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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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The Moderating Role of Self-Efficacy in The Effect of Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles on Power Demand

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Abstract

Decision-making styles serve as a critical indicator for understanding employee attitudes in the face of uncertainty and challenging situations. In today's competitive, dynamic, and rapidly evolving business environment, decision-making styles are no longer confined to individual tendencies but have become key determinants of organizational performance, adaptive capacity, and strategic effectiveness. The retail sector is among the industries where these dynamics are most clearly reflected, as customer expectations evolve rapidly, immediate action is often required, and competition remains intense. In this context, decision-making styles of employees not only influence operational processes but also directly affect their intra-organizational interactions, leadership behaviors, motivation levels, organizational commitment, and power demand. The aim of this research is to examine the effect of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on employees' increased power demand and to explore the moderating role of self-efficacy within this relationship. In line with this, the research was conducted using data collected from employees working in the retail sector, and analyses were carried out through structural equation modeling. The findings reveal that both rational and intuitive decision-making styles have significant and positive effects on increased power demand, while self-efficacy plays a moderating role in this relationship. These results underscore the importance of individual cognitive tendencies and psychological resources in shaping employee behavior, offering both theoretical and practical contributions to the empowerment of human resources in the retail industry.

Keywords: *Rational decision-making, intuitive decision-making, power demand, self-efficacy, retail sector.*

Öz

Karar verme biçimleri, çalışanların belirsizlikler ve karmaşık iş durumları karşısında sergiledikleri tutumları anlamada önemli bir göstergedir. Günümüzün rekabetçi, dinamik ve hızla değişen iş ortamında, çalışanların karar verme yaklaşımları yalnızca bireysel bir eğilim olmanın ötesine geçerek örgütsel performansın, uyum kapasitesinin ve stratejik etkinliğin belirleyici unsurlarından biri haline gelmiştir. Perakende sektörü müşteri beklentilerinin hızlı değiştiği, anlık tepki vermeyi gerektiren ve yoğun rekabetin yaşandığı bir sektör olması nedeniyle bu dinamiklerin en yoğun gözlemlendiği alanlardan biridir. Bu sektörde görev yapan çalışanların karar verme biçimleri, yalnızca operasyonel süreçleri değil, aynı zamanda örgüt içi etkileşimleri, liderlik davranışlarını, motivasyon düzeylerini, örgütsel bağlılıklarını ve güç arayışlarını da doğrudan etkilemektedir. Bu araştırmanın amacı, akılcı ve sezgisel karar verme stillerinin çalışanların daha fazla güç talebi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemeyi ve öz-yeterliliğin bu ilişkideki düzenleyici rolünü ortaya koymaktır. Bu nedenle çalışma, perakende sektöründe görev yapan çalışanlardan elde edilen veriler kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiş, analizler yapısal eşitlik modellemesi aracılığıyla yürütülmüştür. Bulgular, hem akılcı hem de sezgisel karar verme stillerinin daha fazla güç talebi üzerinde anlamlı ve pozitif etkiler yarattığını, öz-yeterliliğin ise bu ilişkide düzenleyici bir rol üstlendiğini göstermiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar, bireysel bilişsel eğilimlerin ve psikolojik kaynakların çalışan davranışlarını şekillendirmedeki önemine dikkat çekerek, perakende sektöründe insan kaynaklarının güçlendirilmesine yönelik teorik ve pratik katkılar sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Akılcı karar verme, sezgisel karar verme, güç talebi, öz-yeterlilik, perakende sektörü.*

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Introduction

Throughout life, individuals face situations requiring careful decision-making. These decisions may involve daily needs and desires, as well as social, economic, educational, or political matters. To ensure life satisfaction and foster meaningful societal development, individuals must make better, more effective decisions (Samancı & Mazlumoğlu, 2023, p.669). Decision-making is a fundamental cognitive skill and functional process enabling individuals to identify and select the most appropriate option. In this process, the decision-maker compares options according to their values, preferences, and priorities. The goal is to choose the best alternative based on specific criteria (Crivelli et al., 2024, p.1; Litvaj et al., 2022, p.2). Regardless of type or nature, decision-making always involves evaluating alternatives to achieve a goal. In today's dynamic world, decision-making has become increasingly complex, shaped by cognitive and motivational factors; balancing rational analysis with intuitive judgment is now central to making effective decisions (Bavolar et al., 2024, p.9).

As the global economy grows increasingly digital and competitive, retail has evolved into a multifaceted field in which customer satisfaction intersects with real-time decisions and long-term strategy. Driven by technological innovations, data practices, and shifting consumer behavior, this transformation has made decision-making in the sector more complex than ever. Employees' decision-making styles now critically influence not only operational efficiency but also organizational sustainability, leadership development, and career motivation. The multidimensional nature of retail decision-making demands holistic consideration of cognitive awareness, psychological resilience, and organizational alignment (Phillips et al., 1984, p.497). These factors are pivotal in adapting to rapid industry changes and underscore the importance of decision-making styles.

Decision-making typically follows two core styles: rational and intuitive. Rational decision-making involves systematic thinking, data analysis, and logic, while intuitive decision-making draws on experience, instinct, and rapid judgment (Işıkgöz, 2025, p.1046). Both styles influence organizations differently and play a key role in shaping leadership behavior, task performance, and strategic impact.

In fast-paced industries like retail, decision-making styles affect more than performance; they also shape individuals' desire to expand their influence within the organization, i.e. power demand. Power demand refers to the desire for greater authority, responsibility, and decision-making power, closely tied to status-seeking and drive for social impact (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006, p.512; Maner & Mead, 2010, p.483; Sturm & Antonakis, 2023, p.137). Central to this dynamic is self-efficacy; one's belief in their ability to successfully complete a task (Bandura, 1997; Newman et al., 2023, p.404). Research shows that individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to make effective decisions under uncertainty, pursue leadership roles, and seek power with greater determination (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p.3). Self-efficacy contributes not only to personal achievement but also regulates initiative-taking and managerial responsibility in decision-making (Ferreira-Neto, 2023, p.4).

This research makes two original contributions to decision-making literature. First, it addresses a notable gap by examining decision-making styles in relation to power demand, whereas prior research has largely focused on performance, job satisfaction, or stress. Second, it proposes a holistic model integrating Bandura's social cognitive theory with McClelland's need for power framework, linking cognitive and motivational processes through the moderating role of self-efficacy. Thus, the research offers a fresh perspective on how decision-making styles shape power demand among retail employees, contributing to both theoretical insight and practical application.

Conceptual Framework

Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles

Decision making refers to the process by which individuals select the most suitable option among alternatives when facing problems or opportunities. Byrnes conceptualizes it as a four-stage process:

goal setting, e.g., spending time with friends; identifying alternatives, e.g., playing sports; evaluating and ranking options, e.g., playing sports is preferable to going out; and finally, choosing the highest-ranked option. This framework highlights that decision making is not merely a linear sequence of logical steps; rather, but a dynamic and iterative cognitive process (Byrnes, 2002, pp.208–209).

In daily life, individuals frequently engage in decision-making, often without conscious awareness. These decisions are not always guided by rational thought; emotional, social, and environmental influences may lead individuals to suboptimal choices. Therefore, decision-making is a fundamental skill that affects quality of life. Phillips et al., explain this phenomenon through dual-process cognition theory, which posits two distinct information-processing mechanisms: one fast, intuitive, automatic, and effortless; the other slower, deliberate, analytical, and cognitively demanding (Evans & Stanovich, 2013, p.225). Within this framework, decision-making is not merely choosing among options but a multidimensional mental activity involving processes such as information gathering, evaluation, problem solving, memory retrieval, and judgment (Reyna & Brainerd, 2011, p.181). This definition emphasizes that decision-making is not merely analytical, but also dynamic, iterative, and cognitively structured. Under cognitive overload and uncertainty, decision quality is shaped by psychological traits and information-processing styles. Accordingly, research aimed at understanding decision-making behavior remains essential (Byrnes, 2002, p.212).

Harren (1979) categorizes decision-making styles into three types: dependent, rational, and intuitive. Dependent decision-makers delegate responsibility to others, whereas rational and intuitive decision-makers assume personal accountability. Rational decision-makers follow a deliberate, logical process, whereas intuitive ones rely on swift, instinctive judgments they deem reliable (Scott & Bruce, 1995, p.820). Phillips et al. (1984) observe that both rational and dependent decision-makers confront problems rather than avoid them; however, dependent individuals show lower confidence in their problem-solving capabilities. Conversely, those using intuitive or rational strategies approach problems with greater confidence but reduced personal responsibility. These findings support the acknowledgement of a fourth style: decision avoidance (Phillips et al., 1984, p.497).

According to the theoretical framework, decision-making is a learned, habitual response to situations that require evaluative judgment. Decision-making style is not a personality trait; it reflects a context-dependent tendency to respond in specific ways. Literature on decision-making styles acknowledges that, alongside individual differences, situational factors also shape decision-making styles. The General Decision-Making Styles (GDMS) model developed by Scott and Bruce (1995) foundational in this field. It comprises five distinct styles: rational, based on systematic information search and logical evaluation; intuitive, incorporating instinct and emotion; dependent, relying on others' guidance; avoidant, involving delay or evasion; and spontaneous, reflecting rapid, impulsive decisions (Scott & Bruce, 1995, pp.818–831).

In recent years, as decision-making styles have been addressed more systematically, a two-dimensional scale by Hamilton, Shih, and Mohammed (2016) has gained significant ground. It classifies decision-making styles into two main categories: rational and intuitive (Hamilton et al., 2016, pp.411–412).

The Rational Decision-Making Style is grounded in systematic analysis and logical evaluation. Decision-makers carefully weigh probabilities, risks, and potential outcomes through a deliberate, structured process involving thorough consideration of available options. This style typically requires high cognitive effort, an information-seeking attitude, and a tendency to avoid risk. It is especially effective in situations with low uncertainty and accessible information.

The Intuitive Decision-Making Style draws on emotions, instincts, and prior experiences. According to Hamilton et al. (2016), it involves rapid judgments, instinctive responses, and cognitive efficiency. It offers advantages in time-sensitive situations but may increase the likelihood of flawed decisions when information is limited. Emotional intelligence and experience play a pivotal role in this decision-making style.

Hamilton et al. (2016) emphasize that decision-making cannot be reduced to a single style. Many individuals employ both styles depending on situational demands. They argue that decision-making is shaped by environmental factors, cognitive traits, and temporal constraints, offering a more flexible and holistic perspective.

In short, decision-making styles depend not only on individual traits but also on situational and environmental factors, highlighting their multidimensional, dynamic, and flexible nature.

Power Demand

Power is defined as an individual's capacity to influence their environment and is directly linked to affecting others' attitudes, behaviors, and decisions (Robbins & Judge, 2012, p.243). In organizations, power refers to an employee's ability to influence work processes, assume responsibility, make independent decisions, and actively implement them. Within this framework, power is not merely a managerial privilege, but also a psychological need that affects employee motivation and job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p.159).

Employees' perception of power, and their demand for it, is shaped by their sense of meaning at work, control over tasks, and active participation in decision-making. Key factors that increase power demand include the support of autonomy, delegation of discretionary authority, and recognition of personal contributions.

Power demand refers to an individual's desire to influence others, participate in decision-making, and attain higher status within the social hierarchy. It encompasses not only efforts to maintain status, but also cognitive and motivational tendencies aimed at acquiring greater power and authority (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006, p.511). It also reflects the pursuit of workplace effectiveness and personal potential.

Power demand, as the aspiration to influence, participate in decision-making, and rise within the organizational hierarchy, extends beyond preserving the status quo. It reflects deeper motivation to realize one's potential and enhance workplace impact. This is embodied in "greater power demand," which manifests as a desire for increased responsibility, creative contribution, and initiative (Hackman & Lawler, 1971, p.262). Importantly, this demand is not limited to personal ambition; it directly affects strategic outcomes such as organizational innovation, adaptability, and competitive advantage (Çavuş, 2008, p.241). When employees perceive their roles as extending beyond assigned duties and actively contribute, power demand can drive organizational success. In this light, power demand emerges as a cornerstone of both individual growth and organizational agility.

In the retail sector, power demand extends beyond operational duties. It involves active engagement in customer relationships, problem-solving, service quality, and input on product placement or promotional strategies. Such involvement deepens employee commitment and enables organizations to respond swiftly to evolving customer needs (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, p.160). When this demand is unmet, employees may feel undervalued and disengaged, resulting in lower job satisfaction. By contrast, when employees are empowered to create meaning, share ideas, and propose innovative solutions, both organizational productivity and service quality rise (Spector, 1985, p.120; Ivancevich & McMahon, 1977, p.553).

In today's retail industry, shifting customer expectations, the need for sustainable service quality, and intense competition require employees to assume greater authority and responsibility. Field employees, such as sales consultants, cashiers, and product managers, hold positions that directly shape customer experience. Therefore, their desire to have greater influence at work and contribute meaningfully brings power demand to the forefront of the industry.

The need for self-actualization at the top of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, along with Alderfer's concept of growth needs, provides the theoretical framework for understanding employees' increasing demand for empowerment. In sectors like retail, where adapting to rapidly shifting customer expectations is essential, individuals' desire for self-fulfillment and value creation stands out as a key psychological driver of power demand (Hackman & Lawler, 1971, p.262).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in their ability to succeed in a specific task or situation. First introduced by Albert Bandura, this concept lies at the heart of social cognitive theory and is regarded as one of the most powerful internal factors influencing behavior, emotional state, and motivation. According to Bandura, individuals act not merely based on their actual knowledge or skill level, but on their belief in how effectively they can apply those abilities (Bandura, 1977, p.191). Thus, self-efficacy concerns not so much a person's true capacity as their expectations about how well they can utilize it.

The development of self-efficacy is shaped by four primary sources. Foremost among these are direct experiences of success, which reinforce self-efficacy through the successful completion of similar tasks in the past. Such experiences enhance an individual's sense of control, thereby increasing their expectation of success in future tasks. The second source, modeling or observational learning, involves witnessing the successful performance of others who are perceived as similar, fostering the belief that "I can do it too." This can be especially influential in new tasks where the individual lacks prior experience. The third source, verbal persuasion, involves motivational and encouraging feedback provided by significant individuals within one's social environment, such as teachers or supervisors. These affirmations help individuals form positive expectations about their own capabilities. Finally, physiological and emotional states also influence perceptions of self-efficacy. For instance, high levels of anxiety, stress, or physical fatigue may lead to negative predictions about one's performance (Schunk, 1991, pp.209–211). Together, these four sources highlight that self-efficacy is not a fixed personality trait, but rather a dynamic construct shaped by experience, environmental feedback, and cognitive appraisal.

Individuals with high self-efficacy be more determined in tackling challenging tasks, more resilient in the face of failure, and more persistent in pursuing their goals. They also demonstrate greater success in areas such as stress management, performance, and problem-solving (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p.242). In contrast, those with low self-efficacy often exaggerate obstacles, avoid difficult tasks, and give up easily (Judge & Bono, 2001, p.83). Thus, self-efficacy is a key psychological determinant that shapes how individuals respond to adversity.

Self-efficacy has been identified as a key determinant not only in individual motivation and performance, but also in a wide range of organizational outcomes, including learning behaviors (Saks et al., 2007), organizational citizenship (Walumbwa et al., 2011), innovation (Tierney & Farmer, 2002), and leadership behaviors (Luthans et al., 2005). In this context, self-efficacy is regarded as a powerful cognitive motivator that encourages individuals to take initiative, contribute beyond formal duties, share knowledge, and demonstrate leadership. With these qualities, self-efficacy stands out as a strategic variable for sustaining both individual psychological empowerment and organizational effectiveness.

Self-efficacy is recognized as a key determinant on individuals' decision-making processes. Those with high self-efficacy engage more actively in decision-making and are willing to make choices even under conditions of uncertainty (Tierney & Farmer, 2002, p.1141). These individuals can employ not only rational information processing but also experiential and intuitive forms of evaluation effectively. In selecting decision-making styles, the sense of confidence—namely, self-efficacy—emerges as one of the primary determinants.

Self-efficacy also directly influences individuals' tendency to seek greater power and responsibility within organizational structures. Power demand can be defined as the desire for increased authority, decision-making rights, and control in the workplace. The literature indicates that individuals with high self-efficacy pursue power in order to exert greater influence, enhance their capacity to guide others, and participate more actively in decision-making processes (Fast et al., 2011, p.1142). Their heightened engagement in work roles, increased visibility in organizational decision mechanisms, and greater inclination toward managerial responsibilities contribute to power-oriented behaviors. These individuals not only fulfill their assigned tasks but also seek a voice in managerial domains and position themselves as candidates for leadership roles.

Building on this theoretical foundation, the current research titled *"The Moderating Role of Self-Efficacy in the Effect of Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles on Power Demand"* conceptualizes self-efficacy as a moderating variable that shapes the impact of decision-making styles on power demand. Within this framework, individuals with high self-efficacy are anticipated to show a stronger tendency to seek greater power and responsibility, regardless of whether they adopt a rational or intuitive decision-making style.

In this context, self-efficacy serves as a critical factor not only in shaping an individual's decision-making style, but also in transforming those decisions into behaviors that enhance organizational impact. Given that decision-making processes are shaped not only by rational mechanisms but also by perceptions of personal competence, the moderating role of self-efficacy in this relationship holds significance both theoretically and practically.

Methodology / Research Method

Purpose and Significance of the Research

The retail sector, one of the most dynamic areas in today's business landscape, stands out due to its intense competitive environment, rapidly evolving customer expectations, and the necessity for swift decision-making. Within this fast-paced environment, the decision-making styles adopted by employees play a pivotal role not only in shaping operational processes but also influencing psychological resilience and job performance. Rational (analytical) and intuitive (experiential) decision-making approaches particularly affect employee perceptions of workload, levels of burnout, and power demand. The rational decision-making style, grounded in systematic thinking, data analysis, and logical evaluation, enhances strategic consistency. In contrast, the intuitive style based on experience and instinct offers effective solutions in contexts such as customer interactions and crisis management, where rapid responses are crucial. However, the impact of these two decision-making styles on power demand depends on employees' levels of self-efficacy. Employees with high self-efficacy manage challenges more effectively, whereas those with lower self-efficacy may experience heightened stress and burnout. In this context, the primary aim of the research is to examine the effect of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on power demand among retail employees, and to reveal the moderating role of self-efficacy in this relationship. The research analyzes how cognitively demanding rational decision-making processes and error-prone intuitive tendencies shape employees' perceptions of power demand, and how self-efficacy modulates these effects.

This research seeks to address a significant gap in the literature by offering a deeper understanding of the psychological and behavioral dimensions of decision-making styles among the employees in retail sector. Existing research has typically explored the relationship between decision-making styles and power demand within general workplace contexts, without adequately focusing on the moderating role of self-efficacy in retail environments—where human interaction is intense and constant adaptation is required. The results hold promise for guiding the development of training and human resource strategies aimed at reducing experiences of stress and burnout among employees. Furthermore, by offering recommendations to increase self-efficacy in order to improve job satisfaction and productivity, the research is intended to make a meaningful contribution to both academic literature and practical applications in the retail industry. Ultimately, this research will guide the development of innovative and holistic approaches in human resource management, employee training, and workplace psychology.

Population and Sample

The population of this research consists of employees working in the retail sector in Istanbul. According to data from the Turkish Statistical Institute (TURKSTAT), there are approximately 3.6 million businesses operating in Türkiye. When producers and suppliers are included, around 2.3 million of these are connected to the retail sector, employing roughly 10.2 million people—representing 58% of the country's total workforce of about 17.5 million.

Given that a significant share of retail businesses and employees are concentrated in Istanbul, the city offers both strong representational power and practical advantages for data collection. The retail sector, with its high level of customer interaction and demand for rapid decision-making, provides a particularly suitable context for examining decision-making styles and the relationship between self-efficacy and power demand in business. To determine the appropriate sample size, a power analysis was conducted using the G*POWER 3.1 program, with a statistical power of 1-β = 0.95 and a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. The analysis indicated a minimum sample size of 115 participants; ultimately, data were collected from 328 respondents. Participants were reached through social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, WhatsApp groups, YouTube, and Twitter, as well as through professional chambers and associations. A random sampling method was employed. While these channels enhanced the statistical validity of the research and strengthened the sample's representativeness, the reliance on digital and institutional networks limited access to certain employee groups. As a result, the generalizability of the findings to the entire retail sector in Istanbul—and by extension, across Türkiye is somewhat constrained.

Hypotheses and Research Model

The main hypothesis of the research is that self-efficacy plays a moderating role in the impact of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on increased power demand.

H1: *There is a statistically significant relationship between rational and intuitive decision-making and increased power demand.*

H2: *There is a statistically significant relationship between rational and intuitive decision-making and self-efficacy.*

H3: *Self-efficacy has a moderating role in the effect of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on increased power demand.*

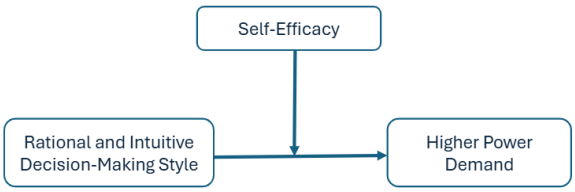

Figure 1. The Research Model

Data Collection Tools

The research includes multiple-choice questions covering demographic and general characteristics (gender, age, marital status, educational background, perceived income level, current position, work experience, and total duration of professional experience), along with items related to the three scales addressed.

Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Style Scale: To identify individuals' decision-making tendencies, the Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles Scale was used in the research. The scale is based on the original form developed by Hamilton, Shih, and Mohammed (2016). Its Turkish adaptation and validity-reliability tests have been conducted by İme, Soyer, and Keskinoğlu (2020). The scale aims to measure individuals' rational (analytical) and intuitive (emotional/automatic) tendencies in decision-making processes and consists of 10 items. Participants responded to each statement using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). In the research by İme, Soyer, and Keskinoğlu, the internal consistency coefficients of the Turkish version of the scale were reported as 0.82 for the rational decision-making dimension and 0.79 for the intuitive decision-making dimension.

Higher Power Demand Scale: In this research, the Higher Power Demand Scale was employed to assess individuals' levels of power-seeking within the workplace. Developed by Orçanlı (2021), this original measurement tool aims to capture individuals' tendencies to seek greater power, control, and influence when dissatisfied with the authority and impact afforded by their current roles. The scale comprises five items, and participants were asked to respond using a five-point Likert scale (1 =

Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree). In the original validation research, the scale's internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) was reported as 0.86. The theoretical foundation of the scale draws inspiration from psychological well-being and job attitude measures developed by Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979), which emphasize individuals' needs for autonomy, participation, and control in the workplace. This framework suggests that the desire for greater power is not solely related to status but also reflects a deeper motivation to fulfill psychological needs.

Self-Efficacy Scale: One of the tools used for data collection in this research is the Self-Efficacy Scale, which was adapted into Turkish and tested for validity and reliability by Yıldırım and İlhan (2010). The scale is designed to assess individuals' general self-efficacy beliefs and consists of 10 items rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

The data collection tools used in the research were selected to ensure the reliable and valid measurement of key variables, and to support their evaluation on a conceptually and metrically sound basis.

Findings

For the reliability analysis of the research data, Absolute Strict Parallel (strict), Parallel, Split-Half, and Cronbach's Alpha analyses are employed. Exceeding the 70% threshold for these criteria indicates that the results are considered reliable (Sart et al., 2018:120). In this research, the reliability coefficients are determined as follows: Parallel = 0.916, Cronbach's Alpha = 0.916, Strict = 0.918, and Split-Half = 0.914–0.920.

The gender distribution of participants shows that 60.1% (n=197) are male and 39.9% (n=131) are female. In terms of age, 29.3% (n=96) are under 25, 48.8% (n=160) fall within the 26–35 age range; 17.7% (n=58) are between 36–45, and 4.3% (n=14) are aged 45 and above. Regarding marital status, 36.6% (n=120) are married, while 63.4% (n=208) are single.

Educational background reveals that 0.6% (n=2) have completed primary school, 1.5% (n=5) middle school, 8.5% (n=28) high school, 54.0% (n=177) hold an associate degree, 26.5% (n=87) a bachelor's degree, and 8.8% (n=29) a postgraduate degree.

Table 1. Distribution of Participants According to Sociodemographic Characteristics (N=328)

Sociodemographic Characteristics		n	(%)
Gender	Male	197	60.1
	Female	131	39.9
Age	25 and below	96	29.3
	26-35 years	160	48.8
	36-45 years	58	17.7
	45 and above	14	4.3
Marital Status	Married	120	36.6
	Single	208	63.4
Educational Status	Primary school	2	0.6
	Middle school	5	1.5
	High school	28	8.5
	Associate Degree	177	54.0
	Bachelor's Degree	87	26.5
	Postgraduate Degree	29	8.8
Monthly Income Perception	Income is less than expenses	66	20.1
	Income equals expenses	173	52.7
	Income is more than expense	89	27.1
Sociodemographic Characteristics		**n**	**(%)**
Professional Position	Manager/Unit Manager	112	34.1
	Employee	216	65.9
Work Experience	0-5 years	108	32.9
	6-10 years	83	25.3
	11-15 years	87	26.5
	16-20 years	31	9.5
	21 years and above	19	5.8
Total Professional Experience	0-5 years	111	33.8
	6-10 years	120	36.6
	11-15 years	40	12.2
	16-20 years	37	11.3
	21 years and above	20	6.1

When the perceived monthly income of the participants is examined, it is seen that 20.1% (n=66) report earning less than their expenses, 52.7% (n=173) report income equal to expenses, and 27.1% (n=89) report earning more than they spend. In terms of job position, 34.1% (n=112) serve as managers or unit supervisors, while 65.9% (n=216) work as employees.

Work experience data show that 32.9% (n=108) have 0–5 years of experience, 25.3% (n=83) have 6–10 years, 26.5% (n=87) have 11–15 years, 9.5% (n=31) have 16–20 years, and 5.8% (n=19) have 21

years or more. Total professional experience is distributed as follows: 33.8% (n=111) have 0–5 years, 36.6% (n=120) have 6–10 years, 12.2% (n=40) have 11–15 years, 11.3% (n=37) have 16–20 years, and 6.1% (n=20) have 21 years or more.

To identify the factor structure in the study, explanatory factor analysis is conducted using the Principal Component Analysis method and the Oblimin rotation technique.

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Style Scale	Percentage of Variance Explained	Cronbach-Alpha (CA)	Answer Average
Rational Decision-Making	%35.87	0.909	4.344
Intuitive Decision-Making	%30.21	0.907	3.271
KMO= 0.902; Bartlett χ2=5734.22 and p= 0.000; Percentage of Variance Explained: %66.08			
Higher Power Demand Scale	**Percentage of Variance Explained**	**Cronbach-Alpha (CA)**	**Answer Average**
Higher Power Demand	%68.63	0.910	5.746
KMO= 0.903; Bartlett χ2=6909.47 and p= 0.000; Percentage of Variance Explained: %68.63			
Self-Efficacy Scale	**Percentage of Variance Explained**	**Cronbach-Alpha (CA)**	**Answer Average**
Initiation Sub-Dimension	%28.11	0.911	1.772
Resilience Sub-Dimension	%22.46	0.905	3.777
Persistence–Perseverance Sub-Dimension	%19.05	0.902	2.444
KMO= 0.910; Bartlett χ2=7103.82 and p= 0.000; Percentage of Variance Explained: %69.62			

Within the factor structure, two factors are identified for the rational and intuitive decision-making style, one factor for the higher power demand scale, and three factors for the self-efficacy scale, each with eigenvalues greater than 1. For all three scales examined, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy exceeds the threshold of 0.70, indicating a high level of adequacy. Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity yields statistically significant results at $p < 0.01$. According to the anti-image correlation matrix, the cross-correlation coefficients between items are found to be above the critical value of 0.5. Furthermore, since none of the items in the extraction column are below the 0.20 threshold across the three scales, no items are excluded from the analysis. Factor loadings range from 0.66 to 0.84 for the rational and intuitive decision-making style scale, from 0.56 to 0.77 for the higher power demand scale, and from 0.65 to 0.80 for the self-efficacy scale.

Following this stage, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is conducted to validate the factor structure.

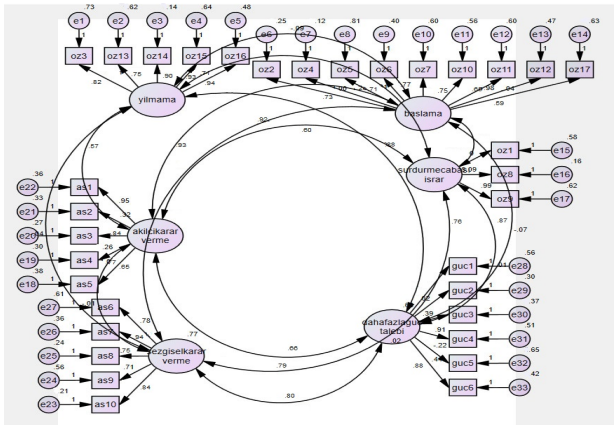

Figure 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result

As a result of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the goodness-of-fit indices indicate that the factor structures of the three scales under examination are confirmed, and these results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. CFA Goodness of Fit Results

Measurement (Fit Statistics)	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Research Model Value	Fit Status
General Model Fit				
X^2 /sd	≤ 3	$\leq 4\text{-}5$	2.88	Good fit
Comparative Fit Statistics				
NFI	≥ 0.95	0.94-0.90	0.960	Good fit
TLI (NNFI)	≥ 0.95	0.94-0.90	0.972	Good fit
IFI	≥ 0.95	0.94-0.90	0.978	Good fit
CFI	≥ 0.97	≥ 0.95	0.965	Acceptable fit
RMSEA	≤ 0.05	0.06-0.08	0.014	Good fit
Absolute Fit Indices				
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.89-0.85	0.929	Good fit
AGFI	≥ 0.90	0.89-0.85	0.934	Good fit
Residual-Based Fit Index				
RMR	≤ 0.05	0.06-0.08	0.025	Good fit

In Table 3, the value of X^2/df is found to be 2.88, which meets the criterion of being below 3, indicating a "good fit." The NFI value of 0.960 falls within the 0.94–0.90 range, suggesting an "acceptable fit." TLI (NNFI) = 0.972, IFI = 0.978, and RMSEA = 0.014 each meet the 0.95 or 0.05 thresholds, indicating

"good fit." Similarly, CFI = 0.965 meets the 0.95 criterion, denoting an "acceptable fit." GFI = 0.929, AGFI = 0.934, and RMR = 0.025 also meet the respective 0.90 or 0.05 benchmarks, supporting a "good fit." These results confirm the factor structure of the three scales examined in the analysis.

To determine the relationships between main dimensions and sub-dimensions, a correlation analysis is conducted.

efficacy subdimension at 30.4% (r = 0.304, p = 0.007), and with the overall dimension of the higher power demand scale at 42.1% (r = 0.421, p = 0.011).

Following the confirmation of the factor structure through confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling is conducted. In this research, the moderating role of self-efficacy in the effect of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on higher power demand is investigated.

Table 4. Relationship Analysis of Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles with Self-Efficacy and Power Demand

		Initiation Sub-Dimension	*Resilience Sub-Dimension*	*Persistence–Perseverance Sub-Dimension*	**Self-Efficacy Dimension**	**Higher Power Demand Dimension**
Rational Sub-Dimension	***r***	0.344*	0.330*	0.337*	0.364*	0.485*
	p	0.008	0.002	0.004	0.009	0.038
Intuitive Sub-Dimension	***r***	0.217*	0.261*	0.211	0.306*	0.352*
	p	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.006	0.002
Rational and Intuitive Decision-Making Styles Dimension	***r***	0.369*	0.285*	0.317*	0.304*	0.421*
	p	0.000	0.000	0.009	0.007	0.011

** Significant relationship for p<0.05*

The rational subdimension has a statistically significant positive correlation with the initiation subdimension at 34.4% (r = 0.344, p = 0.008), with the resilience subdimension at 33.0% (r = 0.330, p = 0.002), with the persistence–perseverance subdimension at 33.7% (r = 0.337, p = 0.004), with the self-efficacy subdimension at 36.4% (r = 0.364, p = 0.009), and with the overall dimension of the higher power demand scale at 48.5% (r = 0.485, p = 0.038).

The intuitive subdimension has a statistically significant positive correlation with the initiation subdimension at 21.7% (r = 0.217, p = 0.000), with the resilience subdimension at 26.1% (r = 0.261, p = 0.000), with the persistence–perseverance subdimension at 21.1% (r = 0.211, p = 0.003), with the self-efficacy subdimension at 30.6% (r = 0.306, p = 0.006), and with the overall dimension of the higher power demand scale at 35.2% (r = 0.352, p = 0.002).

The overall dimension of the rational and intuitive decision-making styles scale has a statistically significant positive correlation with the initiation subdimension at 36.9% (r = 0.369, p = 0.008), with the resilience subdimension at 28.5% (r = 0.285, p = 0.000), with the persistence–perseverance subdimension at 31.7% (r = 0.317, p = 0.009), with the self-

A moderating effect refers to how one variable alters the impact of another. It also indicates the presence of a third variable that influences the relationship between a dependent and an independent variable. This third variable may increase or decrease the effect on the dependent variable by modifying or regulating the influence of another variable. Investigating moderation allows researchers to better understand and explain the impact of a given variable.

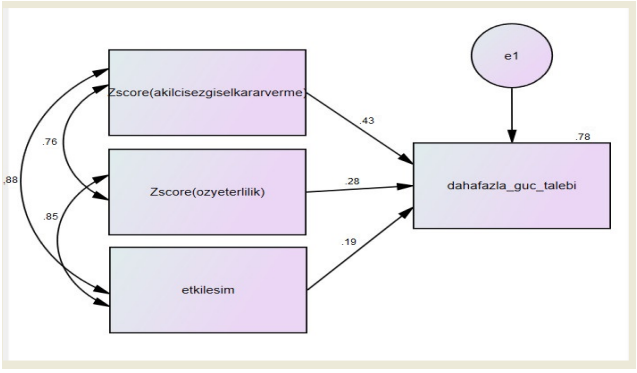

Figure 3. Structural Equation Model Estimation

The first step in examining the moderating effect is to obtain the standardized values of the independent variables. In this research, the standardization process is carried out using SPSS version 27.0. To include the moderator variable in the model under the label "interaction," an interaction

variable must be created by multiplying the independent variable with the moderator variable (self-efficacy).

Table 5. Goodness Of Fit Results For Sem Estimates

Measurement (Fit Statistics)	Good Fit	Acceptable Fit	Research Model Value	Fit Status
General Model Fit				
X^2 /sd	$\leq_3$	$\leq_{4-5}$	2.12	Good fit
Comparative Fit Statistics				
NFI	$\geq_{0.95}$	0.94-0.90	0.971	Good fit
TLI (NNFI)	$\geq_{0.95}$	0.94-0.90	0.988	Good fit
IFI	$\geq_{0.95}$	0.94-0.90	0.930	Acceptable fit
CFI	$\geq_{0.97}$	$\geq_{0.95}$	0.989	Good fit
RMSEA	$\leq_{0.05}$	0.06-0.08	0.034	Good fit
Absolute Fit Indices				
GFI	$\geq_{0.90}$	0.89-0.85	0.929	Good fit
AGFI	$\geq_{0.90}$	0.89-0.85	0.944	Good fit
Residual-Based Fit Index				
RMR	$\leq_{0.05}$	0.06-0.08	0.027	Good fit

In Table 5, the value of χ^2/df is 2.12, which meets the criterion of being below 3, indicating a "good fit." NFI = 0.971 meets the 0.95 threshold, indicating "good fit"; TLI (NNFI) = 0.988 also meets the 0.95 criterion, indicating "good fit"; IFI = 0.930 falls within the 0.94–0.90 range, indicating "acceptable fit"; CFI = 0.989 meets the 0.97 threshold, indicating "good fit"; RMSEA = 0.034 meets the 0.05 criterion, indicating "good fit"; GFI = 0.929 and AGFI = 0.944 both meet the 0.90 threshold, indicating "good fit"; and RMR = 0.027 meets the 0.05 criterion, also indicating "good fit." Based on the goodness-of-fit criteria for the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) estimation, the estimated coefficients are deemed suitable for interpretation.

Table 6. SEM Prediction Results

Structural relationship	Direction	Estimated coefficient	St. Error	t-statistic	p	Result
ASKV→DGT	+	0.431	0.114	3.781	0.000*	Significant Relationship
OZY→DGT	+	0.280	0.061	4.590	0.000*	Significant Relationship
Interaction →DGT	+	0.192	0.037	5.189	0.000*	Significant Relationship

** Significant relationship for 0.05*

Since the interaction term is significant, it is confirmed that the moderator variable alters the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable. It is seen that self-efficacy modifies the relationship between rational and intuitive decision-making styles and higher power demand. Self-efficacy may either amplify or diminish the effect of rational and intuitive decision-making styles on higher power demand. To illustrate the nature of this increase or decrease, a graphical interface developed by Dawson and Richter (2006) was used. Figure 4 presents the effect level graph of the moderator variable. The relevant program was downloaded from www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm.

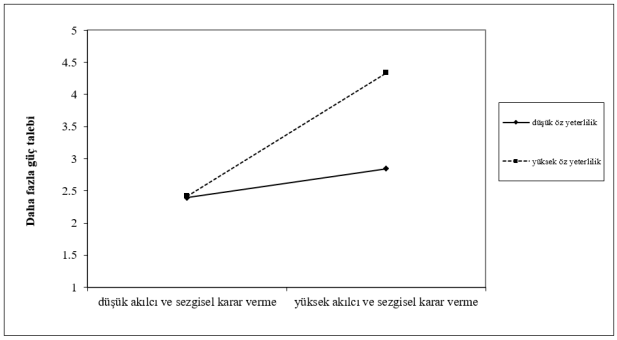

Figure 4. Moderator Effect Level Graph

As illustrated in Figure 4, among individuals with low levels of self-efficacy, high level of rational and intuitive decision-making ability does not lead to a substantial increase in power demand. In contrast, for individuals with high self-efficacy, when rational and intuitive decision-making ability is high, the level of power demand increases significantly. In this case, the moderating effect is observed specifically among individuals with high self-efficacy. When self-efficacy is low, the moderating effect does not result in notable changes.

The research findings reveal that rational and intuitive decision-making styles are significantly associated with individuals' tendency to demand greater power (H_1 is supported). This suggests that active participation in decision-making processes leads individuals to seek more responsibility within the organization. Similarly, Lange et al. (2022) demonstrate the impact of decision-making autonomy on performance and the pursuit of influence, emphasizing that decision participation

unsupported by self-efficacy is ineffective, particularly in uncertain environments.

The second hypothesis (H_2), which predicts a significant relationship between rational and intuitive decision-making and self-efficacy, is also confirmed by the findings. It is observed that individuals who exert cognitive effort in decision-making processes are unable to manage these processes effectively or fully demonstrate their potential if their level of self-efficacy is low. This finding aligns with Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy. Likewise, Lim et al. (2023) examine the influence of self-efficacy levels on participation in decision-making and innovative behaviors among retail sector employees, identifying a strong positive relationship.

The third hypothesis (H_3) is also supported, indicating that self-efficacy plays a moderating role in the effect of decision-making styles on power demand. Among individuals with low self-efficacy, active participation in decision-making does not translate into increased power demand; however, among those with high self-efficacy, this effect becomes more pronounced. This finding suggests that decision-making behavior is not solely linked to cognitive skills but also to individuals' confidence and perceived competence. Especially in performance-driven and high-interaction sectors, employees' sense of confidence plays a decisive role in their willingness to demand power (Lange et al., 2022; Lim et al., 2023).

Discussion and Conclusion

This research examines the moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between rational and intuitive decision-making styles and employees' tendency to demand greater power in organizations. Findings show both styles significantly increase power-seeking behavior, and self-efficacy plays a moderating role in this relationship. These results align with contemporary literature emphasizing the influence of cognitive tendencies and personal resources in decision-making (Joe, 2023; Wei, 2024; Zhou et al., 2023).

The rational decision-making style reflects a systematic, knowledge-based approach to thinking. Individuals with high self-efficacy utilize this style more effectively, demonstrating greater control and confidence in decision-making (Varga & Marschalko, 2024; Zhou et al., 2023). This finding aligns with Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy. Accordingly, individuals with high self-efficacy engage in rational decision-making more strategically, facilitating their pursuit of greater power within the organization.

In contrast, intuitive decision-making is grounded in experience, instinct, and emotional awareness. The findings also reveal that a tendency toward intuitive decision-making increases power demand. Individuals with high self-efficacy rely on intuition under uncertainty, leading to bolder, more decisive actions (Wei et al., 2024; Kaplan, 2024). Kaplan's (2024) research on clinical decision-making similarly found that individuals with high self-efficacy make better intuitive decisions with fewer errors. These findings suggest that self-efficacy serves as cognitive assurance enhancing intuitive decision-making effectiveness.

Yang and Delgado (2025) demonstrate that the interaction between self-efficacy and response efficacy significantly influence decision-making, processed in distinct neurocognitive regions. This highlights that both self-efficacy and perceived response efficacy affect decision-making. Accordingly, the present research supports the view that self-efficacy moderates rational and intuitive decision-making styles, shaping individuals' power-seeking behaviors.

These findings corroborate Bavolar's (2023) meta-analysis on decision-making styles, emphasizing that the relationship between decision style and outcomes depends on contextual conditions and individual factors. Research in the Turkish context yields similar results. For instance, Savaşkan and Atay (2024) report that individuals with high self-efficacy demonstrate greater flexibility and effectiveness in both rational and intuitive decision-making processes.

In conclusion, this research identifies self-efficacy as a key moderator in the relationship between decision-making styles and power demand. Individuals with high self-efficacy are more effective in both rational and intuitive decision-making, which translates into a stronger tendency to seek power in organizations. These findings underscore

the importance of leadership and training programs that enhance self-efficacy to strengthen decision-making competencies.

In retail, individuals with low self-efficacy show no significant rise in perceived power demand, despite strong rational and intuitive decision-making skills. This outcome reflects how low self-efficacy limits one's ability to take ownership and engage effectively in decision-making. In contrast, employees with high self-efficacy show significantly greater power demand when decision-making skills are strong. This finding underscores the importance of enhancing self-efficacy to improve decision-making effectiveness and better understand power demand.

Based on the research findings, the following recommendations are offered to both practitioners and future researchers in this field:

- Training programs aimed at developing decision-making skills and interventions designed to enhance employees' self-efficacy levels should be encouraged.
- Adopting participatory management practices and incorporating decision-making competence into performance evaluation systems may positively contribute to employees' power demand.
- Additionally, supporting intuitive decision-making processes through digital tools is essential.
- Future studies may test the sectoral validity of the model using samples from different industries and examine the temporal dynamics of the relationship between decision-making styles and power demand through longitudinal data analysis.
- Incorporating mediating and moderating variables such as organizational support, leadership style, and psychological safety into the model may offer a more comprehensive understanding.
- Qualitative and mixed-method research can provide valuable insights into employee experiences and reveal the contextual dimensions of decision-making processes.

Declarations

Funding: No funding was received for conducting this study.

Conflicts of Interest: The author declares no conflict of interest.

Ethical Approval: Ethical approval for this research was obtained from the İstanbul Aydın University Social and Humanities Sciences Ethics Committee/Board on September, 20, 2024.***Informed Consent:*** Participation in the study was voluntary, and informed consent was obtained from all individuals involved in the survey.

Data Availability: The data supporting the findings of this study, collected from 321 participants residing in Türkiye, are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

AI Disclosure: No artificial intelligence-based tools or applications were used in the conception, analysis, writing, or preparation of figures for this study. All content was generated by the author in accordance with scientific research methods and academic ethical standards.

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