaviors. The role of self-efficacy as a moderator will be investigated in this study. A moderator may change the strength of a link between two variables by introducing a third variable ([Baron & Kenny, 1986](#)). It will be investigated whether workers would engage in more intrapreneurial conduct if they perceived the trait of problem solving or task importance in their job duties. Also being researched is whether the link between job features and intrapreneurial activity would be strengthened if workers felt that they were capable of doing certain jobs or exhibiting specific characteristics. This reflects the prediction that self-efficacy increases the strength of the favorable association between job features and intrapreneurial activity; this is based on ([Wood & Bandura, 1989](#)) view that when people have strong confidence in their own skills, they are more likely to succeed in their jobs and demonstrate desirable behaviors.

In addition to its theoretical significance, this study is also noteworthy in terms of application. As discussed before, intrapreneurial behavior (e.g., increased competitiveness and profitability) may be a determinant of organizational advances, and this behavior is promoted by the method in which work is created ([Castrogiovanni et al., 2011](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Specifically, this research investigates the work features of problem solving and task importance in order to determine whether these job traits are associated with intrapreneurial conduct. As a result, in terms of practical applications, individuals may use this information in making decisions about work design for their staff. People will be able to determine whether or not it is beneficial to add the work qualities of problem solving and task importance to jobs based on the results of this research. The theoretical framework will provide a more in-depth explanation of the variables associated with this research, as well as the connections between the variables.

Employee behavior may be seen as a significant predictor of organizational performance ([Thurik et al., 2013](#)). Organizations have recently increased their efforts to improve workers' intrapreneurial behavior in order to increase their competitiveness, flexibility, organizational development, and profitability ([Castrogiovanni et al., 2011](#)). Intrapreneurial behavior refers to employee behavior that goes above and beyond their normal job description in order to benefit the business for which they work ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#); [Neessen et al., 2018](#)). Intrapreneurial employees may take initiative, uncover, and capitalize on possibilities (e.g., new services or procedures) ([de Waal et al., 2013](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Additionally, these personnel may possess the confidence to take calculated risks with the organization's resources in order to capture possibilities with uncertain results ([Karimi et al., 2011](#)).

Thus, intrapreneurial behavior may have a beneficial effect on an employee's individual performance ([de Waal et al., 2013](#)). At an organizational level, intrapreneurial behavior has the potential to generate value for the company, resulting in its rejuvenation and improved performance ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#)). As a result, investigations into the antecedents at an individual level are warranted ([Farrukh, Chong, et al., 2017](#); [Ireland, Covin, & Kuratko, 2009](#)).

Researchers have been debating the factors that impact an employee's behavior at work for decades. This is referred to as the person–situation argument, in which some academics feel that a person's personality determines their behavior while others believe that the determinant is the environment in which the individual finds themselves ([Epstein & O'Brien, 1985](#); [Kihlstrom, 2013](#)). Finally, scholars examined the interaction between personal and situational influences ([Kihlstrom, 2013](#); [Simpson & Willer, 2008](#)). These divergent orientations are summarized in ([Lewin, 1935](#)) formula  $B=f(P, E)$ , which states that an individual's behavior B is influenced by his or her disposition P (e.g., characteristics, attitudes) and the external environment E (e.g., sociocultural ecologies, such as social structures and situational demands). Lewin left open the method by which personal and environmental components were integrated to affect or cause behavior ([Kihlstrom, 2010](#)).

Numerous antecedents have been discovered to stimulate intrapreneurial behavior. Personal aspects such as personality (e.g., desire for accomplishment) and cognitive ability were examined ([Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). The situational component that researchers investigated was organizational characteristics (e.g., organizational structure, management support, and employee incentives) because they thought it supported intrapreneurial behavior ([Ahmad, Nasurdin, & Zainal, 2012](#); [Covin & Slevin, 1991](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). The reason for this is because these elements may be seen as organizational resources that serve as an incentive for workers to seek out and exercise influence inside the business ([Burgelman, 1983b](#); [Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#)). This is consistent with the results of ([Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#)) and ([Karimi et al., 2011](#)) who reported that situational circumstances are significant antecedents of workers' intrapreneurial behavior.

Antecedents pertaining to organizational structure and management support in connection to intrapreneurial behavior seem to be less investigated than other situational components pertaining to an organization (e.g., organizational structure, management support) ([Neessen et al., 2018](#)). However, job design may be as significant an antecedent to intrapreneurial behavior as other organizational components. Job design refers to the content and organization of an individual's work duties, as well as its associated qualities, responsibilities, and activities ([Park et al., 2014](#); [Parker & Collins, 2010](#); [Parker & Liao, 2016](#)). According to [A. M. Grant et al. \(2011\)](#), job design is a critical component of everyday work experience and its execution. As a result, it has a profound effect on the experiences and behaviors of workers in all types of employment, professions, and organizations. Additionally, work characteristics may be designed and altered to enhance employee behavior and performance ([D. Miller & Shamsie, 1996](#)). As a result, this study will focus on perceived work features associated with intrapreneurial behavior.

[Hackman and Oldham \(1975\)](#) developed the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) to explain the positive relationships between five job characteristics and a variety of outcomes, including performance, job satisfaction, and motivation. [Morgeson and Humphrey \(2006\)](#) widened the study of work qualities and their consequences by including 21 more job qualities, such as problem solving. The purpose of this study

is to examine the work features of problem solving and task importance in connection to intrapreneurial behavior. As no study has been conducted on the effects of such antecedents on intrapreneurial behavior, the theoretical logic will be provided.

The job attribute problem solving refers to the degree to which work requires the development of novel solutions and active cognitive demands [Wall et al. \(1995\)](#). [Tallman et al. \(1993\)](#) defined problem solving as a subfield of cognitive psychology that stresses an individual's ability to comprehend critical components of a situation and act appropriately. Problem solving optimizes favorable outcomes for the person (e.g., pleasant emotional responses, positive self-perceptions) and reduces negative outcomes (e.g., avoidance of troublesome circumstances) ([D'zurilla & Goldfried, 1971](#)). In terms of intrapreneurial behavior, personnel who resolve issues might seek out novel solutions. Simultaneously, they may identify and capitalize on opportunities. Additionally, implementing solutions might be connected with taking risks, since workers have no way of knowing in advance if the solutions will succeed ([Taylor et al., 1994](#)).

The job feature task importance refers to the extent to which labor has an effect on others ([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)). Employees who sense task relevance, according to Vroom's expectation theory, are aware that their activities may benefit others. Employees might commit more energy and time in their job to help others ([A. M. Grant, 2008](#)), which is consistent with intrapreneurial behavior. To be more explicit, workers may feel compelled to take calculated risks, and identify and seize opportunities in order to increase their value to others ([Figner & Weber, 2011](#); [A. M. Grant, 2008](#)).

Individual variations may impact how workers react to job features ([Chapman, 2005](#)). These individual variances are represented in the personal component self-efficacy ([G. Chen et al., 2001](#)), where self-efficacy is concerned with an individual's perceived capacity to do particular activities or exhibit certain behaviors ([Blanka, 2019](#)). Self-efficacy will be examined as a mediator in this study. A moderator has the ability to influence the strength of a link between two variables ([Baron & Kenny, 1986](#)). Thus, it will be examined whether workers exhibit greater intrapreneurial behavior when

they perceive problem solving or task importance qualities in their workplace. Additionally, it will be examined whether that association is greater when workers feel they are capable of doing particular activities or exhibiting certain behaviors. Thus, self-efficacy is likely to amplify the beneficial association between job features and intrapreneurial behavior. One explanation, according to ([Wood & Bandura, 1989](#)), is that people who have strong confidence in their talents are more likely to succeed at their jobs and exhibit desirable behaviors.

Apart from its theoretical significance, this study is also significant in practice. As previously said, organizational developments may be influenced by intrapreneurial behavior, which is promoted by the design of work ([Castrogiovanni et al., 2011](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). By examining the problem solving and task importance qualities of jobs, this research determines whether or not these job traits are associated with intrapreneurial behavior. Thus, on a practical level, individuals may use this information when deciding the design of workers' jobs. Individuals will learn if it is prudent to include work features such as problem solving and task relevance into their jobs as a result of this research. The factors that will be examined in this research, as well as the interactions between them, will be discussed in more detail in the theoretical framework.

The term problem solving in relation to a job refers to the degree to which a job needs novel solutions or ideas and represents the work's active cognitive processing requirements ([Wall et al., 1995](#)). From the perspective of cognitive psychology, workers must possess the ability to comprehend critical aspects of a situation and behave appropriately ([Tallman et al., 1993](#)). [D'zurilla and Goldfried \(1971\)](#) demonstrated in their study that the problem solving part of one's employment drives behavior that is likely to have a beneficial outcome. [Taylor et al. \(1994\)](#) discussed the beneficial outcomes of these behaviors, which included being inventive, proactive, and risk-taking (i.e., the dimensions of intrapreneurial behavior). First, issue solving may increase employee proactivity, since this work attribute promotes the detection of signals indicative of a problem. Additionally, it elicits the necessity to find and approach accessible resources (e.g., inquiries and advice) to resolve the situation. Second, people who are required to solve problems as part of their job are ready to

take calculated risks. This is because workers often learn whether a given solution will work via trial and error ([Taylor et al., 1994](#)). Additionally, the study of [Masrek, Noordin, Yusuf, and Shudan \(2017\)](#) demonstrated that the job attribute of problem solving is favorably associated with innovation. They explained this relationship by stating that problem resolution may entail the simultaneous use of many realms of cognition, including imagination and intuition. Thus, the work feature of problem solving promotes an individual's ability to be inventive. The association between real concern and entrepreneurial orientation has only been identified in one research ([Masrek et al., 2017](#)), although the literature discusses the correlation between real concern and the dimensions of competitive aggressiveness and vulnerability ([Taylor et al., 1994](#)). Thus, it is believed that when workers view their employment as requiring them to solve problems, they would be more motivated to demonstrate intrapreneurial behavior.

#### **2.2.7. Moderating Role of Proactive Career Behavior**

Several studies have shown that employee behavior may be a key predictor of company effectiveness ([Thurik et al., 2013](#)). Increasingly, businesses are focusing their efforts on improving their employees' intrapreneurial conduct in order to enhance their competitiveness, flexibility, organizational growth, and profitability ([Castrogiovanni et al., 2011](#)). Employee activity that goes above and beyond the limits of their typical job description in order to assist the company for which they work is referred to as intrapreneurial behavior ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003](#); [Neessen et al., 2018](#); [Van den Broeck et al., 2016](#)). Intrapreneurial personnel may be more likely to take the initiative, and identify and capitalize on opportunities (e.g., new services or processes) ([De Vos & Soens, 2008](#); [de Waal et al., 2013](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Additionally, these individuals may have the courage to take calculated risks with the organization's human resources in order to seize opportunities with unpredictable outcomes in order to maximize the organization's profits ([Karimi et al., 2011](#)).

As a result, intrapreneurial conduct may have a positive impact on an employee's overall performance ([de Waal et al., 2013](#)). Internal entrepreneurial activity has the capacity to produce value for a firm at the organizational level, resulting in the

company's renewal and improvement in performance ([B. Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001](#); [De Vos & Soens, 2008](#); [Pinchot, 1985](#); [Struzyna & Marzec, 2003](#)). As a consequence, more research into the antecedents at the individual level is necessary and recommended ([Farrukh, Chong, et al., 2017](#); [Ireland et al., 2009](#)).

The factors that influence an employee's conduct at work have been a source of debate among professionals for decades. Some academics think that an individual's personality dictates his or her conduct, while others believe that the environment in which the individual finds himself or herself has a role ([Epstein & O'Brien, 1985](#); [Kihlstrom, 2010](#)). This is known as the person–situation dispute. Finally, researchers concentrated on the interaction of personal and situational factors ([Kihlstrom, 2010](#); [Simpson & Willer, 2008](#)). These diverse views are described in ([Lewin, 1935](#)) formula  $B=f(P, E)$ , which asserts that an individual's behavior B is impacted by their disposition P (e.g., features, attitudes), as well as their external environment E. The topic of how personal and environmental factors were integrated to influence or cause behavior was left unresolved by Lewin ([Kihlstrom, 2010](#)).

A wide range of antecedents have been found that are conducive to intrapreneurial conduct. Various psychological traits (e.g., the drive to achieve success) and cognitive abilities (e.g., educational achievement) were investigated ([Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Researchers selected organizational elements as the most relevant situational component to investigate because they thought that they support intrapreneurial conduct ([Ahmad et al., 2012](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). These characteristics may be seen as organizational resources since they provide incentives for workers to exert their efforts inside the company ([Burgelman, 1983a](#); [Givnish et al., 2018](#); [Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#); [Hornsby et al., 2002](#)). This is consistent with the results of ([Guth & Ginsberg, 1990](#)) and ([Karimi et al., 2011](#)) who found that situational circumstances are major antecedents for workers' intrapreneurial behavior in the workplace.

It appears that antecedents regarding the organization of jobs have received less attention in relation to intrapreneurial behavior ([Neessen et al., 2018](#)). When it comes to organizational success, nevertheless, this does not rule out the possibility that job

design is just as important as other organizational factors. Job design refers to the content and structure of someone's job tasks, as well as the qualities, responsibilities, and activities that are associated with those duties ([Park et al., 2014](#); [Parker & Liao, 2016](#)). ([A. M. Grant et al., 2011](#)) stated that the way a job is created is an important component of the experience and performance of everyday work; therefore, it has a significant impact on the experiences and behaviors of workers in every sort of job, profession, and organizational setting. More importantly, the qualities of one's employment may be developed and tailored to inspire employee behavior and performance ([V. Miller, 2020](#)). So, the focus of this study will be on perceived features in one's employment that are associated with intrapreneurial conduct.

The Job Qualities Model is a theoretical framework established by ([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)) to explain the positive correlations between five job characteristics and a range of outcomes, such as motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance. By integrating 21 distinct work qualities, such as problem solving, in their study, ([Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006](#)) significantly increased the scope of research on job characteristics and outcomes. It is intended that the work qualities problem solving, and task importance be investigated in connection with intrapreneurial conduct in the current study project. Aside from that, no study has been conducted on the effects of such antecedents on intrapreneurial behavior; hence, the theoretical logic will be discussed.

Problem solving is a job feature that relates to the amount of unique solutions and active cognitive demands present in the workplace ([Wall et al., 1995](#)). The cognitive psychology of problem solving is defined by ([Tallman et al., 1993](#)) as follows: "Problem-solving is a component of cognitive psychology that stresses the capacities of someone to grasp critical parts of a problem and to act in a matching manner." A person's positive outcomes (e.g., pleasant emotional responses, favorable self-perceptions) are maximized when they engage in problem solving, while the negative repercussions (e.g., avoidance of troublesome circumstances) are minimized when they do not engage in problem solving. Workers who address challenges might hunt for novel solutions when it comes to intrapreneurial conduct; they may be able to find and take advantage of possibilities at the same time. Furthermore, implementing

solutions might be connected with taking risks, since workers do not know in advance whether or not the solutions will be successful ([Taylor et al., 1994](#)).

Additionally, the job attribute task importance is concerned with the extent to which one's labor has an impact on others ([Hackman & Oldham, 1975](#)). Employees who sense task relevance, according to Vroom's expectation theory, are conscious of the fact that their activities may have a positive impact on others. It has been suggested that workers might spend more energy and time on their jobs in order to assist others ([A. M. Grant, 2008](#)), which can be associated with intrapreneurial conduct. To put it another way, workers might have a strong desire to take risks, and to uncover and exploit chances, in order to become more useful to their employers ([Figner & Weber, 2011](#); [A. M. Grant, 2008](#)).

Individual variations might impact the manner in which workers react to their job features ([Ilies et al., 2005](#)). ([G. Chen et al., 2001](#)) found that individual variations are represented in the personal component self-efficacy, which is concerned with one's perceived capacity to do specific tasks or to exhibit certain behaviors. The role of self-efficacy as a moderator will be investigated in this study. A moderator may change the strength of a link between two variables by introducing a third variable ([Baron & Kenny, 1986](#)). This thesis will investigate whether workers would engage in more intrapreneurial conduct if they perceived traits of problem solving or task importance in their job duties. Also being researched is whether the link between job features and intrapreneurial activity is strengthened if workers feel that they are capable of doing certain jobs or exhibiting specific characteristics. It is predicted that self-efficacy increases the strength of the favorable association between job features and intrapreneurial activity. This is based on the finding of ([Wood & Bandura, 1989](#)) that when people have strong confidence in their own skills, they are more likely to succeed in their jobs and demonstrate desirable behaviors.

In this way, the research hopes to provide new information about work features (i.e., the situational factor) and intrapreneurial conduct, which will be influenced by self-efficacy (i.e., personal factor). Thus, the study question is: "To what degree do work attributes (such as problem-solving ability and task importance) influence

intrapreneurial behavior, and how is this relationship modified by general self-efficacy?" Through the investigation of the interactions of Lewin's formula  $B=f(P, E)$ , this research adds to the person–situation debate on intrapreneurial behavior. Furthermore, this study will contribute to the growing body of knowledge regarding the relationship between the way a job is organized and intrapreneurial behavior.

In addition to its theoretical significance, this study is also noteworthy in terms of application. As discussed before, intrapreneurial behavior (e.g., increased competitiveness and profitability) may be a determinant of organizational advances, and this behavior is promoted by the method in which work is created ([Castrogiovanni et al., 2011](#); [Stam & Van Straaten, 2012](#)). Specifically, this research investigates the work features of problem solving and task importance in order to determine if these job traits are associated with intrapreneurial conduct.

The term "proactive personality" refers to a behavioral disposition that is concerned with implementing or altering one's surroundings ([Bateman & Crant, 1993](#)). Individuals who are proactive in their life, aim to alter the path of their lives by searching out chances, taking the initiative, and persisting in order to bring about real transformation ([Bateman & Crant, 1993](#); [Parker et al., 2010](#)). Proactive individuals take action to make things happen rather than simply sitting back and watching things happen ([Bateman & Crant, 1993](#)). Preliminary research indicates that having a proactive personality has a beneficial influence on both objective and subjective professional performance ([Ehrhart, 2004](#); [Ng et al., 2005](#); [Seibert et al., 2011](#)). Passive persons, on the other hand, who are reactively formed by their environment, often merely adapt to and tolerate bad conditions rather than taking chances to challenge the status quo ([Bateman & Crant, 1993](#)).

As a consequence, persons who are aggressive and those who are passive have quite different job requirements and beliefs. The resources that may help individuals perform better at their jobs and enhance their abilities ([Parker & Collins, 2010](#)) are highly valued by proactive workers who are self-initiated, change oriented, and future focused ([Parker & Collins, 2010](#)). ([Marshall & Rossman, 2016](#)). Proactive workers are more likely to actively seek new experiences and engage in activities

that will help them improve their abilities than the general population. Passive employees, on the other hand, are those who do not take the initiative and are thus resistant to change. They are also less likely to appreciate education and awareness opportunities that are offered to them in their work environment ([Fuller Jr & Marler, 2009](#)). So it may be used in conjunction with servant leadership and leadership effectiveness to provide a complementary complement to both. The demands of proactive followers are met when servant leaders empower them and supply them with services, resources, and activities that are connected to their professional growth and development.

A proactive person is competent and eager to make full use of resources as a result of their intrinsic drive and defined professional objectives ([Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#); [Yang et al., 2017](#)). The relationship between servant leadership and professional skills may be strengthened as a result of a high degree of needs–supplies fit. According to ([Chapman, 2005](#)), when it comes to development, apathetic following are less influential in determining want for it, and they are more likely to encounter abundant supply under the same conditions. They are also more prone to feeling stressed and overwhelmed. Because of this, it is possible that the beneficial influence of servant management styles on the development of professional skills may be reduced.

### 2.3. Research Model

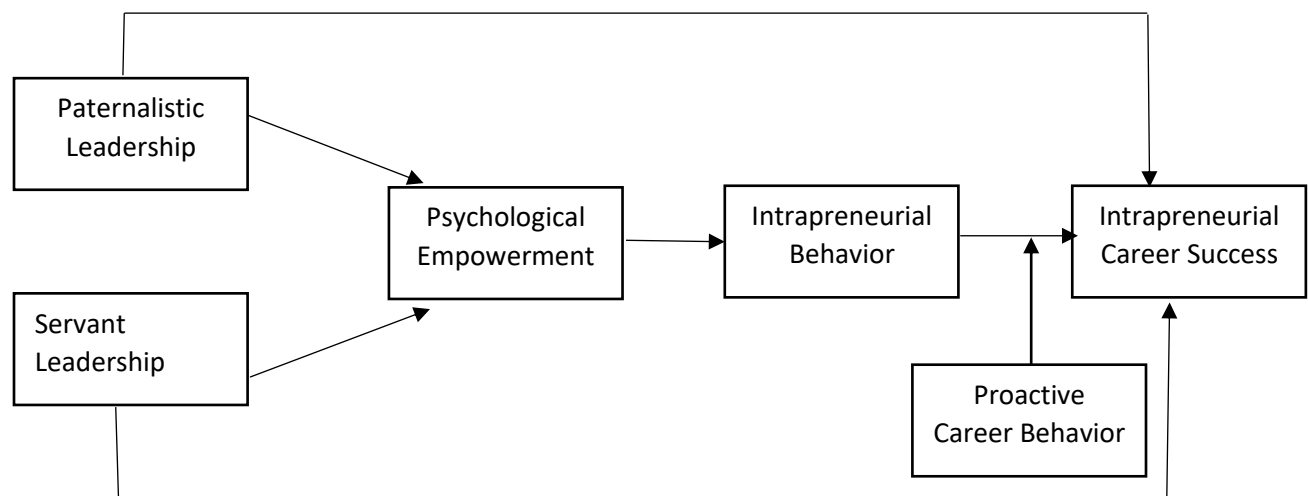


Figure 2 Research Framework

## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology**

#### **3. Introduction**

This chapter describes the research design used in this study, the development of tools to measure selected variables as well as the process to test the hypotheses. These techniques are used to study to examine the links among leadership styles, intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success. In this thesis, leadership styles are considered independent variables and intrapreneurial career success used and dependent variable. Furthermore, PE and intrapreneurial behavior are taken as mediating variables and proactive career behavior as a moderating variable.

#### **3.1. Selection of research methodology**

If indeed the research asserts knowledge, it must follow the process of research assumption to substantiate the present research ([Creswell, 2003](#)). Researchers often make assumptions about what knowledge is (ontological), how it is recognized (beliefs based), the values that support it (stemming from life), how to write about it (propaganda), and the techniques by which it is investigated (methodology) ([Creswell & Creswell, 1994](#)). These assertions may be referred to as paradigms ([Lincoln, 2009](#); [Mentzer, 2004](#)), philosophical assumptions, epistemologies, or ontologies ([Crotty, Epstein, & Kelly, 1998](#)), or, more generally, as research methods ([Neuman & Wiegand, 2000](#)). A paradigm is a "collection of linked assumptions about the social world that serves as a philosophical and conceptual framework for the systematic study of that reality" ([Filstead, 1979](#)). The choice of a paradigm directs the researcher's philosophical assumptions, and their selection of tools, instruments, participants, and techniques for the study ([Denzin, 2000](#); [Guba & Lincoln, 1994](#)).

The well-acknowledged theories of social constructionism, research philosophy, and pragmatism address underlying assumptions; however, several other distinct schools of thought also address knowledge claims. Individuals who use constructivism (qualitative research) strive to comprehend the world where they live and work.

Researchers and constructivists seek for complexity in perspectives rather than classifying many concepts or ideas ([Creswell, 2003](#)). The approach of this kind of study is mostly inductive, since the researcher forms meanings based on data gathering techniques that focus on subjectivity ([Creswell, 2003](#)).

In contrast to constructivism, which maintains a constructivist view of knowing, positivism (also termed post-positivism, quantitative research, and empirical science) adopts a realist perspective, with regards to the rationale for knowledge claims ([Bryman, 2004](#)). Positivism emphasizes rigorous observation and numerical measurement, with a corresponding hypothetico-deductive style of thought ([Cacioppo, Semin, & Berntson, 2004](#); [McGrath & Johnson, 2003](#); [Sciarra, 1999](#)). Positivism asserts that ideas must be validated and enhanced before being understood. Contrary to the scientific method, this approach employs deliberate observation and description of phenomena, as well as the formulation and presentation of propositions, the use of tightly controlled experiments, the application of statistical analysis to test hypotheses, and the interpretation of experimental results in relation to the underlying theory ([Cacioppo et al., 2004](#)).

An application-oriented and problem solving-oriented pragmatic approach was developed from the research of ([Murphy & Ensher, 2001](#); [Rorty, 1990](#)). Researchers taking a pragmatic approach to research may utilize both positivism and constructivism in their research ([Barney, 1991](#); [Rosenbaum, 1984](#)). Table 1 features three paradigms from the social and behavioral sciences in relation to ontology, epistemology, logic, and methodology.

**Table 1 Comparison of three important paradigms used in social and behavioral sciences**

|              | <b>Positivism</b> | <b>Constructivism</b> | <b>Pragmatism</b>                                                              |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ontology     | Naïve realism     | Relativism            | Accept external reality, choose explanations that produce best desired results |
| Epistemology | Objective         | Subjective            | Objective + subjective                                                         |
| Logic        | Deductive         | Inductive             | Deductive + inductive                                                          |
| Methods      | Quantitative      | Qualitative           | Qualitative + quantitative                                                     |

Source: Adopted from Prouska (2006, p. 143)

[Creswell \(2003\)](#) stated that in order to choose the most suitable research method, it is necessary to define the research issue. When looking for factors that influence outcomes, such as interventions, recognizing the strongest predictors of outcome measures, or testing a theory or explanation, the quantitative approach is the most appropriate approach ([Creswell, 2003](#)). However, if an object or idea requires an understanding (as a result of previously performed research that restricted the area of investigation), then the methodology should be a constructivist/qualitative. A pragmatic/mixed methods approach is particularly helpful when doing a systematic exploration and broadening of findings that use sequential, concurrent, or transformational methods ([Creswell, 2003](#)). A research design is suitable if it achieves the objectives of the study with the greatest effectiveness and efficiency ([Neuman & Kreuger, 2003](#)).

A quantitative approach (positivism) was selected to meet the objective and empirical research goals because the main goal of the present research is to investigate the effect of leadership styles on intrapreneurial behavior and to evaluate the hypothesized mediating mechanism.

Qualitative research may be broken down into several research techniques, such as descriptive, associational, and intervention studies. Descriptive research aims to discover and summarize the characteristics of the study participants, their opinions,

and their actual behaviors ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). Gathering information in descriptive research may be done via a mix of content analysis and survey methodology. An associational research project focuses on how various factors interact ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). Correlation and causal comparative studies may be further classified as associational research ([Ary, Jacobs, Irvine, & Walker, 2018](#); [Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). The purpose of a correlation study is to discover whether or not there is a connection between the set of data studied; rather than trying to control the environment or respondents, the researcher just explores the connections that spontaneously arise ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). Research based on a survey design collects data by asking questions that are linked to other questions ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). Causal comparative studies use groups that are known to vary, choose control factors that are unlikely to influence the outcome, and then collect data carefully. In the third broad category of quantitative research, researchers use experiments or manipulations to try to influence results; this type of research is useful for evaluating theoretical models and uncovering the relationship of selected variables ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)).

Various methods may be used in a quantitative approach. This study's main goal was to explore the connection between independent leadership styles (universal best leadership) and intrapreneurial career success, which was carried out using the method of assessing psychosocial empowerment and intrapreneurial behavior approach for data analysis. One must decide on the method of inquiry before getting precise instructions for a technique to be utilized in the research design, since it will affect the experimental design and survey research strategies. Random assignment of subjects to treatment conditions, sometimes called a quasi-experiment, is an experimental research method ([Keppel, 1991](#)). Only single-subject designs may be used when experimenting with an experimental approach. Survey research is employed in the social sciences for data gathering, behind and just ahead of surveys ([Ary et al., 2018](#)). To get data in either a cross-sectional or longitudinal period, surveys or interviews should be used ([Babbie, 1990](#)). One of the primary features of survey research is that it is possible to quantify a particular feature of a certain population ([Kramer, 1991](#)). This study used the survey method in a cross-sectional

context because of the strengths survey research has ([Bell, 1996](#); [McIntyre, Lavorel, Landsberg, & Forbes, 1999](#)), as well as its widespread use in social science research, particularly with regards to leadership and intrapreneurial behavior ([Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006](#); [Katou & Budhwar, 2006](#)). Because the survey technique also fulfilled the current research's other goals, the researcher was able to collect more extensive data. self-administered questionnaires were used to collect the data. The following parts of this chapter discuss sample selection, instrument creation, data collecting, and data analysis.

### **3.2. Description of sampling**

The process of choosing a section (sample) of the population for study using a sampling technique is known as sampling ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). From sample data, researchers generalize the findings or make assertions about the population. Probability sampling and non-probability sampling generally describe two separate groups of sampling techniques. The process of doing probability sampling is predicated on using probability theory, in which case all samples available for the population are chosen with known probabilities. An example of a frequently used sampling strategy is probability sampling, which ensures that each unit has an equal chance of being picked; probability sampling is less subject to bias and allows for statistical analysis to be carried out on a sample from the target population of interest. In a simple random sample, every member of the population is given a number, such as a random integer, and those who are selected to be in the sample are chosen at random through the use of software that automatically draws numbers.

A stratified random sample is an improvement over a basic random sample in terms of complexity. With this approach, random sampling is conducted on a subgroup that divides the population, such as males and females. By using random sampling, we are able to get a representative random sample of a population, which may include aspects such as the population's composition.

In cluster sampling, a population is split into distinct clusters, such as cities, that represents a varied group. Randomly, a number of clusters are chosen from the list

of clusters to take part in research. A systematic sample is used to identify individuals from whom a random sample will be drawn. For example, if utilizing an interval of 5, the sample may consist of the fifth, 10th, 15th, 20th, and so forth individual on a list. When it is unclear if a population segment has been selected, we call it non-probability sampling. This kind of sampling is ideal for qualitative research, when the researcher selects a sample based on subjective judgments. This study used the probability technique of sampling since it is more objective and scientifically defensible than non-probability sampling, which is less expensive and faster, but is less trustworthy in regard to the objectivity and validity of results.

Convenience sampling utilizes individuals who are relatively easy to locate for research. These individuals may include close friends, those who are passing by, and those who are currently enrolled in university classes, for example. The convenience sample yields fast and simple findings, but they are useless for a larger population. Snowball sampling uses members to attract others, who in turn recruit their acquaintances. People who have a higher likelihood of knowing others who match the selection criteria may be easily targeted using this approach.

Target setting occurs when the size of a population is split into subsets based on criteria like age or geography, and an objective for the number of people from each subset is established. One of the main differences between stratified random sampling and quota sampling is that random sampling is not used in quota sampling; in other words, conducting a convenience sample with quotas will not guarantee that the number of males and females is even, and this would be a probability sample. In purposive or judgmental sampling, selection of the study sample is left to the researcher and their understanding of who fits the study's requirements. To use a sample like this, it may be helpful to identify PhD applicants in just one particular topic area. For certain features, this technique may be used; however, due to researcher involvement, bias may be created.

### **3.3.Sampling frame**

The “working population” is the list of all the individuals inside the target population who will provide the sample ([Bryman, 2004](#); [P. Sekaran et al., 2010](#); [Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2003](#)). The sample frame in the current research was selected using the following criteria provided by ([Rice-Evans, Miller, & Paganga, 1997](#)). Ensure that all the topics in the sample are relevant and adequately handled, which is referred to as frame completeness. Completeness of frame: equal to adequacy and makes sure that the frame includes everyone. Ensure that the sampling frame is up to date: up-to-date frame makes sure that the sample frame is kept up to date by including changes in the total targeted population. Convenience: empowers the topics to be readily found and accessed. It is critical to make sure individuals in the sample are chosen with care to avoid duplication. The HEC (2003–2004) provides data that are based on which the number of universities and degree-awarding institutions.

There are many kinds of probability sampling. To understand random sampling, you need to know about cluster random sampling. In this method, when a list of individuals that compose the population is unavailable, random people are selected from a group ([Babbie & Benaquisto, 2001](#)). Clusters must be identified before each individual member of the cluster is selected. It is fair to presume that people in groups picked at random are no different from those in unselected groups (Dixon, 2002). Using randomization, the findings of a representative sample of the population are applied to the whole population ([Creswell, 2003](#)).

### **3.4.Target Population**

Teachers from private universities/HEIs in Punjab (Pakistan) who were randomly chosen and had at least two years of teaching experience at their current institutions served as the subjects of this research. In order to guarantee that the instructors participating in the study have a strong grasp of styles of leadership and intrapreneurial career success, the researcher specified that they have a minimum of two years of work experience in their present institution. The main reason of choosing the private universities are 1. Employee in the public universities are not

loyal with the performance of the university. Furthermore, public universities are not concern with the innovation.

Punjab is Pakistan's most populous province, and it is also the province with the greatest concentration of HEIs; Punjab has 38 HEIs (21 in the public sector and 17 in the private sector). Of these 38 universities, 25 are located in Lahore (the province's capital city), with the remaining 13 universities located in other cities throughout the province. Only three of the 17 private sector universities are situated in locations other than Lahore, compared to 10 of the 21 public sector institutions based in other cities. On the basis of their geographical location, this research grouped the universities of Punjab into two groups (Lahore or other). Table 4 shows an overview of the number of institutions that are part of each of the four clusters. All of these institutions represent the population from which the sample must be selected and the findings generalized; thus, all of the institutions were theoretically eligible for inclusion, and so the target and accessible populations were the same. The population was further divided into two strata with the goal of enhancing the possibility of picking a fair representation from both segments of the population. This was done in order to increase the chance of selecting a fair representation from both segments of the population (i.e., public universities and private institutions). For each stratum, a list of HEIs was given as a resource.

***Table 2: Number of Universities***

| <b>Sector</b><br><b>Location</b> | <b>Public</b> | <b>Private</b> | <b>Total</b> |
|----------------------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|
| Lahore                           | 11            | 14             | 25           |
| Other                            | 10            | 3              | 13           |
| Total                            | 21            | 17             | 38           |

Source: HEC, Statistical Information Unit 2009–2020

Four university institutions were chosen randomly: one university situated in a city other than Lahore, and three universities from each of the other three categories. The random distribution of questionnaires was done based on the ratio of total faculty members in all the universities to the number of faculty members in each institution.

You must establish the smallest sample size needed to get the statistical power necessary for the research before starting data collection ([McQuitty, 2004](#)). When considering sample size, power is strengthened, and findings are more applicable ([Joe F Hair, Page, & Brunsveld, 2019](#)). When conducting surveys, time and budgetary limitations make it difficult to have a large sample size ([Dillman, 2000](#)). According to ([Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006](#)), both normality of the data and estimate technique influence the necessary sample size. While 10 observations for each free parameter to be estimated is commonly accepted, there are two studies ([Nunnally, Knott, Duchnowski, & Parker, 1967](#)) ([Schreiber et al., 2006](#)) that indicate the value may be more or less than that. A meta-analysis of several research studies conducted by ([Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988](#)) concluded that rather than the size of the item pool, the absolute minimum sample size should be given attention. This research offers a variety of options ranging from 50 ([Barrett & Kline, 1981](#)). Studies have shown that when using structural equation models, a sample size of 200 is necessary ([Sivo, Fan, Witta, & Willse, 2006](#)).

The greatest virtue of this study's sampling strategy is that it does away with coverage error since the unit sampled was exactly equivalent to each member of the population. A random sample of appropriate size is used to limit sampling error. Measurement error is reduced by selecting and arranging questions carefully, coupled with consideration of the strength of the instrument's validity and reliability. In order to minimize non-response error ([Dillman, 2000](#)), a comprehensive design approach used follow-up processes for data collecting.

One of the most important parts of research success is the selection of a target population or study settings/context ([Bakker & Demerouti, 2014](#)). Heterogeneous research, in contrast to homogeneous research, sets parameters within which generalizability of the results is limited. Those parameters define the boundaries for the applicability of the research and thus limit the extent to which hypotheses generated in the conceptual framework can be validated. Thus, establishing the proper configuration allows researchers to have a greater degree of confidence in making conclusions regarding empirical results by assessing suggested theories and hypotheses (Eisenhardt, 1989). When deciding on a suitable unit of analysis, it is

always important to take into consideration the whole of the population. The population of units from which the sample is to be chosen is called the population ([Bryman, 2004](#)). By way of analogy, population is a whole collection of individuals, organizations, towns, hospitals, shops, colleges, states, countries, or other such things that all have common features ([Bakker & Demerouti, 2014](#); [Zikmund et al., 2003](#)).

This research's target audience are individual academics who work in higher education in Pakistan, a developing South Asian nation. Pakistan's cultural similarities to East Asian nations and differences from Western and North American countries are shown in ([Hofstede, 1980](#)). According to HEC data (2003–2004), there are 57 public and private universities in Pakistan. In all, there are 37,428 full-time and part-time academics who work in the education system, including 17,802 who are part of the distance learning system (HEC PAK, 2009). As you will see in the next section, a specified sample frame is used to collect data on the study population. Data were collected, after contact with the human resource department of private universities.

### **3.5. Instrument validity and reliability**

**Validity:** The validity of an indicator designed to assess a notion is gauged by whether it accurately gauges that idea ([Bryman, 2004](#)). According to ([Hair Jr, Matthews, Matthews, & Sarstedt, 2017](#)), validity refers to the accuracy with which a scale or collection of measurements captures the target idea. While many kinds of validity exist in the industry, they are very rare. To follow the general trend of research, this study ensured the face, content, and construct validity of the instrument. Face and content validity were shown via the instrument used in this research ([U. Sekaran & Wagner, 1980](#)). A validation panel was set up to verify that the specified items used to assess the constructs of this study (HEIs in Pakistan) were legitimate. Teachers' intrapreneurial behavior was specially considered by the panel, as well as face and content validity problems with the instrument.

The panel consisted of two instructors, two registrars, two senior experts and a survey design expert. Some of the panelists' suggestions were followed and some

were not. To verify that the study participants' interpretations of the statements were the same as the intended one, a few interviews were also performed with the instructors ([Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001](#)). The results showed no significant variations in how well the participants understood the questions. The respondents had a solid understanding of English; therefore, the questionnaire's wording was maintained in that language.

Construct validity is described as “connecting a concept (defining variable) to a measurement process (operational definition of the variable) such that the idea is represented correctly in relation to the measurement technique” ([D. P. Schwab, 1980](#)). Construct validity occurs if the latent root criteria (eigenvalue) is equal to or above 1, with a loading of at least 0.4 and no cross-loading of items with loading of more than 0.4 ([Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004](#)).

**Reliability:** To guarantee the validity of a survey, Straub et al. (2004) emphasized the use of methods such as reliability testing. Reliability describes how well a tool or device maintains its accuracy over time ([Ary et al., 2018](#); [Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). Consistency or repeatability are just as important in ensuring measurement quality as is the dependability of the measurement. To be trustworthy, a measurement must give the same findings if the measurement is carried out more than once ([Carmines & Zeller, 1979](#)). Furthermore, accurate measurement is only possible if mistakes are kept to a minimum.

A reliability check on components was conducted to guarantee the instrument's dependability. Internal reliability (also known as construct reliability) focuses on evaluating whether measurement instruments have established, unchanging levels. When we say that this kind of reliability measures the consistency of a single respondent's scores on several measures, we mean that it evaluates how consistent one respondent's responses are over numerous metrics ([Bryman, 2004](#)). Cronbach's alpha is the most often used tool to evaluate internal consistency. It factors out all potential split-half reliability coefficients and produces the average. Internal reliability values may range from 0 (showing no internal dependability) to 1 (showing perfect internal reliability). A rule of thumb used to define an acceptable

degree of internal dependability is considered to be a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.80 or above ([Bryman, 2004](#)). In this particular research, Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the instrument's internal consistency.

### **3.6. Pilot study**

A pilot study was used to examine the instrument's internal consistency and inter-rater reliability. Teachers from a private institution were chosen and questionnaires were sent to them via stratified random selection. A covering letter was used to provide instructions to participants for completing the questionnaire and returning it to the researcher. The response rate for the pilot test was 84%. Nearly two-thirds of the responders (67%) were male, while the remaining third (37%) were female. According to the respondents, 49% were under the age of 30, 37% were in the age range of 30–39, 7% were in the age group of 40–49, 5% were in the age group of 50–59, and only 2% were in the age group of above 60.

Using Cronbach's coefficient alpha, I was able to determine the instrument's consistency and reliability within the pilot group. Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.72 to 0.91 for the present sample, indicating a moderate level of reliability. Early evidence that all multi-item categories (such as human resource management practices, competence, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, motivation, and performance) were highly dependable was made possible by the higher Cronbach's alpha values that have been reported above. To put it another way, everything contained the same amount of material.

### **3.7. Data collection procedure**

Surveys take little resources and are the best method to extract private information ([Dillman, 1978](#); [Glasow, 2005](#)). Permission/consent was sought and granted from the administration of the chosen academic institutions before data collection. The survey was conducted using a self-administered method, which led to a high response rate of 92.92%. A questionnaire was given to the on-site professors after explaining the project's goals and establishing guidelines for ethical research. The teachers realized the significance of the study and they treated the surveys with extreme seriousness.

The questionnaire pack included: a cover letter describing the project's significance and goal, as well as asking for participation in the questionnaire; the questionnaire, which contained directions; a postage-paid return envelope; and each participant was sent a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Respondents were given two weeks to respond. A majority of the instructors submitted surveys online, although it took them approximately one to two weeks to do so. Also, a reminder email was sent two weeks following the first launch to ensure that recipients would not have forgotten. Data gathering lasted four months.

Every researcher is responsible for ensuring participants' safety and protecting their personal information. Researchers must have a clear understanding of the ethical concerns in doing research, as well as the ethical conduct of researchers ([Beauvais, Trimble, & Fisher, 2006](#); [Field, Behrman, & Children, 2004](#)). As a means of addressing any ethical deficiency that might have an adverse effect on the findings of this research, intensive attention was given to three critical areas. The participant was completely informed and knowledgeable about the study's purposes and procedures. Participants gave their informed permission by signing a consent form before joining the study. Anyone in the study could withdraw without giving a reason, if they felt they had already received their financial gain. Voluntarism in the data collecting procedure was upheld. Respondents' responses were kept private, and strict anonymity was maintained to preserve their privacy.

### **3.8. Time horizon: Cross-sectional**

A cross-sectional study has to be done only once and lasts for weeks or months ([U. Sekaran & Wagner, 1980](#)). Studies that evaluate changes in dependent variables over time are called longitudinal studies. A cross-sectional design is used for the current research. This current research seeks to uncover the crucial factors that influence acceptance behavior by using advanced multivariate methods. To investigate the multivariate model by utilizing structural equation modeling (SEM) methods, a minimum sample of 200 was needed ([Joe F Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011](#)). Due to this, a cross-sectional study was chosen since it provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyze a large number of participants in a short period of time, and

a period of time to monitor changes in dependent variables was not part of the objective of this study ([Bordens & Abbott, 2007](#)).

### **3.9. Sample unit**

If we consider the topic of Baker's research, it is an object or thing that has particular features or attributes that make it worthy of investigation. One thing to keep in mind when designing a questionnaire is that there are different levels of analysis; for comparison purposes, the unit of analysis can be either a standalone system, as is widespread in case studies and survey research, or it can be multiple units, as is the norm in research that makes use of hierarchical data analysis, which is common in research that uses multiple units ([Bakker & Demerouti, 2014](#)). Individual academics working full time inside HEIs in Pakistan constitute the first level of analysis in the current research. For a subsequent level of analysis, demographic and cultural variables are used to divide the sample unit into groups. It is arguable that picking individual low-level academics, in contrast to groups or institutional leaders, is in accordance with the findings of Bernard (2000). As recommended by ([Yi et al., 2006](#)), it is important to gather data at the lowest feasible level since it is possible to aggregate data that is acquired at an individual level (e.g., individuals, networks, businesses) while disaggregation (decomposition) is not always achievable. Since the objective of the current research is to investigate variables of intention and greater accepting behaviors, it would be impractical to just focus on individual perceptions (i.e., academic department staff or only males or females).

### **3.10. Sample size**

It is difficult and complicated to accurately assess a required sample size. Convergence and the correct solution, and parameter accuracy, may be affected by a small sample size ([Joe F Hair et al., 2019](#)). However, a sample size greater than necessary will result in a substantial waste of time, money, and procedure ([Bryman, 2004](#); [Joe F Hair et al., 2019](#)). In other words, then, it is essential to have a clear understanding of the necessary sample size so that the findings may be applied reliably and trustingly to all of the target population. The size of this study's sample

was based on existing methods of multivariate analysis and the needs of data analysis techniques, which included SEM, such as AMOS, LISREL, and SmartPLS; therefore, a sample size of 384 was enough to test the hypotheses.

### **3.11. Data Handling**

Preparation of the data for analysis is a necessary preliminary step. One of the best practices when writing up scientific research is to describe data collecting, cleaning, and analysis methods. More often than not, research papers provide thorough descriptions of the collecting methods utilized in the study. However, the processes for screening and cleansing data are not as widely publicized as the reporting of those procedures. Although 15% of the papers reviewed included procedures for detecting and handling missing data, the most popular technique of dealing with missing data was to completely exclude questionnaires with missing data from the research. All questionnaires in this study were fully completed. Authors of research papers should be sure to include discussions on how missing data was discovered and the processes utilized to handle incomplete answers. Also, the procedure for dealing with outliers in the data that were identified as a cause for worry should be described. It was only in two of the studies that authors reported that they explicitly filtered for outliers and excluded instances that exhibited discrepancies. Straight-lined answers were often ignored because of the lack of reporting. The only article detailing the removal of replies for “overly consistent responses” has not yet been published. As you can see, writers are not disclosing the cleaning methods they employed. To offer crucial information to reviewers and readers of research that briefly details the method that was followed in the data cleaning process is an excellent way to bolster the credibility of the work.

### **3.12. Data Analysis**

#### **3.12.1. Structural Equation Modeling**

The use of SEM allows researchers to investigate the interrelationships among latent components and their corresponding observable indicators. Researchers often turn to SEM when they are testing comprehensive ideas ([N. L. Hair, Hanson, Wolfe, & Pollak,](#)

[2015](#)). Covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and partial least squares SEM (PLS-SEM) can contribute to research goals. In this case, where the study is explanatory in character and its goal is prediction and theory development, PLS-SEM is suitable ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#)). CB-SEM is suggested for confirmatory testing in which the calculation of the difference between observed and inferred covariance matrix is used since it utilizes chi-squared. A crucial benefit of CB-SEM is that it includes multiple goodness of fit indicators that assess how well empirical data fits the measurement model. Another model-building approach that has been introduced in recent years is Goodness of Fit Index, Comparative Fit Index, Root Mean Square of Error Approximation, and Normed Chi-Square. However, there is no specific goodness of fit PLS-SEM model fit measurement that has been discovered so far.

PLS-SEM uses structural equation models similar to CB-SEM which may examine the structural equations using both observed variables as well as latent constructs, taking into consideration measurement errors (Aimran et al., 2017). The entire variance of the endogenous construct is explained via PLS-SEM, which is helpful for predicting the route in a model (([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#); [Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014](#)). CB-SEM is unique in that it addresses modeling approaches by taking into consideration common variables, such as constructs. Variance and covariance are often used as common components to generate parameter estimates in a model. Therefore, before a research model is analyzed, the variance and the error of variance are removed. However, in contrast, the use of a linear combination of indicator variables in a structural model allows for a far more straightforward understanding of the overall variance of the construct in the model (Rigdon et al., 2017).

Due to the fact that PLS-SEM is employed for all of the individual variations, it is therefore compromised as a composite approach. Many academics consider PLS-SEM less suited to parametric analysis than to non-parametric analysis, and for this reason, PLS-SEM is only used as an alternative to CB-SEM ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#)). PLS-SEM is appropriate for exploratory research with a non-normal data distribution, limited sample size, and sophisticated models that include reflective and formative concepts ([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#)).

When measuring and testing models, the CB-SEM and PLS-SEM techniques include two elements: models and structural models. The first part is termed an inner model, which is used to map the structural route between the model's major constructs, and the second element is called an outer model, which is used to map the model's measurement variables and related indicators. Additional SEM methods use two distinct kinds of constructs: exogenous and endogenous. The word "exogenous" is often used to describe variables that are not part of the model. However, the dependent latent variable is the endogenous construct in a model. Depending on the kind of measurement theory, the outer model is built differently. The model is described using arrows that connect the construct to the indicator variables. When indicators are used to assess the model, arrows going from the variables to the constructs show the model. Measuring models (reflective and formative) result in computation and convergence estimations that vary significantly. This means that if the model is improperly defined, the results will be skewed and will ultimately end up providing erroneous and divergent solutions and estimates of convergence.

When a researcher applies SEM methods, key validity measurements are used to get a higher degree of precision ([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#)). When content validity, face validity, and criterion validity are not evaluated, statistical conclusions do not provide enough evidence for the validity of the other qualitative measures. The forms and structures used in formative and reflective evaluation are quite different. Internal consistency, and discriminant and convergent validity are all checked before further detailed analysis is done. Cronbach's alpha, Omega rho, Dijkstra and Henseler's rho, McDonald's rho, and composite reliability (CR) are all used to measure the internal consistency of the data. CR includes the indicator variables with varying weights, and it is considerably more helpful than other reliability metrics ([Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015](#)). Factor loadings (rather than tau equivalence) are used to evaluate the indicator weight, which tends to lead to inaccurate measurement of dependability. The convergent validity of a construct is determined by calculating the average variance extracted (AVE), which is equal to the mean square residual calculated by a single factor loading from each construct. A square of 0.70 is equal to 0.5 or 50% of the total variation ([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#)). Analysts were provided with 0.40 to 0.70 value

indicator scales that had 0.40 to 0.70 of factor loading, but because the convergent validity was met, these indicators may be used in the analysis even if the factor loading is low ([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#)). To get an estimate of the construct variation explained, just divide the AVE by 0.5, which represents the rule of thumb for minimal AVE. CB-SEM requires a minimum loading of 0.50, and deletion of less than 20% of the total indicators in the model is acceptable ([Hair Jr et al., 2017](#)). Collinearity and indicator weight are other measures of convergent validity that are also used to measure formative conceptions. Variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance. The current research used reflective measurement models like the one described above, as well as a VIF (an exploratory factor analysis) and a traditional exploratory factor analysis; however, VIF and traditional exploratory factor analysis are not provided.

The last stage in determining a measurement model's validity is discriminant validity. To prevent multicollinearity issues, the constructs in a model must be discriminant to each other. When each construct represents a distinct phenomenon that is not in any other construct in a model, then discriminant validity has been established ([Fraenkel & Wallen, 2013](#)). The ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981b](#)) method can be used to establish discriminant validity. This approach involves calculating the square root value of AVE and comparing the square root value of AVE with the correlations between constructs. CB-SEM and PLS-SEM were extensively used. The composite technique does not utilize PLS-SEM, since it does not account for shared variation ([Voorhees, Brady, Calantone, & Ramirez, 2016](#)). As a result, the HTMT is suggested to compensate for any shortcomings that may exist in the composite technique. The parametric statistical technique, which CB-SEM uses, is much more powerful than the non-parametric statistical method, which PLS path modeling uses. The method used in CB-SEM is maximum likelihood estimation, which is more accurate and efficient than ordinary least squares in PLS-SEM. To expand on this, in PLS-SEM, bootstrapping (using 10,000 bootstrap samples) is used to determine the standard error of parameter estimations; however, statistical significance is developed concurrently using CB-SEM.

### 3.13. PLS-SEM

It is important to note that the primary purpose of PLS-SEM is to evaluate or estimate a theoretical model, and not to assess whether an alternative model fits the data better ([Sosik, Kahai, & Piovoso, 2009](#)). PLS allows the "estimation" of both manifest and hidden variables (Falk & Miller, 1992, p. 10).

In the 1970s, econometrician Herman Wold developed a new mathematical model known as partial least squares (PLS) (Chin, 1998b). It included, among other things, techniques like alternating least squares and canonical correlation analysis, which are further extensions of principal component and canonical correlation analysis ([Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009](#)). For a given set of linear equations known as the measurement model, PLS models are used to find solutions for another set of linear equations known as the structural model ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)). The measurement model, also referred to as the outer model, defines connections between latent variables, whereas the structural model, sometimes referred to as the inner model, determines how a latent variable is related to its manifest variables (items). ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)) asserted that PLS is just a succession of regressions with respect to weight vectors, and the method in its most basic form is as follows:

In the first stage, a four-step iterative method is used to estimate latent variable scores, and this is done iteratively until convergence is achieved. The outer estimate of the latent variable scores and outer weight/loading and path coefficients are estimated in stage two. This is the third stage in the process of determining location parameters.

PLS-SEM has seen growing use in many business verticals ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)). Scholars consider the PLS-SEM model to be a more robust way of estimating the structural model ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)). When CB-SEM distributional assumptions cannot be fulfilled, then PLS-SEM is regarded as an alternative ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#)). This dissertation uses analytic criteria that have been shown to be effective in analyzing research models, but a PLS-SEM approach is also used. Accordingly, because of the reasons mentioned above, this conclusion was made:

The goal of this study is not to assess model invariance." the emphasis is on social media-induced technostress's predictive factors Many researchers utilize latent variable scores to investigate the link between the latent variables ([Sosik et al., 2004](#)).

([Henseler et al., 2009](#)) stated that PLS is suitable for big, complicated models with numerous latent variables. This dissertation contains more latent variables and a more sophisticated research model than previous dissertations ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)). This dissertation is focused on the exploration of previously theorized connections. The sensitivity of the PLS-SEM model to residual values may be estimated, and the impact of residuals on the model can be assessed.

The PLS method is used to analyze measurement and structural models. This dissertation uses a two-step method to examine the research model: (1) the measurement model is evaluated, and (2) the structural model is assessed. A measurement and structural model should be tested to validate the model and to satisfy the requirements for empirical research ([Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010](#)). These subsections describe the measurement and structural model assessment criteria included in this dissertation.

### **3.14. Measurement Model**

The validity of a reflective measurement model may be demonstrated (on the basis of previous research) by assessing its internal consistency, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity ([Lewin, 1935](#); [Straub et al., 2004](#)).

#### **3.14.1. Internal Consistency**

For traditional purposes, Cronbach's alpha may be used to test the internal consistency of a measurement model. Highly correlated items have the same range and meaning, thus highly correlated constructs ([Cronbach, 1971](#)). Using Cronbach's alpha gives a relative measure of dependability, which is made possible via the intercorrelations between the indicators. CR is also used to evaluate internal consistency in PLS ([Chin, 1998](#)). CR takes into account that the indicators have

varying factor loadings, while Cronbach's alpha assesses just internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha may overestimate inter-item dependability, in which case it assumes that all measurements are treated similarly when they are not ([Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974](#)). To begin with, internal consistency reliability should be at least 0.7 in the early phases of a study. As research progresses, the dependability level should be above 0.8 or 0.9. Reliability is shown when the price is less than or equal to 0.6 ([Nunnally, 1994](#)).

### **3.14.2. Indicator Reliability**

To evaluate the reliability and consistency in the data different measures are available such as composite reliability, Cronbach alpha need to measure ([Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010](#)). Moreover, construct dependability is different from other constructs and has its own computation. Using loadings of 0.7 or higher is suggested, with loadings of 0.05 or below ([Chin, 1998](#)). However, another study claims that factor loading values should be higher than 0.5 in order to get better outcomes ([Hulland, 1999](#); [Truong & McColl, 2011](#)). Factor loading estimates should be between 0.5 and 0.7, according to ([Joseph F Hair, Anderson, Babin, & Black, 2010](#)).

Bootstrapping or jack-knifing may be used to evaluate the relevance of the indicator loadings. It is important to make sure that any indicators being eliminated are carefully evaluated because of the features of PLS consistency. To state the obvious, an indication only has to be removed when its reliability is very low, and a significant improvement in CR occurs with its removal ([Henseler et al., 2009](#)).

### **3.14.3. Convergent Validity**

When comparing items measuring various domains, convergent validity is characterized as the degree to which individual items indicate a concept that is converging, as described by ([Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010](#)). Examining the value of average variance that was obtained might help to determine its significance. It may be evaluated by examining the AVE. When the AVE value of a concept is at least 0.5, it is considered to have enough convergent validity ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981b](#)).

#### **3.14.4. Discriminant Validity**

The term construct validity is used to discriminate between measures of a notion that are comparable to one another, according to Urbach and Ahlemann (2010). The degree to which overlapping conceptions differ from one another is also evaluated (Hair et al., 2014). As opposed to determining whether the items accidentally measure the stated concept, discriminant validity determines whether the items mistakenly measure anything else. There are two types of discriminant validity measures that are often used in PLS: (1) cross-loading (Chin, 1998) and (2) Fornell's criteria and Larcker's discriminant validity measure (Fornell & Larcker, 1981b). As a result of linking the component scores of each latent variable with the component scores of all other items, cross-loading is formed. If each indication has a higher loading when compared to any other construct, it is possible to claim that the indicators of the different constructions are not interchangeable with one another (Chin, 1998). According to Fornell's criterion, a latent variable must share more variance with its assigned indicators than it does with any other latent variable in order to be considered significant, whereas a latent variable must share more variance with any other latent variable is not considered significant. By using this method, the square root of the AVE can be compared with the correlation of latent constructs. Instead of being able to better explain the variance of other latent constructs, a latent construct should be able to better explain the variance of the indication that it is describing. Because of this, the square root of each construct's AVE should be bigger than the correlations between the constructs and other latent variables, as shown in Figure 1. (Hair Jr et al., 2014). An overview of the validity requirements that should be employed in assessing the validity of a reflective measurement model is shown in Table 8. According to the definition provided in this dissertation, the validity of a measurement model is regarded excellent if and only if the following conditions are met:

The dependability of the composite is more than 0.8. A total of five items have loading values more than 0.5 and are statistically significant at the 0.05 level or above. Each construct has an AVE value larger than 0.5 for all constructions in which the AVE value is greater than 0.5 In each indication, the loading of each

component is the greatest it can be for the construction for which it is designed.

### **3.14.5. Structural Model**

Once a satisfactory validation of the measurement model has been completed, the structural model may be examined. Performing a thorough evaluation of whether the assumptions indicated by the structural model are supported by the data may be facilitated by validating the structural model ([Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010](#)). PLS allows you to assess a structural model by calculating the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and path coefficients for it. To evaluate the structural model, the first crucial criterion is to compute the  $R^2$  for each endogenous latent variable, which assesses the connection between a latent variable's explained variance and the overall variance of the variable under consideration. According to ([Chin, 1998](#)), a value of  $R^2$  in the vicinity of 0.67 is regarded large, whereas values in the vicinity of 0.333 are considered average, and values in the vicinity of 0.19 are considered weak. Second, the path coefficient value is examined in order to determine the strength of the association between two latent variables. The path coefficient value is one of the criteria for evaluating the structural model. It is necessary to investigate the link between two latent variables by examining the path coefficients, algebraic sign, size, and significance of the two latent variables. It is necessary for path coefficients to be greater than 0.100 in order to account for a specific influence inside the model and to be statistically significant at the 0.05 level of significance ([Huber et al., 2007](#)). The requirements for validating the structural model are summarized in Table 9, which follows. In this dissertation, the structural model is examined and judged good if and only if: 1) the coefficient of determination is more than 0.19 and 2) the coefficient of determination is greater than 0.19.

### **3.15. Chapter Summary**

This chapter described the research approach that will be used to test the hypotheses that have been developed. Following the establishment of the reason for the selection of the study technique, a description of the sampling of participants was provided. Following a debate on the development of instrument measurement methods, there

was a discussion on validity and reliability procedures. The chapter went on to describe data collection and the pilot project, which were both discussed in detail. Special attention was paid to the methodologies utilized to analyze the obtained data in the data analysis part of the report. The findings of the investigation are described in the next chapter.

The PLS path model was described by the use of a measurements and a structural model. Although both measurement models and structural models are used to illustrate the relationships between latent variables and manifest variables, measurement models are used more often ([Chatelin, Vinzi, & Tenenhaus, 2002](#)). Convergent and discriminant validity tests are performed on the measurement model in order to validate the components. Using a significant *t*-value, each item should load its latent construct in order to ensure that convergence has been verified ([Gefen, Rigdon, & Straub, 2011](#)). The AVE score can reveal discriminant validity. The square root of the AVE score for each latent variable should be greater than the correlation of any pair of latent variables in order to demonstrate discriminant validity ([Gefen et al., 2011](#)). SmartPLS is utilized in this work to construct measurement and structural models, which is a first for the field. SmartPLS is a free tool for creating SEM designs ([Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005](#)). Measurement of the models developed in SmartPLS is accomplished via the use of PLS analysis ([Hansmann & Ringle, 2004](#)).

## **Chapter Four**

### **Results and Findings**

#### **4. Introduction**

This chapter, which is separated into five primary components, presents the results of the statistical analysis. In the first part, the based on the descriptive figures of the profile of manufacturing SMEs, as well as the information of the respondents, are provided. A graph is used to visualize the results of Harman's single factor test in order to examine common procedure bias in the second half of the study. The third point to discuss is the appropriateness of the actions taken. Last but not least, we examine the outcomes of the inductive reasoning and the predictive utility of the model.

#### **4.1.Demographic Analysis**

Almost 650 survey questionnaires are disseminated to the respondents who's are working in public (159) and private (225) university in Punjab. Among the respondents, total 455 questionnaire were returned in which 384 are useable to measure the objective of this study. This study mostly respondents were male (230) because they are earning source of households and females are (154). 203 were the lecturers, 47 were assistant professors, 12 were associate professor, 4 were professor, 118 were other staff working in the higher education universities.

In the above table, age is considered one of the important variables which were categorized 20-30 (43. 2%), 31-40(40.9%), 41-50(13.5%), 51-60(1.8%), 61-70(.5%). As far as experience of the respondents are concerned below 5 year 44.8 %, 6-10 (25.5%), and above ten year (29.7%)

**Table 3: Demographic Information**

| Gender         |                     | Frequency | Valid Percentage |
|----------------|---------------------|-----------|------------------|
|                | Male                | 230       | 59.9             |
|                | Female              | 154       | 40.1             |
| Designation    | Lecturer            | 203       | 52.9             |
|                | Assistant Professor | 47        | 12.2             |
|                | Associate Professor | 12        | 3.1              |
|                | Professor           | 4         | 1.0              |
|                | Administrator       | 118       | 30.7             |
| University     | Public              | 159       | 41.4             |
|                | Private             | 225       | 58.6             |
| Education      | Undergraduate       | 26        | 6.78             |
|                | Graduate            | 107       | 27.86            |
|                | Postgraduate        | 251       | 65.36            |
| Age            | 20-30               | 166       | 43.2             |
|                | 31-40               | 157       | 40.9             |
|                | 41-50               | 52        | 13.5             |
|                | 51-60               | 7         | 1.8              |
|                | 61-70               | 2         | 0.5              |
| Marital Status | Married             | 227       | 59.1             |
|                | Single              | 149       | 38.8             |
|                | Divorced            | 8         | 2.1              |
| Experience     | Below 5 Years       | 172       | 44.8             |
|                | 6-10 Years          | 98        | 25.5             |
|                | Above 10 Years      | 114       | 29.7             |

#### **4.2. Instrumentation**

The best method of gathering huge quantities of data is via questionnaires (Babbie, 2001). Data was collected on variables of leadership styles (servant and paternalist leadership), PE, intrapreneurial behavior, proactive intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success with the purpose of accomplishing the main objective of this study. Since this survey includes seven categories, the questionnaire was constructed accordingly. The first section was on basic demographics, such as gender, age, level of education, industry, and job type. Teachers provided responses

to the questions on a Likert-type scale, with possible responses ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." All the information about the methods is provided here.

**Table 4: Instrument information**

| Research                       | No of Items | Reference                                                              |
|--------------------------------|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Servant Leadership             | 8           | ( <a href="#">Barbuto &amp; Gifford, 2010</a> )                        |
| Paternalistic Leadership       | 11          | ( <a href="#">Ötken &amp; Cenkci, 2012</a> )                           |
| Psychological Empowerment      | 12          | ( <a href="#">Hochwälder &amp; Brucefors, 2005</a> )                   |
| Intrapreneurial Behavior       | 5           | ( <a href="#">M. J. Alam, Ahmed, Nahar, Akter, &amp; Uddin, 2020</a> ) |
| Intrapreneurial Career Success | 8           | ( <a href="#">Gomes, Diogo, Santos, &amp; Ratten, 2022</a> )           |
| Proactive career behavior      | 13          | ( <a href="#">Y. Shin &amp; Kim, 2015</a> )                            |

#### 4.3. Assessment Model

**Table 5: Assessment of the Model**

| First order                    | Second order | Items | Loading | Alpha | CR    | AVE   |
|--------------------------------|--------------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| Intrapreneurial Career Success |              | ICS1  | 0.78    | 0.924 | 0.938 | 0.653 |
|                                |              | ICS2  | 0.828   |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS3  | 0.788   |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS4  | 0.82    |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS5  | 0.802   |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS6  | 0.83    |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS7  | 0.821   |       |       |       |
|                                |              | ICS8  | 0.796   |       |       |       |
| Proactive Career Behavior      |              | PCB1  | 0.468   | 0.915 | 0.92  | 0.576 |

| First order                  | Second |       | Loading | Alpha | CR    | AVE   |
|------------------------------|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|
|                              | order  | Items |         |       |       |       |
| Psychological<br>Empowerment |        | PCB2  | 0.625   | 0.962 | 0.967 | 0.711 |
|                              |        | PCB3  | 0.455   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB4  | 0.811   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB5  | 0.79    |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB6  | 0.735   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB7  | 0.562   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB8  | 0.737   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB9  | 0.793   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB10 | 0.727   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB11 | 0.7     |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB12 | 0.681   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | PCB13 | 0.761   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL1   | 0.865   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL2   | 0.623   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL3   | 0.881   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL4   | 0.876   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL5   | 0.845   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL6   | 0.858   |       |       |       |
| Servant Leadership           |        | SL7   | 0.884   | 0.962 | 0.966 | 0.558 |
|                              |        | SL8   | 0.893   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL9   | 0.854   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL10  | 0.864   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL11  | 0.773   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL12  | 0.868   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL13  | 0.831   | 0.962 | 0.966 | 0.558 |
|                              |        | SL14  | 0.814   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL15  | 0.778   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL16  | 0.427   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL17  | 0.473   |       |       |       |
|                              |        | SL18  | 0.487   |       |       |       |

| First order              | Second |       | Loading | Alpha | CR   | AVE   |
|--------------------------|--------|-------|---------|-------|------|-------|
|                          | order  | Items |         |       |      |       |
| Paternalistic Leadership |        | SL19  | 0.481   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL20  | 0.835   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL21  | 0.831   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL22  | 0.82    |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL23  | 0.824   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL24  | 0.802   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL25  | 0.706   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL26  | 0.78    |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL27  | 0.76    |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL28  | 0.82    |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL29  | 0.78    |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL30  | 0.823   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL31  | 0.805   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL32  | 0.799   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL33  | 0.705   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL34  | 0.776   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | SL35  | 0.761   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL1   | 0.572   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL2   | 0.652   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL3   | 0.534   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL4   | 0.855   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL5   | 0.869   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL6   | 0.577   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL7   | 0.646   | 0.947 | 0.95 | 0.551 |
|                          |        | PL8   | 0.856   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL9   | 0.868   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL10  | 0.647   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL11  | 0.845   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL12  | 0.556   |       |      |       |
|                          |        | PL13  | 0.645   |       |      |       |

| First order              | Second |       |         |       |       |       |
|--------------------------|--------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|
|                          | order  | Items | Loading | Alpha | CR    | AVE   |
| Intrapreneurial Behavior |        | PL14  | 0.853   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | PL15  | 0.87    |       |       |       |
|                          |        | PL16  | 0.845   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB1   | 0.831   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB2   | 0.859   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB3   | 0.849   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB4   | 0.814   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB5   | 0.868   | 0.935 | 0.946 | 0.663 |
|                          |        | IB6   | 0.861   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB7   | 0.852   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB8   | 0.779   |       |       |       |
|                          |        | IB9   | 0.572   |       |       |       |

The validity and reliability of the indicators are evaluated as part of the process of evaluating the measurement model (items). Measurement models are analyzed individually depending on quality criteria such as measurement and structural models and formative experimental measurements, with the model being reviewed at various stages during the assessment process. To evaluate the reflective measurement model, according to Henseler and colleagues (2014), researchers must examine both the model's reliability and validity. CR is used in the first stage of the testing process to determine the internal consistency and reliability of the concept. Cronbach's alpha is typically used in this stage to determine the reliability of the concept. It is expressed in terms of construction reliability (CR) ratings, which indicate how well constructed items substantially influenced the same latent construct over time. Often, the evaluation of composition reliability is concerned with the measurement of construct reliability, which is a measure of how consistent the construct is internally. Because it is more indicative of overall dependability in the PLS route model, the internal consistency step is preferable to Cronbach's alpha in terms of performance in the PLS route model. Due to the fact that CR is concerned with the individual trustworthiness of variables in the estimated model, which requires that all of the indicators have separate loadings, the rationale for this is ([Hair Jr et al., 2014](#); [Henseler et al., 2009](#)). Similarly, Cronbach's alpha is a reliability estimation method that relies on the correlation of all the indicators in a construct, which

is predicated on the assumption that all indicators have equal loading. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to the number of items in the construct and has a tendency to underestimate the internal consistency reliability of latent constructs when the number of items is small ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). As a result of this constraint of Cronbach's alpha, CR values offer a more accurate estimate of the variance shared by the corresponding indicators in the PLS-SEM model than CR values alone ([Hair Jr et al., 2014](#); [Henseler et al., 2014](#)). The evaluation of validity is the second phase in the process of evaluating reflective indicators. Convergent validity and discriminant validity are two forms of validity that might be found in a study. In research, the term "convergent validity" refers to how well the consensus of many items used to assess the same idea measures the same concept. It is expected that the things are connected to one another on a theoretical level. Furthermore, the outer loadings of the construct, average variance extract are used to determine the convergent validity where outer loading minimum value is 0.4 and cutoff values for the AVE should be greater than 0.5 ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). In order to enhance the AVE or CR over the suggested amount, the loadings between 0.4 and 0.7 should be evaluated for elimination. Immediately delete from the scale all indicators with loadings less than 0.4. ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#); [Henseler et al., 2014](#)). It is defined as the grand mean value of the squared loadings of a collection of indicators by Hair, Sarstedt, and colleagues (2014), and it is equivalent to the communality of an indicator construct. According to the definition, AVE measures "the extent to which a latent concept explains the variance of its elements" ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). On average, a latent construct with an AVE larger than 0.5 may explain more than half of the indications in the dataset ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#); [Henseler et al., 2009](#)). When AVE is less than 0.5, on the other hand, it indicates that, on average, the construct represents less variation in the items that are still (by mistake) unclear. It is possible to have convergent validity when each item has an outer loading greater than 0.5 and when the average value of each construct is equal to or greater than 0.5.

Discriminant validity is a measure of how much a construct differs from other constructs, how much it connects with other constructs, and how much indicators reflect just a single construct" ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). This implies that the construct measures what it was designed to measure. If the square root of AVE is larger than the correlations between a construct and other latent constructs, the construct is regarded as distinct from the other constructs. In order to assess the discriminant validity of the notions, two techniques are available. Cross-loadings of the indicators and the Fornell–Larcker criteria are used to calculate these coefficients ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). The

distinction between the two techniques is that cross-loading is analyzed at the level of indicators, while Fornell–Larcker criteria are examined at the level of constructs in the Fornell–Larcker method.

As a condition of using the cross-loadings approach, it is necessary that the outer loadings of each indication on its build be greater than the cross-loading on other constructions. An issue with discriminant validity may arise if the cross-loadings of other constructs are greater than the outer loadings of the indicators in question. The Fornell–Larcker criteria, which is used to determine discriminant validity, is the second technique of verification. According to the Fornell–Larker criterion, the items should load stronger in their own constructions than they should load in any other constructs in the model ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981b](#)). In other words, the construct shares more variation with the indicators than with any other construct, according to this hypothesis. It tests this condition by comparing the square root of the AVE values with the correlations of the latent variables. The square root of each AVE of the construct should be bigger than the greatest correlation between the construct and any other construct, to be more specific.

In contrast, in order to examine the reliability and validity of the formative measurement model, the statistical assessment criteria for the reflective scale cannot simply be copied and pasted into the formative scale. When we talk about formative constructs, we are referring to indicators that produce the latent variable and cannot be traded between them since they are not always interconnected. Formative indications, on the other hand, are presumed to be free of inaccuracy ([Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000](#)). Therefore, there is no necessity for the reporting of indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, or discriminant validity. This is due to the fact that outer loading, CR, and the square root of the AVE are not intended for use with a latent variable and uncorrelated measurements of the variable. An alternative approach is to base the evaluation of formative indices more on theoretical considerations and expert opinion on the causal priority between the indicators and the hidden construct ([Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001](#)).

#### **4.4. Assessment of Model**

In PLS, the dependability of individual items/constructs is examined by examining the item loadings on their corresponding latent constructs, as described above ([Hulland, 1999](#)). Greater variance shared between the construct and measurement rather than error variance is indicated by

greater loadings, while lower loadings indicate that the explanatory power of the model is very weak, resulting in a reduction in the estimated parameters connecting the constructs ([Hulland, 1999](#)). In the case of a reflective measurement paradigm, the indicators are closely connected and interchangeable, and their reliability and validity should be assessed and reported in detail, as should their consistency. As a result, in order to evaluate the measurement model, the researcher validated its reliability as well as its validity. Contingent and discriminant validity were used to evaluate reliability, while CR and reliability were used to assess validity. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to evaluate the instruments' internal consistency (e.g., CR), convergent validity (e.g., average variance retrieved), and discriminant validity (e.g., cross-loadings and the Fornell–Larcker criteria). In order to examine the connections in the structural model, it is necessary to first validate that the measurements are accurate and dependable.

#### **4.5. Composite Reliability**

The CR of the concept was evaluated in order to examine its internal consistency reliability. In this process, the loadings of all items for reflective constructs were checked to ensure that they were above a cutoff value of 0.5, as proposed by Hair, Hult, and colleagues ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). Each component was put into its appropriate constructions item, as shown in Table 5.4. All of the item loadings were more than the suggested cutoff value of 0.5. The loadings ranged from 0.524 to 0.957, indicating that the constructs account for more than half of the variation in the observed variable, as evidenced by the results of the analysis. Items with loadings less than 0.5 were removed one at a time until the construct's internal consistency reached a large threshold value of internal consistency. Items that have been eliminated from a reflective scale may not have an impact on the conceptual meaning of the specific construct as long as the construct keeps appropriate internal consistency. This is because the path of causation runs from construct to objects since the items represent the effects, and the items that reflect the effects are represented by the construct.

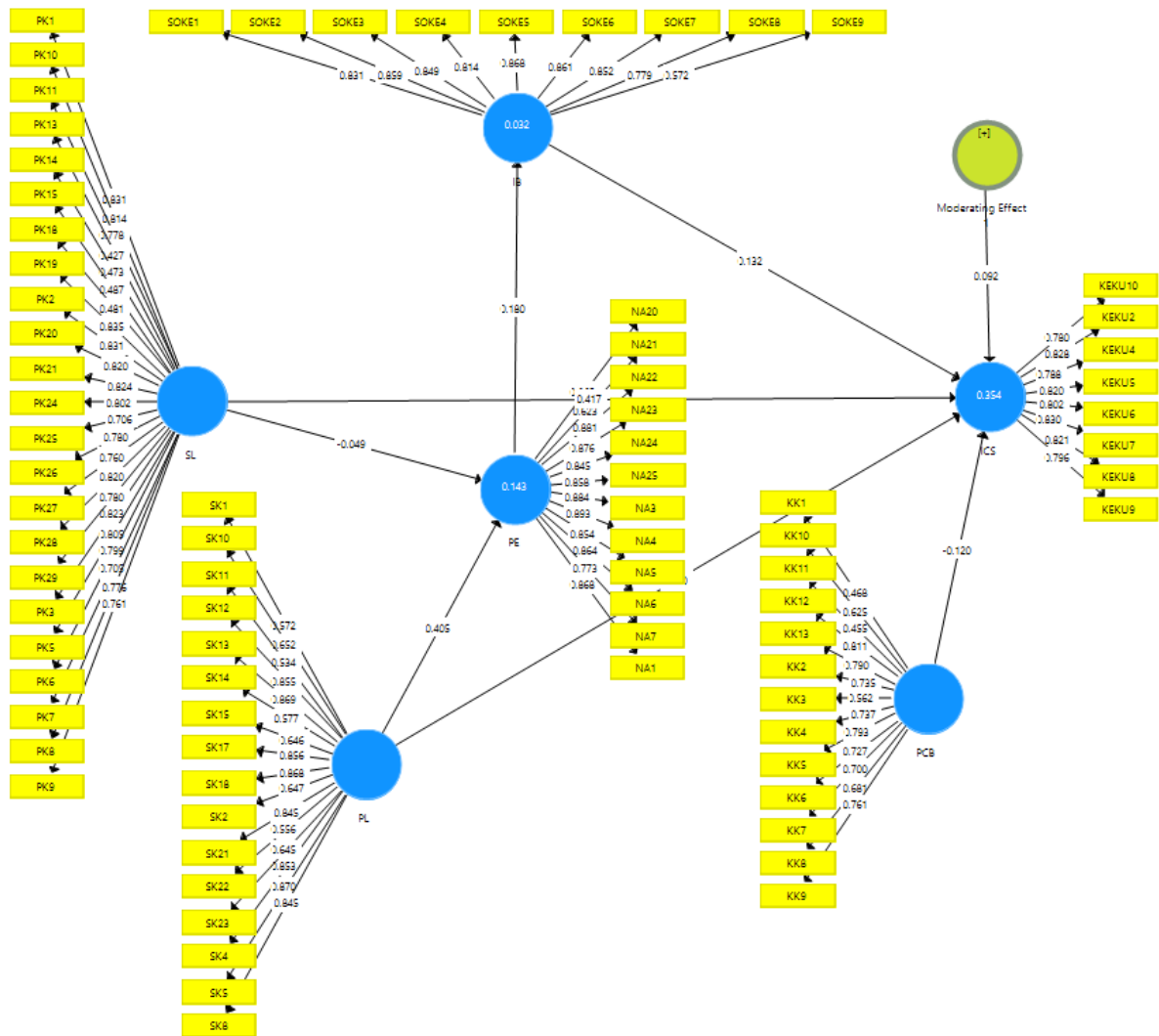
In this case, the items had a high degree of correlation since they were all caused by the same underlying structure ([Henseler et al., 2014](#); [MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005](#)). After the items were removed from the scale, the results of this investigation demonstrated that the internal consistency of all of the constructs was within an acceptable range. A total of 11 reflective latent constructs had CR values that varied from 0.731 to 0.952, which was higher than the suggested

cutoff value of 0.7. ([Joseph F Hair et al., 2010](#)). As a result, all structures demonstrated a high degree of internal consistency and dependability.

#### **4.6. Convergent Validity**

The AVE was calculated in order to establish the convergent validity of the sample. Convergent validity was shown in Table 5.4 by showing that the AVE values of all latent constructs were larger than the acceptable threshold of 0.5, with values ranging from 0.517 to 0.868, which was greater than the acceptable threshold of 0.5. If the AVE is larger than 0.5, then the latent concept is responsible for explaining more than half of the variation in its indicators.

This table summarizes the results of the measuring model. Using parameter estimates and statistical significance, the researcher found that all 10 main constructs, namely entrepreneurial orientation, communication and information sharing, compensation, job design, performance appraisal, selection, training, organizational innovation, managerial ties, and organizational performance, were valid measures of the respective constructs ([Chow & Chan, 2008](#)). So, the model constructions were found to be sufficiently valid in all directions.



*Table 6: Cross-Loading*

| Items | ICS          | PCB          | PE           | SL     | PL     | IB     |
|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------|--------|--------|
| ICS1  | <b>0.78</b>  | -0.172       | 0.116        | 0.488  | 0.404  | 0.367  |
| ICS2  | <b>0.828</b> | -0.124       | 0.176        | 0.446  | 0.343  | 0.362  |
| ICS3  | <b>0.788</b> | -0.169       | 0.163        | 0.455  | 0.393  | 0.341  |
| ICS4  | <b>0.82</b>  | -0.084       | 0.13         | 0.394  | 0.309  | 0.315  |
| ICS5  | <b>0.802</b> | -0.148       | 0.101        | 0.405  | 0.325  | 0.355  |
| ICS6  | <b>0.83</b>  | -0.168       | 0.145        | 0.44   | 0.337  | 0.358  |
| ICS7  | <b>0.821</b> | -0.136       | 0.158        | 0.39   | 0.279  | 0.323  |
| ICS8  | <b>0.796</b> | -0.101       | 0.147        | 0.48   | 0.371  | 0.345  |
| PCB1  | 0            | <b>0.468</b> | 0.07         | 0.007  | -0.04  | 0.042  |
| PCB2  | 0.007        | <b>0.625</b> | -0.002       | 0.023  | -0.044 | -0.08  |
| PCB3  | -0.005       | <b>0.455</b> | 0.054        | 0.001  | -0.048 | 0.039  |
| PCB4  | -0.173       | <b>0.811</b> | -0.001       | -0.08  | -0.132 | -0.12  |
| PCB5  | -0.085       | <b>0.79</b>  | -0.05        | 0.012  | -0.08  | -0.068 |
| PCB6  | -0.116       | <b>0.735</b> | -0.057       | -0.061 | -0.097 | -0.13  |
| PCB7  | -0.166       | <b>0.562</b> | -0.014       | 0.011  | -0.01  | -0.058 |
| PCB8  | -0.089       | <b>0.737</b> | 0.004        | -0.025 | -0.117 | -0.07  |
| PCB9  | -0.09        | <b>0.793</b> | -0.037       | 0.008  | -0.087 | -0.075 |
| PCB10 | -0.128       | <b>0.727</b> | -0.002       | -0.068 | -0.164 | -0.129 |
| PCB11 | -0.019       | <b>0.7</b>   | -0.016       | 0.052  | -0.06  | -0.047 |
| PCB12 | -0.067       | <b>0.681</b> | -0.01        | 0.02   | -0.044 | -0.048 |
| PCB13 | -0.136       | <b>0.761</b> | -0.031       | -0.065 | -0.114 | -0.029 |
| PE1   | 0.184        | 0.003        | <b>0.865</b> | 0.158  | 0.352  | 0.164  |
| PE2   | 0.237        | -0.106       | <b>0.623</b> | 0.198  | 0.3    | 0.264  |
| PE3   | 0.203        | -0.018       | <b>0.881</b> | 0.19   | 0.328  | 0.147  |
| PE4   | 0.123        | -0.035       | <b>0.876</b> | 0.161  | 0.327  | 0.139  |
| PE5   | 0.089        | -0.048       | <b>0.845</b> | 0.08   | 0.296  | 0.131  |
| PE6   | 0.099        | -0.019       | <b>0.858</b> | 0.13   | 0.299  | 0.103  |
| PE7   | 0.205        | -0.02        | <b>0.884</b> | 0.215  | 0.351  | 0.175  |
| PE8   | 0.127        | -0.019       | <b>0.893</b> | 0.167  | 0.337  | 0.149  |

| Items | ICS   | PCB    | PE           | SL           | PL           | IB    |
|-------|-------|--------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| PE9   | 0.1   | -0.054 | <b>0.854</b> | 0.075        | 0.299        | 0.12  |
| PE10  | 0.082 | 0.002  | <b>0.864</b> | 0.123        | 0.29         | 0.109 |
| PE11  | 0.085 | 0.051  | <b>0.773</b> | 0.142        | 0.233        | 0.123 |
| PE12  | 0.188 | 0.005  | <b>0.868</b> | 0.15         | 0.348        | 0.159 |
| SL1   | 0.48  | -0.055 | 0.123        | <b>0.831</b> | 0.416        | 0.375 |
| SL2   | 0.403 | -0.001 | 0.095        | <b>0.814</b> | 0.363        | 0.398 |
| SL3   | 0.311 | -0.04  | 0.061        | <b>0.778</b> | 0.369        | 0.358 |
| SL4   | 0.295 | -0.061 | 0.169        | <b>0.427</b> | 0.611        | 0.758 |
| SL5   | 0.395 | -0.033 | 0.09         | <b>0.473</b> | 0.447        | 0.647 |
| SL6   | 0.272 | -0.086 | 0.179        | <b>0.487</b> | 0.567        | 0.695 |
| SL7   | 0.256 | -0.073 | 0.169        | <b>0.481</b> | 0.556        | 0.686 |
| SL8   | 0.466 | -0.045 | 0.134        | <b>0.835</b> | 0.407        | 0.372 |
| SL9   | 0.457 | -0.015 | 0.149        | <b>0.831</b> | 0.435        | 0.383 |
| SL10  | 0.457 | -0.007 | 0.149        | <b>0.82</b>  | 0.428        | 0.371 |
| SL11  | 0.474 | -0.02  | 0.196        | <b>0.824</b> | 0.432        | 0.349 |
| SL12  | 0.452 | -0.012 | 0.123        | <b>0.802</b> | 0.451        | 0.376 |
| SL13  | 0.337 | -0.069 | 0.112        | <b>0.706</b> | 0.333        | 0.346 |
| SL14  | 0.397 | 0.012  | 0.129        | <b>0.78</b>  | 0.419        | 0.358 |
| SL15  | 0.411 | -0.099 | 0.177        | <b>0.76</b>  | 0.401        | 0.351 |
| SL16  | 0.405 | 0.002  | 0.095        | <b>0.82</b>  | 0.364        | 0.395 |
| SL17  | 0.317 | -0.032 | 0.067        | <b>0.78</b>  | 0.367        | 0.353 |
| SL18  | 0.472 | -0.025 | 0.179        | <b>0.823</b> | 0.442        | 0.351 |
| SL19  | 0.475 | 0.012  | 0.142        | <b>0.805</b> | 0.434        | 0.379 |
| SL20  | 0.456 | -0.011 | 0.122        | <b>0.799</b> | 0.446        | 0.369 |
| SL21  | 0.349 | -0.074 | 0.106        | <b>0.705</b> | 0.331        | 0.349 |
| SL22  | 0.4   | 0.001  | 0.125        | <b>0.776</b> | 0.419        | 0.365 |
| SL23  | 0.408 | -0.101 | 0.173        | <b>0.761</b> | 0.396        | 0.351 |
| PL1   | 0.186 | -0.043 | 0.156        | 0.354        | <b>0.572</b> | 0.628 |
| PL2   | 0.197 | -0.098 | 0.258        | 0.356        | <b>0.652</b> | 0.669 |
| PL3   | 0.166 | -0.106 | 0.248        | 0.355        | <b>0.534</b> | 0.602 |
| PL4   | 0.401 | -0.148 | 0.35         | 0.486        | <b>0.855</b> | 0.403 |

| Items | ICS   | PCB    | PE    | SL    | PL           | IB           |
|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| PL5   | 0.393 | -0.1   | 0.313 | 0.496 | <b>0.869</b> | 0.428        |
| PL6   | 0.181 | -0.035 | 0.158 | 0.361 | <b>0.577</b> | 0.624        |
| PL7   | 0.176 | -0.085 | 0.272 | 0.344 | <b>0.646</b> | 0.658        |
| PL8   | 0.405 | -0.141 | 0.347 | 0.491 | <b>0.856</b> | 0.397        |
| PL9   | 0.419 | -0.093 | 0.326 | 0.487 | <b>0.868</b> | 0.413        |
| PL10  | 0.185 | -0.106 | 0.27  | 0.339 | <b>0.647</b> | 0.67         |
| PL11  | 0.434 | -0.076 | 0.297 | 0.472 | <b>0.845</b> | 0.371        |
| PL12  | 0.165 | -0.07  | 0.114 | 0.343 | <b>0.556</b> | 0.633        |
| PL13  | 0.192 | -0.1   | 0.265 | 0.338 | <b>0.645</b> | 0.666        |
| PL14  | 0.405 | -0.141 | 0.333 | 0.487 | <b>0.853</b> | 0.395        |
| PL15  | 0.415 | -0.099 | 0.324 | 0.49  | <b>0.87</b>  | 0.417        |
| PL16  | 0.431 | -0.079 | 0.304 | 0.47  | <b>0.845</b> | 0.37         |
| IB1   | 0.345 | -0.088 | 0.147 | 0.405 | 0.523        | <b>0.831</b> |
| IB2   | 0.354 | -0.121 | 0.139 | 0.485 | 0.551        | <b>0.859</b> |
| IB3   | 0.332 | -0.127 | 0.158 | 0.446 | 0.517        | <b>0.849</b> |
| IB4   | 0.314 | -0.065 | 0.164 | 0.48  | 0.558        | <b>0.814</b> |
| IB5   | 0.324 | -0.093 | 0.198 | 0.475 | 0.554        | <b>0.868</b> |
| IB6   | 0.389 | -0.083 | 0.142 | 0.488 | 0.541        | <b>0.861</b> |
| IB7   | 0.426 | -0.097 | 0.145 | 0.468 | 0.52         | <b>0.852</b> |
| IB8   | 0.361 | -0.067 | 0.17  | 0.449 | 0.528        | <b>0.779</b> |
| IB9   | 0.276 | -0.094 | 0.029 | 0.305 | 0.265        | <b>0.572</b> |

#### 4.6.1. Discriminant Validity

Two metrics were used to determine discriminant validity in this study: cross-loadings and the Fornell–Larcker criteria. First, an investigation of the cross-loadings of the products was carried out. According to ([Joseph F Hair et al., 2010](#)) and ([Chin, 1998](#)), the standardized loading estimates should be 0.5 or higher, with 0.7 or higher being the preferred value (see Table 1). Items with very low loading values (below 0.4) should be removed from the database ([Joe F Hair et al., 2011](#); [Henseler et al., 2014](#)). Aside from that, all metrics of the construct should have a large amount of weight placed onto their respective constructs. As seen in Table 5.5, the outer loadings of the item were bigger than the cross-loadings of the other constructions, which were also more than 0.5 in

magnitude. As predicted, all indicators loaded onto their underlying constructs with high accuracy, indicating that there were no cross-loadings across indicators.

Second, the Fornell–Larcker criteria posit that a latent construct has more variance with its own indicators than it does with any other latent construct in the structural model, and that this is true ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981a](#)). According to this criterion, the squared root of the AVE (represented by the values in the diagonal) should be computed and should be larger than each of the construct correlations (represented by the values in the off-diagonal) obtained and reported ([Henseler et al., 2014](#)). Table 5.6 illustrates discriminant validity for first-order constructs, whereas Table 5.7 illustrates discriminant validity for second-order constructs. These two tables show that the square root of each AVE value was much higher than the average of all other correlation values among the latent variables, demonstrating that various constructs utilized in the model were associated with separate entities. In summary, the measuring model demonstrated strong discriminant validity among the constructs it measured.

**Table 7: HTMT Ratio**

|     | IB    | ICS   | PCB   | PE    | PL    | SL |
|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| IB  |       |       |       |       |       |    |
| ICS | 0.458 |       |       |       |       |    |
| PCB | 0.12  | 0.138 |       |       |       |    |
| PE  | 0.185 | 0.181 | 0.064 |       |       |    |
| PL  | 0.737 | 0.42  | 0.126 | 0.375 |       |    |
| SL  | 0.605 | 0.568 | 0.085 | 0.186 | 0.603 |    |

#### 4.7.Measurement Model

**Table 8: Direct Effect**

|     | Relationship                   | Beta   | (STDEV) | t statistics | p-values | Status            |
|-----|--------------------------------|--------|---------|--------------|----------|-------------------|
| H01 | IB -> ICS                      | 0.132  | 0.08    | 1.661        | 0.049    | Supporting        |
| H02 | PE -> IB                       | 0.18   | 0.062   | 2.923        | 0.002    | Supporting        |
| H03 | PL -> ICS                      | 0.09   | 0.089   | 1.002        | 0.159    | Not<br>Supporting |
| H04 | PL -> PE                       | 0.405  | 0.065   | 6.241        | 0        | Supporting        |
| H05 | SL -> ICS                      | 0.417  | 0.068   | 6.159        | 0        | Supporting        |
| H06 | SL -> PE                       | -0.049 | 0.072   | 0.691        | 0.245    | Not<br>Supporting |
| H07 | Moderating Effect 1 -<br>> ICS | 0.092  | 0.049   | 1.87         | 0.031    | Supporting        |

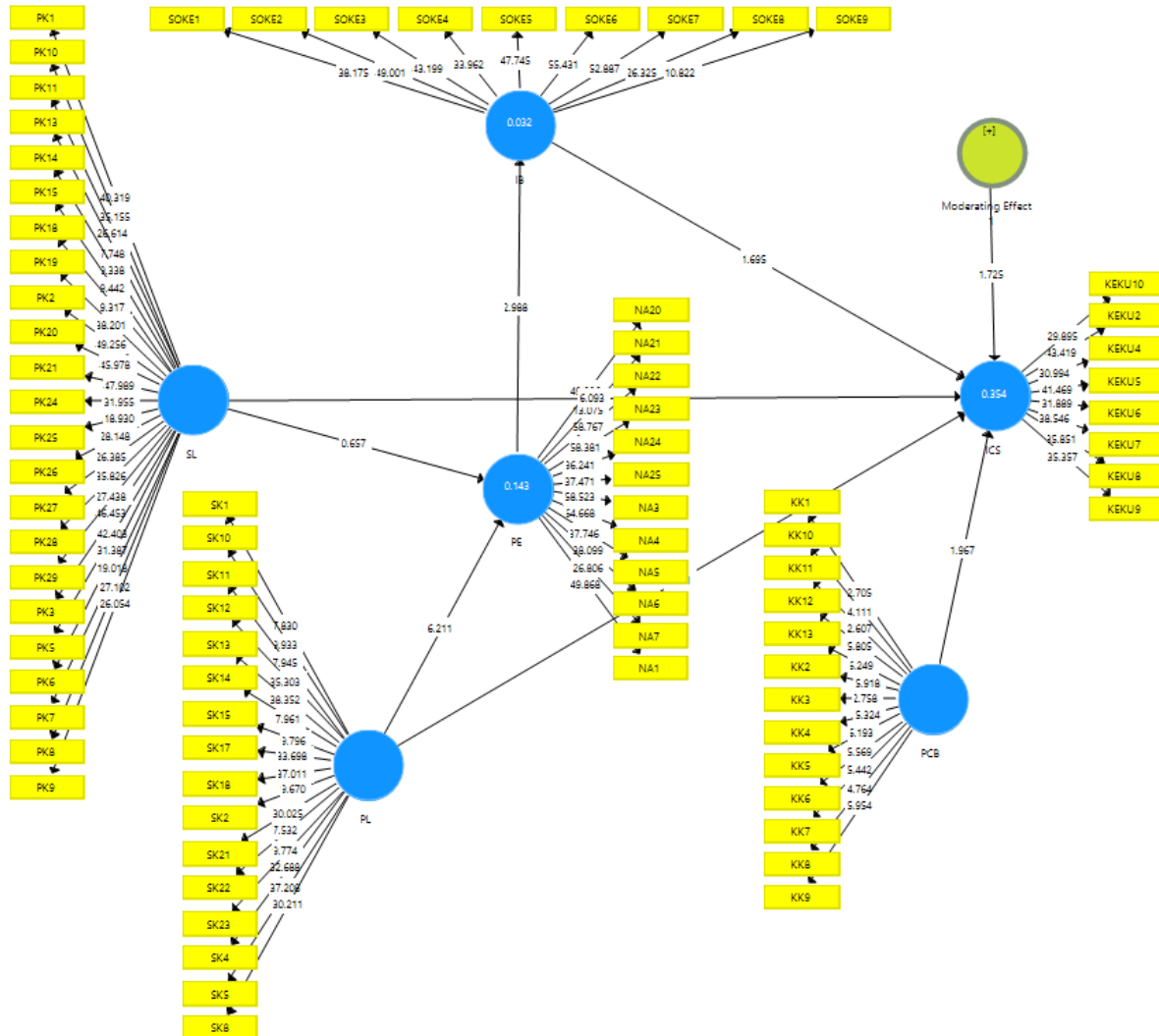
**H<sub>01</sub>: There is a significant impact of perceived intrapreneurial behavior on intrapreneurial career success**

According to Table x, there is a positive and significant relationship between intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in intrapreneurial behavior, then intrapreneurial career behavior ( $b=0.132$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.132 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.

**H<sub>02</sub>: There is a significant impact of psychological empowerment on intrapreneurial career success**

Furthermore, there is a positive and significant relationship between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in psychological empowerment, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.18$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.18 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.

**H03: There is a significant impact of PL on intrapreneurial career success**



There is a positive relationship between PL and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in PL, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.09$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) increases by 0.18 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is an insignificant relationship.

**H04: There is a significant impact of PL on psychological empowerment**

There is a positive and significant relationship between PL and physiological empowerment. If there is a one unit increase in PL, then physiological empowerment

( $b=0.405$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.405 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.

**H<sub>05</sub>: There is a significant impact of servant leadership on intrapreneurial career success**

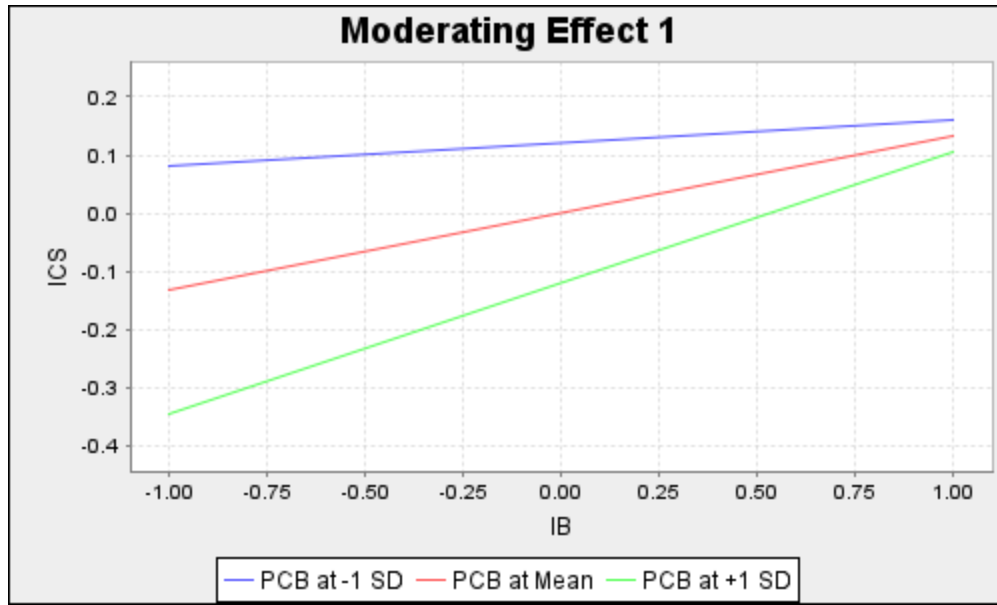
There is a positive and significant relationship between servant leadership and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in servant leadership, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.417$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.417 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.

**H<sub>06</sub>: There is a significant impact of servant leadership on psychological empowerment**

There is negative and significant relationship between servant leadership and physiological empowerment. If there is a one unit increase in servant leadership, then physiological empowerment ( $b=-0.417$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.417 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.

**H<sub>07</sub>: There is a significant moderating role of proactive career behavior on the relation between intrapreneurial career success and servant leadership**

There is a positive and significant moderating role of proactive career behavior on the relation between servant leadership and intrapreneurial career success. According to the result, the moderating variable significantly strengthens intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.092$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship.



**Figure 3: Moderating Effect**

#### 4.8. Mediation Analysis

**Table 9: Indirect Effects**

|                  |                       | Beta   | (STDEV) | t statistics | p-values | Status        |
|------------------|-----------------------|--------|---------|--------------|----------|---------------|
| H08              | PL -> PE -> IB        | 0.073  | 0.033   | 2.228        | 0.013    | Supported     |
| H09              | PE -> IB -> ICS       | 0.024  | 0.018   | 1.338        | 0.091    | Supported     |
| H10              | SL -> PE -> IB        | -0.009 | 0.014   | 0.656        | 0.256    | Not Supported |
| Serial Mediation |                       |        |         |              |          |               |
| H11              | SL -> PE -> IB -> ICS | -0.001 | 0.002   | 0.555        | 0.29     | Not Supported |
| H12              | PL -> PE -> IB -> ICS | 0.01   | 0.008   | 1.178        | 0.12     | Supported     |

**H<sub>08</sub>:** There is a significant mediating role of PE in the relation between PL style and intrapreneurial behavior

Table x shows that PE significantly mediates the relation between PL and intrapreneurial behavior. The value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=0.073$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

**H<sub>09</sub>:** There is a significant mediating role of intrapreneurial behavior in the relation between PE and intrapreneurial career success

Table x shows that intrapreneurial behavior significantly mediates the relation between PE and intrapreneurial career success. Additionally, the value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=0.073$   $p<0.05$ ) there positive and significant role of mediation.

**H<sub>10</sub>: There is a significant mediating role of PE in the relation between perceived servant leadership style and intrapreneurial behavior**

Table x shows that PE insignificantly mediates the relation between servant leadership and intrapreneurial behavior. Additionally, the value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=-0.009$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) there negative and insignificant role of mediation.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Discussion, Conclusion, Implication, and Limitation**

#### **5. Discussion**

I wanted to see if we could add another dimension to the previously recognized factors of job success, so I conducted this study to find out if we could. A quantitative study of university employees was conducted to investigate these subjects and determine their importance in terms of future career success. This study also looked at the four implicit assumptions supplied by ([Heslin, 2005](#)) in order to get a better understanding of the factors that contribute to professional success.

In the past, career researchers conducted substantial studies on workers' career success, based on the distinction between objective and subjective career success that was supplied by employees ([E. C. Hughes, 1937](#)). According to the literature on professional success, the focus has traditionally been on objective measures of career success and the components that contribute to it ([Arthur et al., 2005](#); [Heslin, 2005](#); [Judge et al., 1999](#)). Traditionally, factors such as income, social standing, and promotions were considered to be the most important indicators of career success, and career scholars have focused their efforts on identifying predictors of objective career success ([Seibert et al., 2001](#)). Those studying professional achievement pay less attention to the subjective aspects of success ([Heslin, 2005](#)). When we make an effort to provide a response to the research questions, we may deduce that there are no extra dimensions to work performance that are distinct from objective and subjective measures of career achievement. There were no new aspects discovered as a result of the interviews and results, with the exception of one: when the interviewers spoke about professional success criteria, which did not reveal any new aspects other than the ones already mentioned.

The traditional characteristics that have been revealed are unquestionably indicators of work performance and are acknowledged as such. Because every one of the new career success elements has either a subjective or an objective point of view when it comes down to the workers' evaluation of the aspect, even after the new career success elements have been researched and examined, they either cannot be placed under a new dimension of career success as well. When comparing the two groups

of profit and non-profit employees, the findings reveal that profit employees have a more objective focus on career success than non-profit employees and value job outcomes such as salary, promotion, and status more than non-profit employees; however, when examining the differences between the two groups on an individual level, the differences are relatively small. The objective career success characteristics revealed the greatest differences between profit workers and non-profit employees in terms of the aspects of status for which they were considered to be successful. There are no differences to be found in the subjective aspects of career success; both groups mentioned all of the aspects and rated them all in the same hierarchical order, leading us to the conclusion that while profit and non-profit employees differ in their objective/subjective focus, they both find almost the same aspects important when evaluating their own career success, which is consistent with the findings of the previous study.

### **5.1. Conclusion**

According to Table x, there is a positive and significant relationship between intrapreneurial behavior and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in intrapreneurial behavior, then intrapreneurial career behavior ( $b=0.132$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.132 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. Furthermore, there is a positive and significant relationship between psychological empowerment and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in psychological empowerment, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.18$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.18 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. There is a positive relationship between PL and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in PL, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.09$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) increases by 0.18 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is an insignificant relationship. There is a positive and significant relationship between PL and physiological empowerment. If there is a one unit increase in PL, then physiological empowerment ( $b=0.405$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.405 units and the sign

indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. There is a positive and significant relationship between servant leadership and intrapreneurial career success. If there is a one unit increase in servant leadership, then intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.417$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.417 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. There is negative and significant relationship between servant leadership and physiological empowerment. If there is a one unit increase in servant leadership, then physiological empowerment ( $b=-0.417$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) increases by 0.417 units and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. There is a positive and significant moderating role of proactive career behavior on the relation between servant leadership and intrapreneurial career success. According to the result, the moderating variable significantly strengthens intrapreneurial career success ( $b=0.092$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and the sign indicated that there is a positive relationship between these variables. The  $p$ -value indicated that there is a significant relationship. Table x shows that PE significantly mediates the relation between PL and intrapreneurial behavior. The value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=0.073$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Table x shows that intrapreneurial behavior significantly mediates the relation between PE and intrapreneurial career success. Additionally, the value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=0.073$   $p<0.05$ ) there positive and significant role of mediation. Table x shows that PE insignificantly mediates the relation between servant leadership and intrapreneurial behavior. Additionally, the value of coefficient indicated that ( $b=-0.009$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) there negative and insignificant role of mediation.

## 5.2.Theoretical implications

The findings of this study also demonstrate that the four implicit assumptions that career researchers have held about the nature of career success have actually hampered and confined our understanding of the nature of career success, according to the researchers. The results indicated that the measures of objective career success that have been used up to this point are not the only appropriate indicators of

objective career success in this situation. Their job performance and status, according to the respondents, are also important factors in their assessment of objective professional success. According to the interviewees, their money was the least meaningful indicator of objective professional achievement. Aside from that, the measures of job and career satisfaction that have been used up to now for subjective career success do not seem to reflect the whole range of factors that influence subjective career success. Employees who participated in the survey also said that their work–life balance and employment security are important indicators of their subjective professional success. However, the importance of work–life balance and employment stability was shown to be significantly dependent on the family circumstances of the interviewee, with the importance of these factors being more significant when the interviewee was in a relationship or had children. Aside from that, job pleasure was identified as the most important indicator of professional success by the interviewees throughout the process. Finally, the findings show that 65% of the respondents do not only evaluate their own achievements, but rather prefer to compare their own professional success with the professional success of others when evaluating their own performance. It will be discussed in further depth in the next section about the theoretical implications, limitations, and practical repercussions of this work.

First and foremost, the outcomes of this study reveal that while evaluating their own professional performance, professionals take into account both the objective and subjective areas of success. Traditional research has usually concentrated on the objective realm of professional accomplishment rather than the subjective area of success ([Arthur et al., 2005](#); [Heslin, 2005](#); [Judge et al., 1999](#)). When it comes to objective career success, income and the number of promotions received are the most important factors to consider, but subjective career success is defined by the employee's satisfaction with their work and their career ([Arthur et al., 2005](#); [Seibert & Kraimer, 2001](#)). Specifically, the findings of this study revealed that there is a lack of understanding about the nature of both types of career success, and that in future studies, career success should be measured by taking into consideration more indicators, such as job performance and status (objective career success), as well as work–life balance and job security (subjective career success). Additionally,

according to the figures, job satisfaction is the most often mentioned issue by workers across the board. It is clear that there has been a considerable shift in how people perceive work success today in comparison to previous generations, especially when examining the two aspects of employment success. As the line between work and personal life gets more blurred, the subjective part of achievement becomes increasingly important to achieving long-term success. As a result, future studies should investigate professional success from both an objective and subjective standpoint, and they should take into consideration all of the criteria highlighted in this research.

Once again, the findings of this study demonstrated that the importance of work–life balance and job security is highly dependent on the personal circumstances of people who took part in the survey, such as whether or not they are married or whether they are the parents of young children. Changing conditions in the labor market have an influence on the workforce, in addition to economic developments. For example, in the past, it was more common for an employee to stay with a firm for a lengthy period of time, such as 10 to 20 years, before leaving. It is becoming more common for people to switch occupations from one organization to another in today's society. Workers these days tend to stay with a firm for a shorter period of time and do not receive a permanent contract, which is indicative of professions with fewer boundaries to their job. Thus, the relevance of certain criteria in professional success is changing, as seen by this trend. It is no longer the case that things like job stability, performance, and professional advancement are as valuable to an employee as they were 20 years ago, or that a person secures a permanent contract ([Engelen et al., 2015](#)). It is becoming more common for people to engage in modern working practices, such as working from home or part-time employment, and having flexible workplaces. These practices indicate that the line between work and life is becoming more blurred, and that work will become more entangled with our personal lives. Future study should take into account the personal circumstances and work environment of employees when assessing their level of success in their careers. As a result, despite the assumption in previous research that employees evaluate their own professional development using self-referent criteria, the findings of this study demonstrate that employees have a strong proclivity to compare their own

professional development with the professional development of others. Researchers should consider other-referent factors of career success in working contexts that emphasize objective components of career success (such as profit organizations), which are easily comparable across employees.

### **5.3. Practical implications**

An increasing number of studies, such as those conducted by ([Ostroff, 1992](#)) and ([Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001](#)), have demonstrated that having satisfied employees has a number of benefits for a company, including improved performance, reduced turnover rates, and increased worker engagement. When rewarding employees, human resource professionals may guarantee that their employees are satisfied by taking the perspective of their employees' career progress into consideration. It has been shown that employees who are just starting out in their careers and working for a profit organization are the most satisfied when they are promoted as a result of their job performance and achievements. The ability to achieve a good balance between their professional and personal lives would be most satisfying for employees in their later career stages who have families to care for, such as by having the option to work from home at times that are convenient for them.

### **5.4. Limitation**

We need to address at least some issues that were raised as limitations of this research. In the first instance, two raters, one of whom was the researcher, worked together to code the questionnaire. In spite of the researcher's best efforts, coding of the questionnaire may have been influenced by the researcher's assumptions of how the questionnaire would turn out. Because of their intimate connection with the respondents, the respondents may have responded to the questions in a manner that is socially acceptable. This might be shown, for example, by the results that money is the least important predictor of objective career success, but work satisfaction is the most significant predictor of objective career success. Despite the fact that there were 20 respondents who took part in the questionnaire, there were only four

respondents who were older than 45 years and they were the only respondents who had children in their household. The average age of the respondents was 32 years, and the majority were just starting out in their jobs. This might have had an impact on the responses of the respondents, particularly when it came to the relevance of markers of professional success such as promotion, work–life balance, and job stability. Moreover, because of this, it is difficult to extrapolate the findings of this research to older workers or employees at a different point in their careers. Another factor to consider is the inexperience of the respondents while conducting questionnaire with workers, which may result in questions not being asked or understood correctly.

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