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INFLUENCE OF LEVELS OF LEADERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION, WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND EMPOWERMENT

by

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DISSERTATION

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Qualified employees are one of the most important assets an organization can acquire. Unfortunately, organizations in many industries are struggling to find and retain qualified employees (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2012). There is a popular belief that employees leave managers, not organizations (Tate & White, 2005). This belief is echoed in many research findings. Researchers have identified immediate supervisor support to be one of the major sources of employee satisfaction (Jones, Kantak, Futrell, & Johnston, 1996; Medley & Larochelle, 1995). Moreover, perceived supervisor support plays an important role in many organizational outcomes including such a costly business matter as employee turnover (Mobley, 1982; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007). This has several implications on how both organizations and researchers think about manager-employee relationships. Organizations structure management training programs around the importance of supportive relationships between managers and employees, while researchers investigate the effects of manager employee relationship on employee satisfaction and engagement, customer satisfaction, productivity, profit, employee turnover, and accidents (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

King (1990), in his review of the evolutions of leadership theory, stipulates that the last hundred years of leadership research have not been able to solve the mystery of leadership and have failed to develop practical applications of the knowledge at hand. In his opinion, a new era of leadership research can avoid the same fate only if researchers acknowledge that leadership is a complex phenomenon that requires an integrative approach where new variables are evaluated in relationship to well understood linkages. His concerns are echoed by others. Hunter, Bedell-Avers, and Mumford (2007) evaluated leadership studies published in the last ten years and expressed concern over theory-based assumptions and methodology. Drath et al. (2008) urge

researchers to reevaluate current leadership ontology by incorporating the changing nature of work with less hierarchical organizational structures and more collaborative work environments. Some of the concerns are still relevant 25 years later. Dionne et al. (2014) in their "25-year Perspective on Levels of Analysis in Leadership Research" state that although as a whole leadership research is adopting more multi-level approaches in recent years, there is not enough information on how different levels of leadership influence organizational outcomes. As organizational structures become more and more complex, the influence of leaders at multi-levels should be further examined (Dionne et al., 2014). Similarly, Dinh et al. (2014) encourage researchers to continue to view leadership as a dynamic process that occurs at multiple levels, is influenced by a variety of moderating and mediating concepts, and continues over time.

The present study will follow the recommendations outlined above to re-examine well-established links between immediate supervisor support and employee job satisfaction, while adding senior leader support as a "variable of interest." It will further examine how senior leader support contributes to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction at different levels in the organization. Job satisfaction, as a measure of attitude towards one's job, is considered to be one of the most reliable predictors of employee turnover (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010), and is one of the most researched concepts in Industrial Organizational (I/O) Psychology (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). Past research suggests that leaders have a great deal of influence over employees' perceptions of job satisfaction (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Lok & Crawford, 2003; Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). The general conclusion is that people who are happy with their jobs are better at performing and producing results than people who are dissatisfied with their jobs (Yücel, 2012). Satisfied employees are also less likely to leave to seek employment elsewhere

(Saari & Judge, 2004). Organizations put a lot of effort into addressing employees' needs and looking for ways to increase employees' job satisfaction as a way to reduce turnover.

As important as it is, however, immediate supervisor support may not be the only leadership factor that influences employees' job satisfaction. When researchers consider other sources of support that influences employee's well-being in the work place, they often examine peer support or organizational support. For example, organizational support was found to be more impactful on employee satisfaction and decision to stay than immediate supervisor support (Gentry, Cullen, Deal, & Stawiski, 2013).

The majority of leadership research is concentrated around immediate supervisor's influence over their followers' behavior and it ignores the influence of different levels of leadership (O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, Lapiz, & Self, 2010). Limited numbers of studies have investigated what role levels of leadership play in employees' work attitudes (Borgogni, Russo, & Latham, 2011). Researchers who have investigated the impact of both immediate supervisors and senior leaders have found support for the importance of investigating levels of leadership and their impact on employees' job attitudes (Basford, Offermann, & Wirtz, 2012; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001). Findings suggest that an employee's perception of the executive leadership team's character and ability to lead the organization may have greater impact on their feelings of satisfaction and decision to continue employment in the organization than their immediate supervisor. I aim to extend the existing knowledge by investigating the way different levels of leadership contribute to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction.

Additionally, the well-established link between immediate supervisor support and employee perceptions of work-life balance and empowerment will be examined and compared to senior leadership influence on work-life balance and empowerment. Specifically, the present

research is interested in furthering knowledge about the way senior leadership support affects employees' perceptions of work-life balance and empowerment above and beyond immediate supervisors. Work-life balance is an important concept that organizations need to keep in mind when creating retention strategies (Forsyth & Polzer-Debruyne, 2007). Organizations that offer "family friendly policies" enjoy lower turnover rates and higher employee satisfaction. Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) identify that work-life balance is beneficial for both employee and organizational effectiveness, and recommend that human resources incorporate work-life balance policies in their talent management practices.

Besides the presence of such practices, employees' active participation in such practices is important. Managerial support has been found to greatly influence whether employees' taking advantage of such polices (Julien, Somerville & Culp, 2011; Maxwell, 2005; Voydanoff, 2004). While there is plenty of evidence to suggest immediate supervisor support influences employee's work-life balance, research around the influence of senior leadership support is limited. The only study that investigated senior leadership influence on work-life balance practices was conducted by Julien et al. (2011). They found a strong linear relationship between both immediate supervisor and senior leadership support of flexible work arrangements, and employee's reported ability to balance work-family demands (Julien et al., 2011). The present research aims to further investigate this phenomenon by evaluating how different levels of leadership influence employees' perceptions of work-life balance.

Empowerment is yet another concept that has been found to contribute to a variety of positive work-place outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). Additionally, it is negatively related to turnover intentions (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and employee strain (Spector, 1986). Leaders greatly

influence employee's perceptions of empowerment (Wallach & Meuller, 2006), and leaders who empower their subordinates improve perceptions of fairness (Keller & Dansereau, 1995), team innovation (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Teams with empowering leaders exhibit higher levels of team efficacy and knowledge sharing, and consequently, higher levels of performance (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006).

Transformational leaders who show consideration tend to inspire employees and increase their feeling of empowerment (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003). Leaders who are themselves empowered by their own leaders show positive results by engaging in new change initiatives (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996). Finally, Ugboro and Obeng (2000) found that top level leadership also impacts employee perceptions of empowerment.

These findings together suggest leadership is an important contributor to employees' perceptions of empowerment, though additional investigation is warranted. Further, I will investigate whether senior leadership has a greater influence on employees' perceptions of empowerment than does leadership coming from one's immediate supervisor. Findings will be evaluated for employees of different occupational status in the organization, namely: individual contributors, managers, and upper management. Previous research indicates there are differences in the way individual contributors and managers view organizational support (O'Reilly et al., 2010) and senior leadership support (Basford et al., 2012).

The results of this research are beneficial for both applied and research audiences as it emphasizes the importance of leadership behaviors at all levels on employee work attitudes. First, theory and research on well-established links between leadership, work-life balance, empowerment and job satisfaction will be reviewed. Next, I will cover what is known about senior leader influence on work outcomes and I will identify the gaps in research that the present study

aims to explore. Last, recommendations for how the findings of this research can be applied in both organizational and research settings will be provided.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Job Satisfaction

There are many definitions of job satisfaction. However, the term is often conceptualized as a broad concept and used to represent overall evaluations of one's affective job experiences and beliefs about their jobs (Spector, 1997). Locke (1976) describes job satisfaction as a positive emotional reaction resulting from perceiving one's job as satisfying. Job satisfaction has also been conceptualized as an attitude or a positive evaluation an employee makes about their job (Weiss, 2002). Judge, Hulin, and Dalal (2012) describe job satisfaction as a multidimensional psychological reaction to the job that includes both cognitive and affective components. Alavi and Askaripur (2003) define job satisfaction as a spiritual and mental sense of gratification derived from fulfilling interests and needs in the workplace. Although there are numerous definitions of job satisfaction, it is clear that the term is used to describe employees' perceptions about their jobs and serves as an indicator of their contentment with their job situation.

Job satisfaction is linked to several work outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995), absenteeism (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes, & Van Dick, 2007), turnover (Saari & Judge, 2004) and counter-productive work behaviors (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). The general agreement in the literature is that it is better to have satisfied than dissatisfied employees since higher levels of job satisfaction leads to increased creativity, customer satisfaction, productivity, employee commitment, and reduced turnover (Bulgarella, 2005; Harter et al., 2002). The importance of job satisfaction is recognized by many organizations as well. Many organizations measure their employees' perceptions about their jobs using employee attitude surveys. Judge et al. (2012) indicate job satisfaction is the most important information organizations can collect to predict work-related outcomes. Because of its influence on employee

related work outcomes, job satisfaction is one of the most-researched concepts in organizational psychology (Dormann & Zapf, 2001).

The most compelling reason to investigate job satisfaction is its link to turnover intentions, and consequently turnover. Many researchers have documented job satisfaction as an important antecedent to turnover intentions (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001; Sturges & Guest, 2001), with some researchers identifying job satisfaction as one of the most important predictors of turnover (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). In their longitudinal study of US Marine Corps enlistees, Youngblood, Mobely, and Meglino (1983) indicate that job satisfaction predicts turnover over time. Singh and Loncar (2010) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction, pay, and turnover using a sample of 200 registered nurses. They found job satisfaction to influence turnover intent more than satisfaction with pay, suggesting that monetary compensation alone is not enough to prevent an employee from leaving the organization. Lambert, Hogan, and Barton (2001) examined turnover and how it can be predicted from work environment and job satisfaction. The work environment was operationalized as a composite of task variety, role conflict, financial rewards, co-worker relationship, and job autonomy. They concluded that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between work environment and turnover intent.

Since job satisfaction leads to many important organizational outcomes it is imperative to investigate antecedents of job satisfaction. There are three factors that contribute to an employee's feelings of satisfaction: individual characteristics, job-related factors and organizational factors (Bretz, Boudreau, & Judge, 1994). Individual characteristics that may potentially influence job satisfaction include factors such as gender, age, education, and personality (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Gender is found to be an important contributor to job satisfaction with females reporting higher levels of job satisfaction than males (Bedeian et al.,

1992). Age is found to have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction, employees are most satisfied at the beginning and at the end of their career (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996). Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, and Abraham (1989) studied monozygotic twins to investigate the genetic component of job satisfaction. They found genetics to account for 30% of the variance in job satisfaction, therefore, establishing the link between job satisfaction and dispositional characteristics. Judge and Bono (2001) found that self-esteem (.26), generalized self-efficacy (.45), internal locus of control (.32), and emotional stability (.24) correlate with job satisfaction providing support for moderately strong relationships between personality traits and job satisfaction. Judge et al. (2002) report a multiple correlation of .41 between the 5-factor model of personality and overall perceptions of job satisfaction, providing further support for the influence of individual disposition on job satisfaction ratings

Hackman and Oldham (1980) in their job characteristics theory specify job characteristics like task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback. Job characteristics such as skill variety (number of activities required to perform the job) and task significance (the impact of this job on others' welfare) also influence employees' job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In the comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by Loher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985), job characteristics were moderately correlated with job satisfaction (.39), with task identity being the lowest at .32 and autonomy being the highest at .46. In their study of expatriate sales personnel, Bhuian and Mengue (2002) found job characteristics to positively influence job satisfaction with task identity, autonomy, and feedback having the most impact. Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, and Schwartz (1997) suggest that each individual's job satisfaction is greatly influenced by the way they view their occupation. They classify people's attitude towards their work as "job" (something we do to pay bills), "career" (something you do to get ahead in life), and

"calling" (something you do for yourself and others). They discovered people who described their job as a "calling" reported the highest level of both job and life satisfaction. This supports the notion that the job itself can be an important contributor to job satisfaction and this will be further investigated in the present study.

Organizational factors are also found to contribute to employees' feelings of satisfaction. The Employee Job Satisfaction Report (2009) conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) identifies organizational factors such as job security, benefits, compensation and pay, career development, and employee relationship with management to greatly impact employee job satisfaction. Govender (2011), in his investigation of managers at the State Owned Enterprise, found inspirational leadership, equitable rewards, facilitative work environment, work-life balance, and work itself to contribute to manager's job satisfaction ratings. Similarly, Kossek, and Ozeki (1998) provide evidence for a strong negative relationship between work-family conflict (WFC) and job-life satisfaction. Leadership is another organizational factor that has a strong link to employee job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2003; Skogstad et al., 2015). Particularly, organizations which promote better leadership practices, encourage open communication, and offer rewards, are more likely to have satisfied employees resulting in successful organizations (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). The role of a leader on employees' levels of job satisfaction will be further investigated in the present study.

As the "war for talent" continues, many organizations are concerned with retaining their key talent (Allen et al., 2010). Job satisfaction is a crucial antecedent of turnover and therefore, further investigation into the way organizations can increase their employees' satisfaction is warranted.

Immediate Supervisor Support, Senior Management Support, and Job Satisfaction

"People don't leave organizations, they leave managers" - is something we often hear from HR professionals and leader development consultants (Savage, 2014; Tate & White, 2005). The same message, reiterated in books and leadership blogs, has become somewhat of an "axiom" and is accepted as a fact by some HR professionals. Such opinion comes as no surprise since there is widespread support for the influence of leadership on employee attitudes in the literature. For example, there is a strong link between manager effectiveness and job satisfaction (Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Graen, 1976; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Lok & Crawford, 2003), commitment (Lee, 2004; Lok & Crawford, 2003), turnover (DeConinck, & Johnson, 2009; Jones, Kantak, Futrell, & Johnston, 1996), and employee burnout (Leary et al., 2013). The common assumption is that a supportive immediate supervisor can compensate for negative organizational effects and alleviate stress related to employee-organization interaction, while unsupportive and uncaring leaders can inspire an employee to leave the organization (Maertz et al., 2007).

There is ample evidence that the leadership styles and behaviors of immediate supervisors greatly contributes to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction (Jones et al., 1996; Medley & Larochelle, 1995). For example, participative management style together with effective communication leads to elevated levels of job satisfaction (Kim, 2002), and the same has been shown for transformational and transactional leadership styles (Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997). Moreover, transformational leadership style improves job satisfaction at both individual and team levels (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013). The link between leadership style and job satisfaction also holds across cultures (Lok & Crawford, 2003). A study of Hong Kong and Australian managers revealed that consideration leadership style increases perceptions of job

satisfaction and commitment, while initiating structure leadership style decreases perceptions of job satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2003).

Similarly, the leadership behaviors of immediate supervisors have been found to affect employee satisfaction. For example, person-oriented behaviors contribute more to an increase in job satisfaction than task-oriented behaviors (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). Leaders who exhibit transformation leadership behaviors, like taking the time to clarify employee roles and show consideration for the individual, improve employee perceptions of job satisfaction (Jones et al., 1996), while laissez-faire and tyrannical leadership behaviors decrease levels of satisfaction (Skogstad et al., 2015). Research on the dark side of leadership yielded similar results. Leary et al. (2013) investigated dysfunctional leadership characteristics and how they influence job satisfaction, employee engagement, and burnout. The results revealed that passive aggressive disposition (failed commitments, unclear role expectations, and scarce communication) has a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction. One of the unexpected findings of the study was covert dysfunctional characteristics (passive aggression and deceptive behavior) influenced employee job satisfaction and burnout more negatively than overt dysfunctional characteristics (aggression, arrogance, and micromanagement) (Leary et al., 2013).

The link between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction was supported further by longitudinal research. Jokisaari and Nurmi (2009) found perceived supervisor support to influence socialization outcomes such as role clarity, job satisfaction, mastery, and pay. They found that a decline in perceived supervisor support leads to a steady decline in job satisfaction, role clarity, and lower compensation rates over time. Cross-cultural research shows similar trends. A study of registered nurses and their managers in Singapore found 29% of variance in job satisfaction could be explained by five leadership behaviors identified by Kouzes and Posner (1995): challenging the

process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Thus, similar to previous findings, immediate supervisor support is estimated to be positively related to job satisfaction.

While the link between immediate supervisor and employee perceptions has been well established, the link between senior leadership support and employee perceptions of job satisfaction is less researched (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). The influence of top leaders in organizations and their impact on organizational performance and employee attitudes are still not clear (Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001). Lewin and Stephens (1994) believe CEOs have the ability to shape organizations, and attributed variation in organization design and operation to individual attitudinal differences of CEOs. Berson, Oreg, and Dvir (2008) make a strong case for CEOs' values shaping organizational culture, and therefore influencing organizational outcomes. While a direct relationship between employee perceptions of CEO charisma and work outcomes has been identified (Huang, Cheng, & Chou, 2005), charisma of the CEO and visionary transformational leaders are not enough to fully explain the success of all organizations (Yukl, 1999). Other research has found charisma to be an important factor in a company's success but only in ambiguous and risky situations (Waldman et al., 2001). Moreover, there are a number of successful organizations that do not have a dynamic visionary CEOs, and there are also many organizations that fail in spite of charismatic CEOs being in charge (Collins, 2001; Finkelstein, 2003).

Several studies have evaluated upper leadership echelons in relationship to employee and organizational outcomes. Ugboro and Obeng (2000) examined top management teams who introduced total quality management (TQM) initiatives in different industries. Researchers found employee empowerment and job satisfaction scores go up when top management is perceived as

being committed to the culture change and implements TQM in their organizations. Top management's consistent communication of the vision, establishment of the policies supporting TQM practices, distribution of rewards for quality-enhancing behaviors, and allocation of resources towards implementation and sustainability of the program positively correlated with employee job satisfaction (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). Similarly, Ellis, and Shockley-Zalabak (2001) found trust in top management to be more strongly linked to employee satisfaction and perceived organizational effectiveness than immediate supervisor support. More recent research has echoed their findings, revealing senior management support to have more impact on employees' motivation to do extra work and turnover intentions than immediate supervisors (Basford et al., 2012). Similarly, the Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement Survey of 600 U.S. employees conducted by SHRM (2014) rated trust between employees and senior management as number two on the list of factors most contributing to employees' satisfaction with "respectful treatment of all employees at all levels" being number one. This same survey showed "relationship with immediate supervisor" slipped to number six and lost its position in the top five factors contributing to employee job satisfaction for the first time in three years. These results show that culture of respect for employees at all levels is extremely important to employees, and that trust between employees and senior managers is one of the major contributors to job satisfaction. Researchers suggest these results emphasize the importance of employees' trust in upper management to create productive work conditions where employees do not withhold information and bring their best effort to work. Another interesting finding of the survey was the importance of "communication between employees and senior managers"; it was ranked eighth providing evidence for the importance of perceptions of senior leadership on employee job attitudes. Interestingly, middle level managers have reported higher levels of satisfaction with

communication with senior managers than individual contributors suggesting that senior managers may not be accessible to employees of lower levels which can be a source of dissatisfaction. This also indicates that the immediate supervisor is no longer perceived as the sole principal contributor to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction. Although both leadership levels are important to employee level of job satisfaction, senior leadership support is becoming more relevant for employee level of satisfaction than immediate supervisor support. Although it was rated lower in 2014 than in previous years "relationship with the immediate supervisor' is still important for employees and organizations should continue to foster those positive relationships to ensure employees' job satisfaction. Taking into consideration the review of literature above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1. Immediate Supervisor support is positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. Senior leadership support is positively related to job satisfaction over and beyond immediate supervisor support.

Hypothesis 3. Senior leadership moderates the relationship between Immediate Supervisor support and job satisfaction such that there is a stronger positive relationship for employees who perceive high Senior Leadership support.

Work-Life Balance

Dual-income families are predominant within the US nowadays, taking over from a more traditional single-income family model (Hayghe, 1990). More and more women are entering the workforce and are shifting away from a sole homemaker role to a dual role of a homemaker-employee. An unprecedented number of women participate in the paid workforce nowadays (Guest, 2002). Only 47% of mothers with young children were employed in 1975 in the U.S. labor force, while 71% of women with children under 18 years of age were employed in 2007 (Galinsky, Aumann & Bond, 2008). This shift in the labor force has brought new challenges for individuals

in the family and work domain. A new field of research has emerged that is investigating the relationship between work and family responsibilities, and the challenges it may bring. Researchers have sought to investigate how this shift impacts employees at work as early as 1960. Since then, a plethora of concepts have been used to describe potential challenges such as work-family conflict, work-family interference, work-family segmentation, family-work conflict, work-life conflict, work-family balance, work-family enrichment, and finally work-life balance (Greenhaus & Singh, 2003). A majority of the research has been dedicated to investigating WFC, which is defined as an inter-role conflict occurring when demands from work create a strain in the family life and vice versa. More recent research has moved towards a more comprehensive view of work-family issues where work responsibilities and family obligations are not in conflict with each other, but rather, in a state of "balance" or "imbalance" (Lavassani & Movahedi, 2014). Another argument towards moving away from WFC is that initially only married people with children were perceived to experience strain from work/family demands, which left out single people without children who may also experience work interfering with their personal lives. This led researchers to investigate the influence of work-life balance on work outcomes. Work-life balance is defined as a perceived balance between all aspects of work-family life: family, health, leisure, career fulfilment, and meaningful works (Clark, 2000). This definition suggests that non-parents may care about having control over their schedule and work flexibility as well. Due to the popularity and similarity of the concepts of work-family conflict and work-life balance, the present study will review literature on how they both relate to leadership and job satisfaction collectively.

WFC has been examined in relationship to many constructs, and has been found to negatively influence organizational commitment (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996), turnover (Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997), job satisfaction (Adams & Jex, 1999),

and life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Work-family conflict was similarly found to positively influence life stress (Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshall, & Buetell, 1996), depression (MacEwen & Barling, 1994), alcohol abuse (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997), and job burnout (Aryeel, 1993).

Many organizations seek to solve the problem of work-life balance by instituting "family friendly" polices such as flexible time policies, telecommuting, assisted child care, and job sharing (Flynn, 1997). Clark (2001) found that flexible work arrangements positively influence both job and family-life satisfaction. The relationship between availability of family supportive benefits, affective commitment, and job satisfaction is mediated by the perception of organizational support of those benefits (Allen, 2001). Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne (2007) in their study investigated not only the presence of work-life balance practices but employees' perceptions of organizational support of work-life balance. They found that perceived support of work-life balance from the organization increased employees' job satisfaction, and reduced work pressure. Consequently, perceptions of support of work-life balance from organization led to a decrease in turnover intentions (Forsyth & Polzer-Debruyne, 2007)

Jang, Park, and Zippay (2011) conducted a multilevel analysis of the relationship between the availability of work-life balance programs, employee control over their schedule, job satisfaction, and mental health of over one thousand employees from 50 South Korean organizations. They found evidence of positive relationships between perceived control over ones' schedule, job satisfaction, and mental well-being, especially when friendly work-life balance polices were available. The results of this study suggest that organizations who offer work-life balance policies and allow their employees to have control over their schedule may be perceived as supportive and caring about their employees. This perception, together with family friendly

policies, leads to more satisfied employees, which leads to improved well-being. Therefore, work-life balance policies can benefit all employees in the organization and increase job satisfaction.

Immediate Supervisor Support, Senior Management Support, and Work-Life Balance

Research from the literature review suggests the presence of "family friendly policies" is positively related to employee job satisfaction. However, having such policies may not always be enough to promote work-life balance in the workplace. Often organizations that do have work-life balance policies in place do not have the organizational culture to support it. Repeatedly, employees do not take advantage of such polices because they are afraid it will be used against them in promotions and performance appraisal ratings (Gambles, Lewis, & Rapoport, 2006). This is especially true for male employees (Gregory & Milner, 2009). With the ongoing shift to dual income households, more and more men are assuming responsibilities in child-care and housework compared to the past (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001). Yet many do not take advantage of such polices due to the perceived 'organizational career cultures' that could potentially limit their access to career advancement (Gregory & Milner, 2009). Often employees' perceptions of work-life balance are influenced by perceived supervisor support which reduces both work–family and family–work conflict (O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Employees who report high levels of supervisor support for work-life balance practices are more likely to use such policies and experience higher levels of job satisfaction (McCarthy et al., 2013). They are also less likely to leave their organizations (McCarthy et al., 2013). Direct supervisors often serve as intermediates between employee needs and organizational requirements (Major & Morganson, 2011). Batt and Valcour (2003), in their study of white-collar employees, found supervisor support and flexible scheduling policies led to a decrease in turnover intentions together with higher pay and job security. Maxwell (2005) in the qualitative analysis of five UK based organizations found support for managers' role

in translating work-life balance policies into practice under the umbrella of formal organizational support.

In general, research around work-life balance and support is centered around immediate supervisor support and organizational support. However, employee perceptions of work-life balance can be influenced by senior leaders of the organization who set the tone and expectations around work ethics (Drew & Murtagh, 2005). Julien et al. (2011) investigated the relationship between work-life balance, flexible work arrangement and leadership support. They found higher correlation for senior leader support and telework (.43), flex hours (.40), and work-life balance (.52) than for immediate supervisor support and telework (.32), flex hours (.34), and work-life balance (.45). They concluded both levels of support are crucial for employee's perceptions of work-life balance. However, immediate supervisors may hesitate to put into action work-life balance policies due to the unclear stance of the senior leadership team on the issue, and err on the side of caution by limiting employees' access to such benefits (Kodz, Harper & Dench, 2002). Lauzun, Morganson, Major, & Green (2010) reviewed supervisors' responses to their employee requests involving work-life balance accommodations. They found evidence that most prevalent barriers to granting employees requests were organizational constraints (policies/culture) and lack of authority.

A senior leadership team that clearly communicates its support towards flexible work arrangements and models work-life balance behaviors may positively affect employees' perceptions of work-life balance. However, at times, this still may not be enough, and immediate supervisors may prevent their employees from taking advantage of "family friendly policies" for a variety of reasons. For example, GM's CEO, Mary Barra, consistently speaks up about the importance of honoring family commitments with the same discipline one is honoring his or her

work commitments. Unfortunately, this attitude towards work-life balance is not shared by all leaders in the organization. There are still business units at GM where employees are expected to come to the office every work day without flexible work arrangements (e.g., working remotely). I believe senior leaders impact their employees' perceptions of work-life balance as much as immediate supervisors do. Therefore, taking into consideration well established links between work-life balance and leadership support, the present study tests the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4. Immediate Supervisor support is positively related to work-life balance.

Hypothesis 5. Senior Leadership support is positively related to work-life balance beyond Immediate Supervisor support.

Hypothesis 6. Senior Leadership moderates the relationship between Immediate Supervisor support and work-life balance such that there is a stronger positive relationship for employees who perceive high Senior Leadership support.

Empowerment

Empowerment is a potent tool that can help organizations foster a more dedicated and energized workforce (Ahn & Kwon, 2001). To empower means to give someone the authority or power to do something. Empowering employees improves employees' resiliency and encourages them to take initiative since they view themselves as able and competent to successfully complete work tasks (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowerment is positively related to a number of work outcomes such as performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2011). It also has a negative relationship with turnover intentions and employee strain (Seibert et al., 2011).

Empowerment is typically addressed from two points of view: structural empowerment, and psychological empowerment. Structural empowerment takes into consideration organizational

context, such as policies and practices put in place to create an empowering environment for the employees. In this case, the concept of empowerment can be viewed through the lens of power and the amount of control one has in the workplace over their work arrangements and decision-making. Structural empowerment theories would support sharing power between relevant stakeholders involved in a process, where each person is responsible for making a decision in their area of expertise regardless of their position or level in the organizational hierarchy (Liden & Arad, 1996).

When employees believe they have a certain level of influence over meaningful decisions in the organization, they are described as empowered from a structural empowerment perspective (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995). Delegating, for example, can be viewed as a form of empowerment as well as another formal organizational practice like job design. Power then can be strategically shared by leaders to allow their subordinates to feel more powerful, and therefore more engaged in their work. Participative decision-making, skill/knowledge-based pay, open flow of information, training, and flat organizational structures are other ways to create structural empowerment in the organization.

Contrary to the structural empowerment perspective, empowerment from a psychological perspective comes from having a personal capacity to do something, similar to the self-efficacy concept (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 474) identify empowerment as the "process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information." Therefore, psychological empowerment can be described as a process of motivating others through increasing their personal efficacy.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) took this conceptualization a step further and describe power as giving energy. This definition describes empowerment as an outside motivational force that energizes people to be more committed and involved in their work. This energy is typically thought to come from leaders who use charismatic, transformational and inspirational styles (Menon, 1999).

Furthermore, Spreitzer (1995, p. 1443) defined psychological empowerment as "increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: competence, impact, meaning, and self-determination." When developing her twelve item Psychological Empowerment Scale to measure four dimensions of empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) substituted "meaningfulness" with "meaning" and "choice" with "self-determination," while preserving the "competence" and "impact" dimensions originally proposed by Thomas & Velthouse (1990).

Competence is described as an individual's belief in their ability to compete the task successfully and it is closely related to Bandura's (1986) concepts of self-efficacy and personal mastery. When competence is present, individuals tend to exert more effort and persist when confronted with difficult tasks (Gecas, 1989).

Impact is described as a feeling of contribution to the overall organizational outcomes, and one's ability to influence those outcomes personally. When perceptions of impact are present individuals tend to withdraw less and perform better (Ashforth, 1990).

Meaning is described as an attribution individuals make about the importance of any given task. Perceiving one's job as meaningful contributes to a higher level of energy (Kanter, 1983), and better performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984).

Self-determination is described as the amount of choice one has around how to perform tasks at hand. Self-determination leads employees to show more initiative, higher levels of self-regulation, and resiliency (Salancik, 1977).

Menon (1999) continued to build on the theory of psychological empowerment. He proposed and tested a multi-faceted psychological empowerment model that includes perceived control, perceived competence and goal internalization. Perceived control refers to the employees' perceptions of their autonomy, decision-making power, and resources available. It is closely related to the concepts of self-determination and impact proposed by Spreitzer (1995). Perceived competence refers to the employee's perceptions of their own competence and role-mastery for both routine work activities and extra work assignments. Goal internalization estimates the amount of energy an employee has exerted towards achieving the vision proposed by the leaders in the organization. This dimension is closely related to the meaning dimension outlined by Spreitzer (1995). The major difference between Spreitzer (1995) and Menon's (1999) conceptualization of empowerment is that Menon's goal internalization dimension estimates not only employee's perception of fit between their values and the task but also the role of leadership in motivating employees towards organizational goals. Goal internalization specifically measures the way an inspiring leader or a compelling organizational vision empowers its employees to go above and beyond. Due to this distinction, the present research uses Menon's (1999) conceptualization of empowerment.

Immediate Supervisor, Senior Leader support and Empowerment

Immediate supervisors have the direct opportunity to influence how employees interpret their immediate job responsibilities, and how empowered they feel in the workplace (Wallach & Meuller, 2006). Leaders provide examples of acceptable behavior (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, &

Popper, 1998), build employee self-efficacy (House, Delbecq, & Taris, 1998), interpret job responsibilities and add meaning to employees work by clarifying core job characteristics (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Leaders serve a primary role in empowering their employees (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). The tone leaders set for the work climate directly contributes to the employees' perceptions of self-worth and empowerment (Deci et al., 1989). When managers exhibit genuine care about their employees and communicate a strong sense of moral standards and ethics in their interpersonal relationships at work, they create a more empowering environment for their subordinates (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010).

There are several leadership styles that have been found to contribute to employees feeling of empowerment (Ahn & Kwon, 2001; Huang Iun, Liu, & Gong, 2010). Wong and Laschinger (2013) found authentic leadership to positively influence structural empowerment when studying registered nurses. They found that perceptions of leaders as authentic increased nurses' sense of empowerment and job satisfaction. When leaders exhibited authentic behaviors such as transparency, self-awareness, balanced processing and ethical standards, nurses were more likely to take on more responsibility and ownership of outcomes (Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

Transformational leadership was also found to contribute to employees' feelings of empowerment. When transformational leaders share their vision, and convey a belief that employees can achieve it, they create an expectation in their employee that inspires them to try harder. Consequently, their performance improves (Bass, 1985). This also contributes greatly to employees' sense of self-efficacy. Transformational leaders interpret meaningfulness of goals and help connect individual actions to the overall plan, therefore, creating a sense of self-consistency and meaningfulness (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1993).

The feeling of empowerment is shaped not only by employees' immediate supervisors, but by top leaders in the organization, as well. CEOs and top management have the power to shape organizations by embedding their own values into organizational design (Berson et al., 2008). Employees who believe their CEO to be charismatic report willingness to work extra hours, demonstrate higher person-organization fit, and score higher on organizational commitment (Huang, Cheng, & Chou, 2005). For example, Ahn and Kwon (2001) found support for CIO's transformational leadership to influence employee empowerment. Similar results were reported by Ugboro and Obeng (2000), who found that top management leadership role had a positive influence on employee empowerment. Top management's leadership style, particularly transformational style, has been linked to improved organizational innovation, suggesting that senior leaders can inspire and empower their employees to solve problems in innovative and creative ways (Elenkov & Manev, 2005).

Although I am not aware of any study that directly compared the effects of the levels of leadership on employee empowerment, there is a study that looked into differences between proximal versus distal leadership and its influence in empowering employees. Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) examined transformational leadership and organizational commitment, and explored whether this relationship is mediated by psychological empowerment and moderated by structural distance. Their results indicated that psychological empowerment mediated that relationship but only for the indirect levels of leadership. They also found that perceiving immediate supervisors to be transformational had a weaker effect on employees' levels of organizational commitment than did perceptions of other leaders as transformational, which suggests that distal leadership has a greater influence on employees' work attitudes than immediate supervisors. Avolio et al. explain it by the fact that employees have a better opportunity to observe

their immediate supervisors and see inconsistencies in their behavior, which negatively influences employees' commitment levels and empowerment.

Previous research considers the relationship between employees and senior leadership to be distal, since there is no day-to-day contact and communication. However, there are reasons to believe that senior leadership indirectly influences employees' perceptions of their work environment, including feeling of empowerment. It is also possible that immediate supervisors, as in Avolio et al.'s (2004) case with senior nurses, do not have the authority to share power with their subordinates, which causes them to feel less empowered by their immediate supervisors. This finding was contradictory to their hypotheses and as such, further investigation is needed to understand how top leadership in the organization can make employees feel more empowered in the workplace. Based on the literature review above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7. Immediate Supervisor support is positively related to empowerment.

Hypothesis 8. Senior Leadership support is positively related to empowerment beyond Immediate Supervisor support.

Hypothesis 9. Senior Leadership moderates the relationship between Immediate Supervisor support and empowerment such that there is a stronger positive relationship for employees who perceive high Senior Leadership support.

Employee Levels

Previous research reveals that the relationships discussed above do not always follow the same path for all employee levels. For example, Basford et al. (2012) found that levels of leadership support had stronger influence on employees' intent to stay when they were in high-status jobs versus lower-status jobs. Specifically, hourly, non-managerial employees had weaker relationships between both immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support and

retention than employees in managerial positions with senior leadership showing more influence than immediate supervisor support. Similarly, a study conducted by the Center for Creative Leaderships revealed dissimilarities in the importance of supervisor support versus organizational support for first-level and middle-level managers (Gentry et al., 2013). They discovered supervisor support and organizational support equally contributed to first-level managers' job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions. In contrast, organizational support had more impact on middle-level managers' work outcomes than supervisor support. Middle-level managers who experienced low levels of support from their organizations reported less commitment, lower job satisfaction, and higher likelihood to exit the organization even when they experienced a lot of support from their supervisor. At the same time, middle-level managers who did not experience high level of supervisor support were still committed to the organization, got satisfaction out their job, and expressed no desire to leave the organization when perceived organizational support was high. The researchers concluded that although having a supportive supervisor is clearly important for employees' feelings of commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions, the effects may vary for employees at different levels. They argue that first and middle-level managers have different needs and challenges at each level which may explain why organizational support and supervisor support impact them differently. For example, when first-level managers transition from individual contributors to people leaders they often lead people who used to be their peers. They have to shift from doing the work to motivating others to do the work while preserving positive relationships. This new way of thinking requires extra cognitive and emotional effort and therefore, many new managers need support from both their direct leaders and organization as they develop into new leaders (Gentry et al., 2013). On the other hand, middle-level managers have more experience in leading others and can concentrate on working across groups and systems,

taking responsibilities for organizational versus individual challenges. By operating in broader networks they have the opportunity to receive support from people in other departments, peers and subordinates, and others in the network (Gentry et al., 2013).

Huang, Iun, Liu and Gong (2010) also found that different mechanisms are at play when evaluating the difference of the influence of participative management on task performance and organizational citizenship behavior for managerial versus non-managerial employees. They found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationships between participative leadership and task performance, and between participative leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors, for managerial employees but not for non-managerial employees. Additionally, trust in supervisor mediated the relationships between participative leadership and task performance, and between participative leadership and organizational citizenship behavior, for non-managerial but not for managerial employees. They suggest this is due to differences in work-related schemas employees at different levels have about their jobs, and participative leadership is viewed through the lens of their current needs. Therefore, non-managerial employees perceive their superior's participative leadership as respectful and fair which in turn leads to higher trust. At the same time, managerial employees may interpret participative leadership as reducing ambiguity and building confidence which in turn leads to higher psychological empowerment.

The results of the studies discussed above provide support for the idea that employees at different job levels may experience leadership support differently. Therefore, the present study aims to further investigate differences in job levels in order to fully understand the relationship between levels of leadership (immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support), employee job levels (individual contributors, managers of people or process, and upper manager),

and the way they impact employee perceptions of work-life balance, empowerment and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between immediate supervisor support and job satisfaction will be moderated by employee level and senior supervisor support. That is, the relationship will be stronger for individual contributors than for managers and upper managers who experience a higher levels of senior supervisor support.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between immediate supervisor support and work-life balance will be moderated by employee level and senior supervisor support. That is, the relationship will be stronger for individual contributors than for managers and upper managers who experience a higher levels of senior supervisor support.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between immediate supervisor support and empowerment will be moderated by employee level and senior supervisor support. That is, the relationship will be stronger for individual contributors than for managers and upper managers who experience a higher levels of senior supervisor support.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Participants

Data were collected in 2013 as part of the Global Opinion Survey at a large global manufacturing organization with headquarters. The organization consisted of several companies with one centralized corporate office in the Mid-West, United Sates. This organization featured a diverse product portfolio with offices and facilities all over United States and global. Survey participation was voluntary and data collected (collection) was anonymous. While global data were collected both electronically and using paper and pencil methods, in the US only electronic data collection was used. The focus of this study is solely on the US-based sample. The US sample included 4,600 employees: 80% of the employees were white, 62% were male, and 63% of employees were between the age of 35 and 54.

Measures

The present research utilized five scales from the Global Opinion Survey. The survey was created by an internal team of I/O psychologists employed by the organization rom a set of questions provided by a consulting company. A consulting company provided the I/O team with a database of questions representing a variety of workplace dimensions of interest to the company. To create the internal Global Opinion Survey, I/O professionals, consultants, and subject matter experts selected items from this database using content analysis. It consisted of 50 items covering 15 dimensions. Participants were asked to rate questions using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. The survey was translated into sixteen languages and administered globally. All salaried employees were invited to take the survey. The present study used data from US employees only. The scales for the present research were derived using exploratory factor analysis and resulted in five factors, as outlined in Table 1.

Immediate supervisor support was measured using 6 questions (α = .95) on the "manager effectiveness" scale which includes questions such *"My manager treats me with respect and dignity"*. Employees were given instructions with definitions prior to taking the survey. When answering questions about "my manager" participants were asked to think about their direct supervisor.

Senior leadership support was estimated using 4 questions (α = .91) on the "confidence in leadership" scale which includes items such as *"The leadership of Company X has communicated a vision of the future that motivates me"*. Similarly, when answering questions about "the leadership of ..." participants were asked to think about their top level leaders in the company.

Work-life balance was estimated using 5 questions (α = .91) on the "work-life balance" scale with items such as or e.g. *"I have sufficient flexibility to effectively balance my work and personal life."*

Empowerment was estimated using 4 questions (α = .85) based on Menon's (1999) conceptualization of empowerment it includes three sub-dimensions of empowerment: goal internalization (*"I can see a clear link between my work and the xxx Company's objectives"*), perceived control (*"I am involved in decisions that affect my work"*), and perceived competence ("*My job makes good use of my skills and abilities"*).

Job satisfaction was measured using 7 questions (α = .87) and consists of 3 sub-scales: recognition and growth (*"The benefits I receive at xxx meet my expectations"*), career (*"I have sufficient opportunities to reach my career goals at xxx Company"*), and turnover intentions (*"I intend to stay with xxx Company for the foreseeable future"*). Two turnover intentions items were included in the job satisfaction scale since they loaded onto job satisfaction factor. Such a factor

structure can be explained by the close relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Employee job level information was collected during the survey. Employees were asked to self-identify their roles. Options for this question included: individual contributor (2540 employees), manager of people or process (1433 employees), upper manager (136 employees), executive (44 employees), and "prefer not to answer" (447 employees). In this sample, 44 executives represent senior leadership of the organization.

Analyses

Prior to the analysis, data were evaluated for assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity. Hypotheses 1, 4, and 7 were examined using Regression analysis. Hypotheses 2, 5, and 8 were examined using hierarchical multiple regression, which allows evaluation of the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable, while controlling for the effects of another independent variable. To test hypotheses 2, 5, and 8, immediate supervisor support was entered in the first step, and senior supervisor support was added to the model in the second step. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression are reported in Table 2. To evaluate the relative importance of each variable in predicting job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment, squared semi-partial correlations were evaluated. Squared semi-partial correlation estimation, indicated as "part" in SPSS, evaluates the unique contribution of each predictor to the outcome variables apart from variance shared by both predictors.

Hypotheses 3, 6, and 9, were examined using Moderated Multiple Regression following the process identified by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) and Baron and Kenny (1986). This method offers benefits over others, as it allows to examine slope differences for different groups (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). Moderation occurs when a dependent variable Y, a predictor X and a second predictor Z moderates the relationship between X-Y. To test for moderation, an interaction term was created from a predictor X and moderator Z, prior to being entered in the statistical model. Moderation hypotheses are considered supported if the interaction term and R^2 change are both significant. Full moderation occurs when the interaction term is significant but the relationship between the independent variable and the moderator are not. In cases where the relationships between the independent variable, moderator, and interaction term are all significant, moderation is considered present, but main effects also remain significant

(Cohen et al., 2003). Independent variables (immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support) were centered and the interaction terms were created using centered variables (Aiken, West, Luhmann, Baraldi, Coxe, 2012).

Hypotheses 10-12 were concerned with evaluating the interaction effect of employee level and senior leadership support. They were also examined using Moderated Multiple Regression. Because employee level was a categorical variable with three different levels of employees, two dummy coded groups were created (Tabachnick, Fidell, & Osterlind, 2001). To test a set of these hypotheses, interaction terms were created between employee level a categorical variable (individual contributors versus management and upper management, individual contributors and managers versus upper managers), and centred continuous variables of immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support. The mean-centred independent variable (immediate supervisor support) and proposed moderator variables (senior leadership support and employee levels) were entered in the first step. In the second step, mean-centered interaction terms (product terms of immediate supervisor with senior leadership support, immediate supervisor with each employee level, and senior leadership support with each employee level) were entered. In the third step of the model, mean-centered interaction terms of immediate supervisor and senior leadership for each employee levels were entered to test for a 3-way interaction. Moderation was considered present when a significant R^2 change was observed after interaction terms have been added. To graph significant results a Microsoft Excel macro worksheet (Dawson, 2014) was used to illustrate any observed interactions.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Table 3 presents uncentered means, standard deviations, correlations, and scale reliabilities for all variables included in the study. To address the issues of high multicollinearity of variables with the interaction term, all variables were centered and the interaction terms were created using centered variables (Aiken, West, Luhmann, Baraldi, Coxe, 2012). Prior to analysis, all data were evaluated for assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity. The results showed that assumptions were not violated and indicators of skewness and kurtosis were less than $z = +/-3.29$ ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Hypotheses 1, 4, and 7 each address the main effects of Immediate Supervisor Support, on job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment, respectively. Each of these hypotheses was supported, with immediate supervisor support being positively related to job satisfaction (H1), work-life balance (H4) and empowerment (H7). It was found that Immediate Supervisor Support significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = .54$, $p < .001$), work life balance ($\beta = .47$, $p < .001$), and empowerment ($\beta = .62$, $p < .001$). The results of the regression indicated that immediate supervisor explained 29% of the variance in job satisfaction, $R^2 = .29$, $F(1, 4151) = 1692.71$, $p < .001$; 22% of the variance in work-life balance, $R^2 = .22$, $F(1, 4151) = 1173.2$, $p < .001$; and 38% of the variance in empowerment, $R^2 = .38$, $F(1, 4151) = 2588.798$, $p < .001$. The results are reported in Tables 3, 4 and 5. The large sample size used in the present study could be influencing the significance of the hypotheses. However, the amount of variance explained leads us to believe that findings are not only statistically significant but also practically meaningful.

Hypotheses 2, 5, and 8 each propose that Senior Leadership Support is positively related beyond the effects of Immediate Supervisor Support to job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment, respectively. Hypotheses 2, 5, and 8 were each supported, as senior leadership

support was positively related to job satisfaction (H2), work-life balance (H5) and empowerment (H8) over and beyond Immediate Supervisor support. As noted above, to test hypotheses 2, 5, and 8 a hierarchical multiple regression was utilized. Immediate supervisor support was entered in the first step, and senior supervisor support was added to the model in the second step. The results indicated that when senior leadership support is added to the model, immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support together explain 51% of variance in job satisfaction (H2), ΔR^2=.22, $\Delta F(1, 4150)$= 1861.50, $p < .001$. Immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support together explain 35% of variance in work-life balance (H5), ΔR^2=.35, $\Delta F(1, 4150)$=819.33, $p < .001$. Immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support together explain 59% of variance in empowerment (H8), ΔR^2=.20, $\Delta F(1, 4150)$= 2057.40, $p < .001$). The results are reported in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

To evaluate the relative importance of each variable in predicting job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment squared semi-partial correlations were evaluated. Squared semi-partial correlation estimation, indicated as "part" in SPSS, evaluates the unique contribution of each predictor to the outcome variables apart from variance shared by both predictors. For H2, it was observed that immediate supervisor support uniquely explained 9% of the variance in job satisfaction while senior leadership support explained 22%, indicating that senior leadership has a stronger unique relationship with job satisfaction. For H5, it was also observed that immediate supervisor support uniquely explained 8% of the variance in work-life balance, while senior leadership support explained 13% indicating that senior leadership has a stronger unique relationship with work-life balance. Similarly, for H8, it was observed that immediate supervisor support uniquely explained 14% of the variance in empowerment, and senior leadership support

explained 20%, indicating that senior leadership has a stronger unique relationship with empowerment as well. The results of semi-partial correlations are presented in Tables 3, 4 and 5.

Hypotheses 3, 6 and 9 were concerned with the moderating effect of senior leadership support on the relationship between immediate supervisor support and the three work outcomes under investigation. This moderating effect was not supported for any of the three cases, and senior supervisor support did not moderate the relationship between immediate supervisor support and job satisfaction (H3), work-life balance (H6), or empowerment (H9). Results are represented in Table 4, 5, and 6.

The added interaction term for immediate supervisor support and senior leadership support was not significant and did not contribute to explaining additional variance in job satisfaction (β = .02, p =.073). Table 4 provides regression coefficients for variables included in the model. The interaction term was significant in predicting work-life balance (β = .05, $p < .001$), and this is shown in Table 5. The results of the interaction are plotted on Figure 1. Although the interaction was significant, it only minimally contributed to explaining additional variance, ΔR^2=.002, $\Delta F(1, 4149$= 14.28, $p < .001$. Closer examination of the graph also reveals that the interaction is not large enough to be practically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was not supported. Hypothesis 9 was also not supported, as there was no effect of the interaction term on empowerment (β = .01, p = .92). The results are reported in Table 6.

Hypotheses 10-12 were concerned with evaluating the interaction effect of employee level and senior leadership support. Because employee level was a categorical variable with three different levels of employees, two dummy coded groups were created (Tabachnick, Fidell, & Osterlind, 2001). To test a set of these hypotheses, interaction terms were created between categorical and centred continuous variables.

Hypothesis 10 was not supported. The relationship between immediate supervisor support and job satisfaction was not moderated by employee level and senior supervisor support (β = -.10, p = .06; β = -.09, p = .03). The results are reported in Table 7.

Testing hypothesis 11 provided significant results for the overall model; however, interaction terms did not explain additional variance in work-life balance (ΔR^2=.001, ΔF(2, 4097)=3.09, p=.045). The results are reported in Table 8. The results of the model were plotted using three separate two-way interactions for each level of employee levels following recommendation by Aiken and West (1991). These results are shown in Figures 2, 3 and 4. Plotting the results revealed that although the model is statistically significant, it is not practically meaningful. This suggests that there is no meaningful effect of employee level and senior leadership support on the relationship between immediate supervisor support and work-life balance.

Hypothesis 12 was also not supported, as there was no effect of the interaction terms on the relationship between immediate supervisor and empowerment (β = -.05, p = .34; β = -.01, p = .73). The results are reported in Table 9.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The goal of the study was to investigate leadership influences on employees' perceptions of job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment. Specifically, senior leadership support was evaluated in relation to immediate supervisor support for employees at different levels. The moderating effect of senior leadership support was also evaluated. The results of the study revealed that senior leadership support is not only meaningful to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment, but that it has more influence on employees' perceptions of job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment than does immediate supervisor support.

This finding that senior leadership support contributes more to employees' job satisfaction is not surprising if we take into consideration the changing nature of work in modern organizations from long-term assignments to short-term projects (Cooper, 1999). In many cases, employees do not work for the same manager for more than a year, sometimes even less than that. Unfortunately, information on the average amount of time an employee was reporting to the same manager was not collected in the sample. Future research should address this limitation by investigating the effects of length of the supervision on workplace outcomes. There are other changes that current employees experience in the work place: reduced hierarchical structure, blurred departmental boundaries, continuous restructure within organizations and new management perspective (Heerwagen, Kelly, & Kampschroer, 2006). Graen, Hui and Taylor (2004) explain that leadership functions under such conditions are different from the leadership role under "business as usual" situations. Without consistency of leadership of immediate supervisors, employees may turn to the senior leadership of the company for clarification on the organizational policies and culture. Thus, it is not surprising that in recent years, researchers have found that perceived support from senior

leaders of the organization is as influential as immediate supervisor support in contributing to employee satisfaction and decision to stay (Basford et al., 2012).

This finding also aligns with SHRM's 2014 Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement Survey where employees from different industries have identified trust in senior leadership as one of the main contributors to their job satisfaction, surpassing the relationship with the immediate supervisor. Ellis and Shockley–Zalabak (2001) provide an explanation for such phenomenon, suggesting that one important contributor to employees' trust in top management and immediate supervisors is information-sharing. Their research found that the amount of information received about organizational and job issues explained 26% variance in trust in top management and 13% in trust in immediate supervisors. This is understandable, as senior leaders communicate organizational purpose, vision and goals. Although many employees do not have direct access to senior leaders, the messages that they share with their subordinates may contribute to employees' job satisfaction more than messages they receive from their immediate supervisors. Ellis and Shockley–Zalabak recommend that leaders evaluate the frequency and content of their messages and consciously make an effort to share more information with their subordinates. Senior leaders provide hope that the organization is heading in the right direction, and by sharing that vision, they have an opportunity to increase employee job satisfaction.

This is an important finding, as job satisfaction is one of the biggest contributors to turnover (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992; Sturges & Guest, 2001). In the current study, job satisfaction and turnover items loaded onto the same factor, which provides further support for the relationship between these two concepts. The way HR professionals address issues of employee job satisfaction is shaped by current beliefs in the industry around the influence of immediate supervisors. A major contribution of this study is that, by becoming aware of the increased influence of senior leaders

on employee job satisfaction and other important outcomes, organizations can concentrate on creating environments where employees feel supported by senior leaders in the organization. Satisfied employees are less likely to look for other employment opportunities and more likely to bring their best-selves to the workplace. Therefore, organizations can reduce turnover by aiming to increase their employees' job satisfaction (Yücel, 2012).

The present research confirms the link between perceptions of work-life balance and leadership. Although both investigated leadership levels contribute to employees' perceptions of work-life balance, results of the study suggest that senior leadership support is more influential for employees' perceptions of work-life balance. This finding supports previous research findings by Julien et al. (2001), who found that senior management support has higher correlation with flexible work-arrangements than immediate supervisor support. This suggests that both are important, but that senior leaders contribute more to employees' perceptions of work-life balance.

Leaders at all levels have both an opportunity to allow employees to take advantage of such policies as well as model work-life balance since leaders are often seen as change agents and "gatekeepers" for implementing meaningful change (Valente & Pumpuang, 2007). However, immediate supervisors may not feel that they have enough authority to support employees' requests that would foster their work-life balance (Lauzun et al., 2010). At the same time, leaders may not serve as good role-models, as they often work long hours due to their increased responsibilities (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Companies who truly want to improve the work-life balance of their employees should consider altering the culture of the organization, starting with senior leaders.

Relatedly, senior leaders are often responsible for instituting "family friendly" policies. Senior leaders can empower leaders at lower levels in the organization to accommodate and

encourage their employees, both men and women, to participate in the policies and programs available to them (Gambles et al., 2006). They should also take advantage of such programs to send a signal that it is and acceptable and welcome behavior in the organization. Informing senior leadership team of the effect that they have over other employees in the organization, coupled with offering targeted and deliberate training on how to communicate their vision and expectations around work and family commitments, may also have a significant impact on employees' perceptions of work-life balance.

Results also indicate that although both levels of leadership are important for employees' empowerment, senior leadership support plays a more influential role than immediate supervisor support. To date, a limited number of studies have examined the importance of senior leadership support for employee empowerment and none have examined the difference between immediate supervisors and senior leadership support. I believe that this is an important finding, as it illustrates the importance of involving senior leadership in organizational efforts to empower employees. Although new, this finding is not entirely unexpected. There is evidence in the literature that senior leadership support influences many employee outcomes. This particular finding is consistent with transformational leadership theory that suggests that leaders inspire and empower employees to do their best by providing a compelling vision and articulating high expectations (Bass, 1985). For example, Ahn and Kwon (2001) found that CIOs' transformational leadership improves their subordinates' empowerment and leadership performance.

Another possible explanation has been offered by Avolio et al. (2004). Their research on immediate versus distal leaders suggest that employees' close contact with their managers exposes them to inconsistencies in their behaviors and messages, while observing other leaders from afar leads them to see them as more consistent, and ultimately in a more positive light. They also

suggest that immediate supervisors can be preoccupied with executing day-to-day tasks leaving senior leadership to communicate vision and inspire action. Because of that, judgments about immediate supervisor support are most likely made based on their behavior, while senior leaders are evaluated based on their policies and subordinate's perception of their behavior. This is consistent with previous research that employees who think their managers micro-manage them experience a lack of confidence in their abilities as they believe it to be a consequence of their managers' low trust in their competence (Lawler, 1992). Due to the hierarchical structure of organizations and the purpose of senior leadership teams, they do not have an opportunity to micro-manage employees and are preoccupied with broad, strategic initiatives. Employees often have limited access to their senior leadership team and form their opinion about them by extrapolating meaning from internal communications, the way they communicate and react to certain events, and often media coverage. This may lead them to believe that messages from top leadership are more consistent and powerful. Lack of proximity and continuous communication of company's vision may potentially explain why employees perceive their senior leaders as more empowering.

Senior leadership support did not moderate the relationship between immediate supervisor support and job satisfaction, work-life balance, and empowerment suggesting that stronger perceptions of senior supervisor support do not affect the relationship between immediate supervisor support and work outcomes. This finding suggests that the presence of high senior leadership support does not influence the relationship between immediate supervisor support and work outcomes and that they operate independently. The results, however, do suggest that the effects are additive and both types of support are important for employee work outcomes. Presence of either one has a positive influence on employee work outcomes. Presence of both has even stronger positive impact on employee's job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment.

Hypotheses around employee levels were not supported, as employee level did not have a significant impact. This seemingly contradicts previous findings by Basford et al. (2012) that employees at higher level in the organization react differently to senior leadership support. It is possible that this inconsistency is due to methodological issues. Basford et al. (2012) conducted a multi-level study and used HLM to evaluate results – a different methodological approach than that taken in the present study. However, these results also do not support Huang, Iun, Liu, and Gong's (2010) findings that followers of different levels perceive their leader's behavior differently. Future research is needed to evaluate these hypotheses further. Employing multilevel analysis may be beneficial for such a research question.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. One of the potential limitations is the use of self-report data as the only source of information. Besides providing a limited view on the concepts under investigation, self-report data collected via surveys may be susceptible to common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although some researchers suggest providing alternative measurement models has little impact on the validity of results (Conway & Lance, 2010), adding objective measures of retention and frequency of use of policies supporting work-life balance may offer additional insights.

Another potential limitation is the use of scales that have not been previously validated, and which were assembled from a vendor-provided list of questions on each given dimension. However, the reliability coefficients are very high for each scale and exploratory factor analysis confirmed dimensions originally conceptualized by I/O psychologists conducting the Global Opinion Survey. Although a similar technique has been successfully utilized by Basford et al.

(2012), future research should investigate the connection between levels of leadership and job satisfaction using well-established scales.

Levels of analysis could also play a role in the results of the study. Previous research evaluated levels of leadership and its influence on employees utilizing multi-level data and analysis (e.g., Basford et al., 2012). Therefore, future research should consider adopting a multi-level approach when evaluating influences of immediate supervisors and senior leaders on different levels of employees in the organization.

Conceivably, the generalizability of the findings may be questioned, as the sample data for the current study were collected from employees of a large manufacturing organization. However, other studies have also found support for the stronger influence of senior leadership on workplace outcomes in other industries: nursing (Avolio et al., 2004), service sector (Basford et al., 2012), technology, banking, manufacturing and others (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001). The multi geographical nature of the sampled organization, comprised of multiple companies situated across the continental US, provides further support for the generalizability of these findings. The fact that the current organization consists of multiple companies can also help explain the lack of range restriction in perceptions of senior leadership across the organization.

Summary

Although immediate supervisor support is relevant for employees, senior leadership support is more important for employees' work outcomes such as job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment. The relationship between immediate supervisors and work outcomes is not moderated by senior leadership support and employee level, suggesting that senior supervisor support and immediate supervisor support influence work outcomes positively and yet independently.

These findings have several implications for the way that we think about leaders in the organization at different levels, and how they influence employee work outcomes. Organizations should be concerned with setting themselves apart from other organizations by creating a work atmosphere where employees feel supported and inspired by their leaders, and maintain healthy work-life balance at all levels. Organizations can achieve such work environments by enlisting their senior leaders to create employee friendly policies and communicate the importance of culture change to foster empowerment and increase job satisfaction. Leadership development programs nowadays focus mainly on developing leader's skills in dealing with their immediate subordinates. Unfortunately, leadership training is often viewed as lacking and low in ROI (Beer, Finnström, & Schrader, 2016). The realization that senior leadership has equal or more influence over employees' job satisfaction than previously conceptualized may be unexpected and yet, understandable. People are influenced by those at the very top (Berson et al., 2008). History is full of stories where wars were won and great political changes were accomplished due to the efforts of one charismatic individual. The difference is that now we have many capable and charismatic men and women in senior leader positions who have the power to influence employee work outcomes.

APPENDIX A: SCALES

Immediate Supervisor Support

1. My manager keeps his/her commitments.
2. My manager and I partner effectively to achieve business results.
3. My manager treats me with respect and dignity.
4. My manager clearly communicates what is expected of me.
5. My manager is an active role model for the X Values.
6. I trust my manager.

Senior Leader Support

1. I trust the leadership of X Company.
2. The leadership of X Company has communicated a vision of the future that motivates me.
3. X leaders are making the changes necessary to compete effectively.
4. X leaders show a commitment to ethical business decisions and conduct.

Work-Life Balance

1. The amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable.
2. My work environment enables me to live a healthy lifestyle.
3. I have sufficient flexibility to effectively balance my work and personal life.
4. When I leave work, I have energy for the things I enjoy.
5. My manager actively works to help me use flexible work arrangements (e.g. telecommuting/ working from home, flex time, less than full time, compressed work week) when it suits the business and me.

Job Satisfaction

1. I am paid appropriately for the work I do.
2. The benefits I receive at X's meet my expectations.
3. I regularly receive appropriate recognition when I do a good job.
4. I intend to stay with X Company for the foreseeable future.
5. I rarely think about looking for a new job with another company.
6. I have sufficient opportunities to reach my career goals at X Company.
7. At X, I have sufficient opportunities to learn and grow.

Empowerment

1. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.
2. I can see a clear link between my work and the X Company's objectives.
3. I am involved in decisions that affect my work.
4. My job makes good use of my skills and abilities.

Table 1

Factor Analysis of Survey Data with Oblique Pattern Rotation

	Factor Loading				
Item	1	2	3	4	5
Immediate Supervisor Support (α = .848)					
1. My manager keeps his/her commitments.	-.82				
2. My manager and I partner effectively to achieve business results.	-.83				
3. My manager treats me with respect and dignity.	-.86				
4. My manager clearly communicates what is expected of me.	-.82				
5. My manager is an active role model for the X Values.	-.90				
6. I trust my manager.	-.89				
Senior Leader Support (α = .848)					
1. I trust the leadership of X company.		-.82			
2. The leadership of X com. has communicated a vision of the future that motivates me.		-.83			
3. X leaders are making the changes necessary to compete effectively.		-.86			
4. X leaders show a commitment to ethical business decisions and conduct.		-.82			
Work-Life Balance (α = .848)					
1. The amount of work I am expected to do is reasonable.			.81		
2. My work environment enables me to live a healthy lifestyle.			.83		
3. I have sufficient flexibility to effectively balance my work and personal life.			.92		
4. When I leave work, I have energy for the things I enjoy.			.90		
5. My manager actively works to help me use flexible work arrangements (e.g. telecommuting/ working from home, flex time, less than full time, compressed work week) when it suits the business and me.			.54		
Job Satisfaction (α = .848)					
1. I am paid appropriately for the work I do.				.62	
2. The benefits I receive at X's meet my expectations.				.58	
3. I regularly receive appropriate recognition when I do a good job.				.36	
4. I intend to stay with X Company for the foreseeable future.				.53	
5. I rarely think about looking for a new job with another company.				.50	
6. I have sufficient opportunities to reach my career goals at X Company.				.51	
7. At X, I have sufficient opportunities to learn and grow.				.53	
Empowerment (α = .848)					
1. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.					.44
2. I can see a clear link between my work and the X Company's objectives.					.47
3. I am involved in decisions that affect my work.					.58
4. My job makes good use of my skills and abilities.					.48

Note. Factor loadings below .35 were omitted. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics

	Frequency (N)	*Percent*
Gender		
Male	2574	62.00
Female	1578	38.00
Age		
Under 25	51	1.20
25 – 34	825	19.90
35 – 44	1252	30.10
45 – 54	1364	32.80
55 and over	660	15.90
Race		
American Indian or Alaskan Native	7	0.20
Asian	170	4.10
Black or African American	328	7.90
Two or More Races	22	0.50
White	3307	79.60

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Variables	*M*	*SD*	IS	SL	WL	EMP	JS
IS	4.00	.85	(.95)				
SL	3.59	.87	.41***	(.91)			
WL	3.31	.96	.47***	.52***	(.91)		
EMP	3.73	.79	.62***	.67***	.56***	(.85)	
JS	3.64	.75	.54***	.65***	.61***	.67***	(.87)

Note. $N = 4153$. Entries on the main diagonal are Cronbach's alpha. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, WL = Work-Life Balance, EMP = Empowerment, JS = Job Satisfaction.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Coefficients of Predictors to Job Satisfaction and Semipartial Correlations

DV: Job Satisfaction												
	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
Variables	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*
Constant	3.64	.01			3.64	.01			3.63	.01		
IS	.48	.01	.54***	.54	.29	.01	.33***	.30	.30	.01	.33***	.30
SL					.44	.01	.51***	.47	.44	.01	.51***	.47
ISxSL									.02	.01	.02	.02
ΔF	1692.71***				1861.50***				3.22			
R^2	.29				.51				.51			
ΔR	.29				.22				.00			

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, sr = Semipartial (part)
Correlation.

IS and SL were centered at their means.

* $p < .05.$ ** $p < .01.$ *** $p < .001.$

Table 5

Coefficients of Predictors to Work-Life Balance and Semipartial Correlations

DV: Work-Life Balance

Variables	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*
Constant	3.31	.01			3.31	.01			3.29	.01		
IS	.53	.02	.47***	.47	.35	.02	.31***	.28	.36	.02	.32***	.29
SL					.43	.02	.39***	.36	.44	.02	.39***	.36
ISxSL									.44	.02	.39***	.05
ΔF	1173.20***				819.33***				14.28***			
R²	.22				.35				.35			
ΔR	.22				.13				.00			

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, sr = Semipartial (part) Correlation.

IS and SL were centered at their means.

[*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.

Table 6

Coefficients of Predictors to Empowerment and Semipartial Correlations

DV: Empowerment												
	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
Variables	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*	B	*SE*	β	*sr*
Constant	3.73	.01			3.73	.01			3.73	.01		
IS	.58	.01	.62***	.62	.39	.01	.42***	.38	.39	.01	.42***	.37
SL					.45	.01	.49***	.45	.45	.01	.50***	.45
ISxSL									.01	.01	.01	.01
ΔF	1173.20***				819.33***				14.28***			
R^2	.22				.35				.35			
ΔR	.22				.13				.00			

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, sr = Semipartial (part) Correlation.

IS and SL were centered at their means.

* $p < .05.$ ** $p < .01.$ *** $p < .001.$

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Immediate Supervisor Support, Senior Leadership Support, and Employee Level – Job Satisfaction

DV: Job Satisfaction									
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variables	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
Constant	3.52	.05		3.53	.05		3.50	.05	
IS	.29	.01	.33***	.23	.06	.25***	.25	.06	.28***
SL	.44	.01	.51***	.41	.06	.48***	.38	.06	.45***
EL1	.13	.05	.08**	.11	.05	.07*	.14	.05	.09**
EL2	.11	.05	.07*	.09	.05	.06	.13	.05	.08*
ISxSL				.02	.01	.02*	.13	.05	.15*
ISxEL1				.07	.06	.06	.05	.06	.05
ISxEL2				.07	.06	.05	.05	.06	.03
SLxEL1				.03	.06	.03	.06	.06	.05
SLxEL2				.04	.06	.03	.07	.07	.05
ISxSLxEL1							-.11	.06	-.10
ISxSLxEL2							-.12	.06	-.09*
ΔF	1048.39***			1.36			2.48		
R²	.51			.51			.51		
ΔR	.51			.00			.00		

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, EL1 = Individual Contributors versus Managers of People or Process and Upper Managers, EL2 = Managers of People or Process versus Individual Contributors and Upper Managers.
IS and SL were centered at their means.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Immediate Supervisor Support, Senior Leadership Support, and Employee Level – Work-Life Balance

DV: Work Life Balance

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variables	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
Constant	3.34	.07		3.32	.07		3.30	.07	
IS	.35	.02	.31***	.35	.09	.31***	.37	.09	.33***
SL	.43	.02	.39***	.45	.09	.40***	.42	.09	.38***
EL1	-.01	.07	.00	.00	.07	.00	.03	.07	.02
EL2	-.08	.07	-.04	-.08	.07	-.04	-.06	.08	-.03
ISxSL				.05	.01	.05***	.16	.08	.15*
ISxEL1				-.01	.09	.00	-.04	.09	-.02
ISxEL2				.05	.09	.03	.04	.09	.02
SLxEL1				.01	.09	.01	.03	.09	.02
SLxEL2				-.04	.09	-.02	-.01	.10	-.01
ISxSLxEL1							-.14	.08	-.10
ISxSLxEL2							-.08	.08	-.05
ΔF	545.81***			3.50**			3.10		
R²	.35			.35			.35		
ΔR	.35			.00			.00		

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, EL1 = Individual Contributors versus Managers of People or Process and Upper Managers, EL2 = Managers of People or Process versus Individual Contributors and Upper Managers.
IS and SL were centered at their means.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Immediate Supervisor Support, Senior Leadership Support, and Employee Level – Empowerment

DV: Empowerment

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β	B	*SE*	β
Constant	3.85	.04		3.86	.05		3.85	.05	
IS	.39	.01	.42***	.29	.06	.31***	.30	.06	.32***
SL	.45	.01	.49***	.47	.06	.51***	.46	.06	.50***
EL1	-.13	.04	-.08**	-.14	.05	-.09**	-.13	.05	-.08**
EL2	-.11	.05	-.07*	-.12	.05	-.08**	-.12	.05	-.07*
ISxSL				.01	.01	.01	.05	.05	.05
ISxEL1				.10	.06	.08	.09	.06	.07
ISxEL2				.11	.06	.07	.11	.06	.07
SLxEL1				-.02	.06	-.01	-.01	.06	-.01
SLxEL2				-.03	.06	-.02	-.02	.06	-.01
ISxSLxEL1							-.05	.05	-.05
ISxSLxEL2							-.02	.05	-.01
ΔF	1457.90***			.90			1.68		
R²	.59			.59			.59		
ΔR	.59			.00			.00		

Note. IS = Immediate Supervisor Support, SL = Senior Leadership Support, EL1 = Individual Contributors versus Managers of People or Process and Upper Managers, EL2 = Managers of People or Process versus Individual Contributors and Upper Managers.
IS and SL were centered at their means.
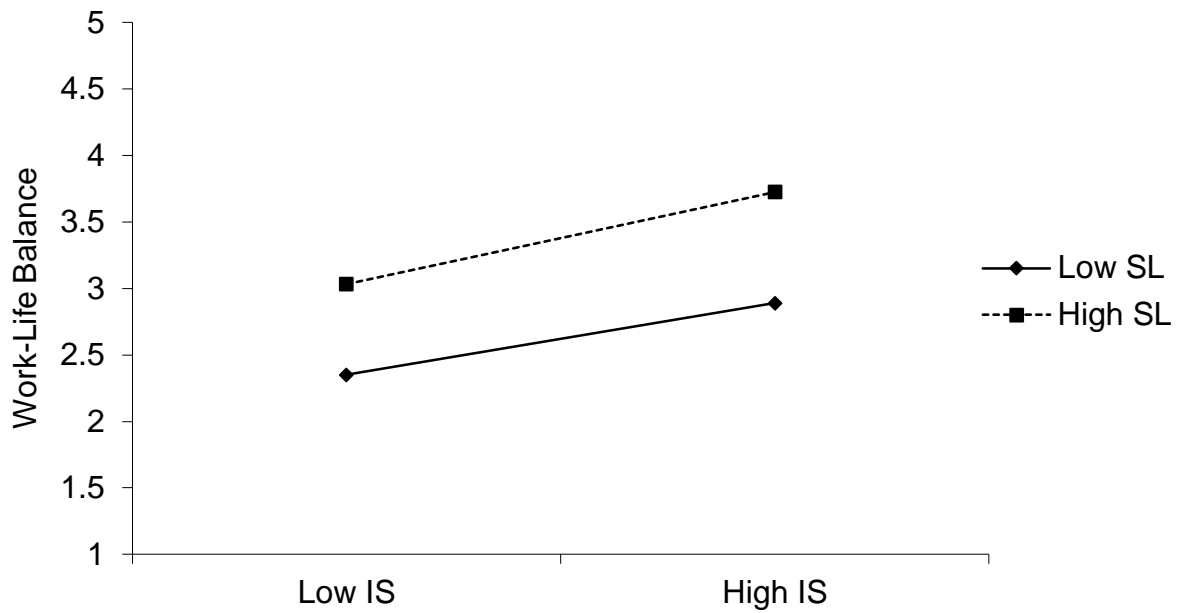* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Figure 1. The relationship between immediate supervisor support (IS) and work-life balance at the

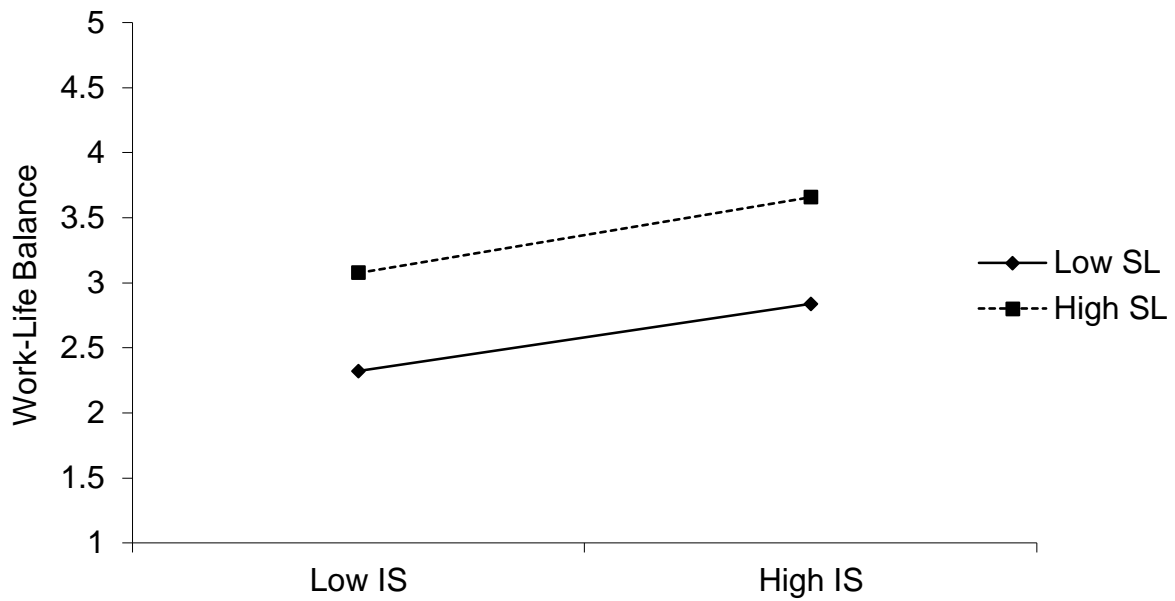high and low levels of senior leadership (SL).

Figure 2. The relationship between immediate supervisor support (IS) and work-life balance at the

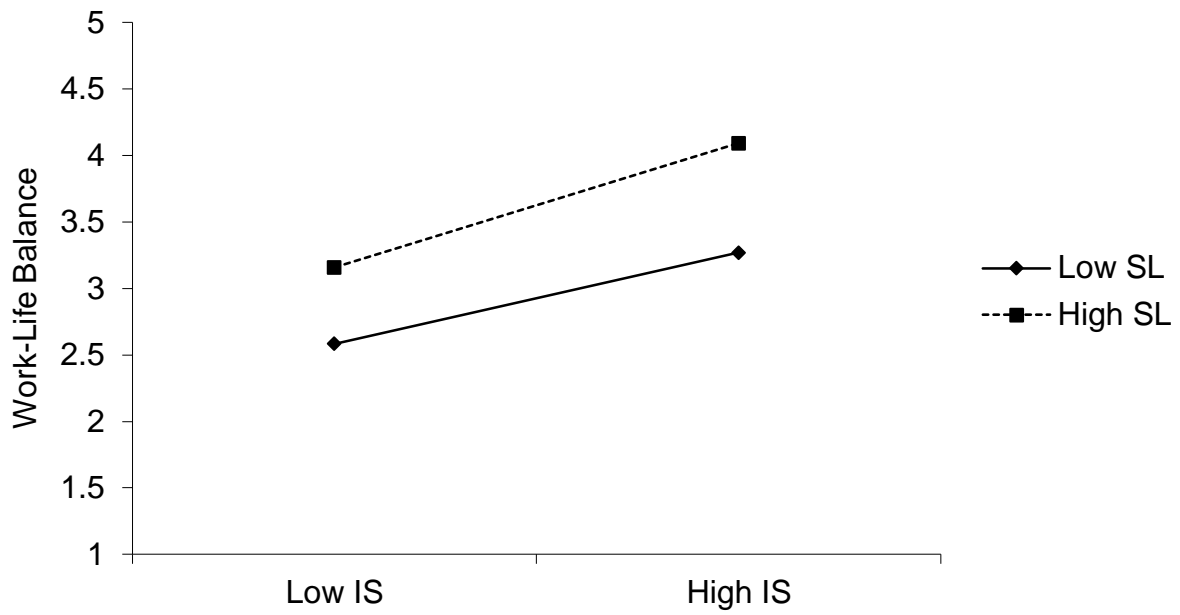high and low levels of senior leadership (SL) for individual contributors.

Figure 3. The relationship between immediate supervisor support (IS) and work-life balance at the

high and low levels of senior leadership (SL) for managers of people or process.
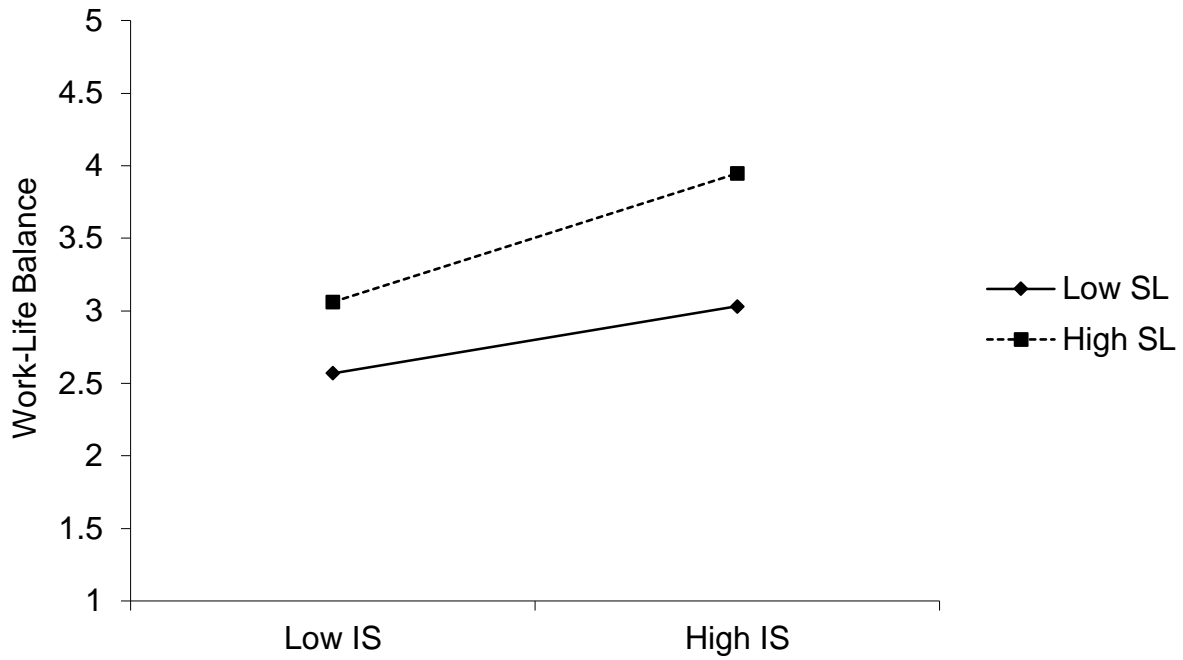
Figure 4. The relationship between immediate supervisor support (IS) and work-life balance at the

high and low levels of senior leadership (SL) for upper managers.

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ABSTRACT

INFLUENCE OF LEVELS OF LEADERSHIP ON WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND JOB SATISFACTION

by

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Leadership is considered to be a dynamic process that occurs at multiple levels and is influenced by a number of mediating and moderating concepts. The present research evaluated well-established links between immediate supervisor job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment together with senior leadership support, and the way it influences work outcomes above and beyond immediate supervisors. It was also hypothesized that senior leadership support moderates the relationship between immediate supervisor support and work outcomes. Results were evaluated for employees at different levels, namely, individual contributors, managers, and upper management.

Findings suggest that although important, immediate supervisors are not the most influential contributors to employee's work outcomes, and that the executive leadership team has a greater impact on employees' feelings of job satisfaction, work-life balance and empowerment. The moderation hypothesis was not supported suggesting that presence of both leadership levels are important and influence work outcomes positively. No results were found to support that there is a difference in the way both leadership levels affect employees at different levels. The results of

this research are beneficial for both applied and research audiences as it emphasizes the importance

of leadership behaviors at all levels on employee work attitudes.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

I am originally from Russia and moved to the United States in 2002. I graduated from Pyatigorsk Linguistic University with a bachelor's degree in developmental psychology and English as my second major prior to moving to the US. After my petition for a Green Card was granted, I went back to school and completed my second bachelor's at Madonna University in 2008. While at Madonna University, I discovered I/O Psychology and it was an instant fit. Years spent at Wayne State University were marked with meeting wonderful people, great learnings, and personal and professional growth. Working on my Ph.D. was the most challenging and rewarding endeavor in my life so far.

I was granted US citizenship in 2012 and currently work for Jones Lang LaSalle Services (JLL) as a talent development manager. My job brings me a lot of joy, and I am very thankful to have such education that makes it possible for me to have a career within such iconic organization. When I am not working I enjoy ballroom dancing and often travel to dance festivals all over the US and internationally. I believe that "life begins at the end of our comfort zone." I will continue to look for environments that challenge me and encourage my development the same way the Wayne State Ph.D. program did.