The Influence of Perceived Constructive and Destructive Leadership on Employee Well-Being and Ill-Being: The Mediating Role of Self-Conscious Emotions

By

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Declaration

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of a degree of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

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Date: <u>17/12/2015</u>

Dedication

To my family who continuously and unconditionally support me, my husband Neil who keeps me calm and laughing, my children Oisín, Oscar and Ellen who keep me grounded, my father Eddie who keeps the show on the road and always encourages me, and my parents-in law Una and Neil who literally gave me space to write.

To the memory of my courageous and bold mother Eileen who taught me education sets you free.

Acknowledgments

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

Abstract

This study investigates the influence of experienced leadership (i.e. transformational, abusive) on positive and negative follower well-being (i.e. *job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout*) and the mediating role of follower affect and the self-conscious emotions shame, guilt, and pride. Data used in this study was collected from two diverse studies, with Study 1 having obtained data from a Japanese multi-national firm (n=183), and Study 2 including data from an Irish local government emergency response organisation (n=237). The findings from my analysis showed that, as predicted, follower perceptions of transformational leadership positively and significantly predicted follower well-being outcomes of job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively predicted the follower ill-being outcome of burnout in both studies. The predicted negative relationship between perceived abusive supervision and follower job satisfaction and engagement was supported in Study 2, while the positive influence of abusive supervision on follower ill-being outcomes of workaholism and burnout was supported in both studies. Follower perceptions of a constructive or destructive leadership style had broadly the same relationship with follower positive and negative emotions in both studies. The research further confirmed follower emotions of pride and positive and negative affect (PANA) as emotional pathways through which constructive and destructive leaders influence follower well-being (i.e. engagement) and ill-being (i.e. workaholism-working compulsively and burnout) in Study 1. The research findings make three distinct contributions to the leadership and well-being literatures. Firstly, the research confirms the role of diverse leadership styles in influencing follower well-being and ill-being outcomes, thereby addressing calls to help understand 'when, how, and what kinds of leadership behaviours influence engagement' and well-being outcomes (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011, p.14; Wu & Hu, 2009). Secondly, the research responds to calls for

future leadership research to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand how leaders and leadership are related to emotional constructs (Dasborough, Ashkanasy, Tee, & Herman, 2009; Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011) and to calls to identify the pathways through which leadership influences follower well-being and ill-being (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015; Skakon et al., 2010). Thirdly, the findings in both studies identify when leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being through the pathways of follower emotions. The research findings establish the important role of the leader in follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout), and identify the leader as positively or negatively influencing follower positive and negative emotions across both studies. The hypothesised mediating effects of follower emotions between perceived leadership style and well-being and ill-being outcomes was found only in Study 1. This highlights the need for future research to consider the role of the work environment when measuring the antecedents of well-being and ill-being at work. Overall, the research findings identify the important role of the leader in influencing follower emotions and well-being and ill-being at work and establish the abusive leader as a job demand placing emotional demands on the follower, and the transformational leader as a job resource, uplifting and supporting the follower with implications for theory and practice.

Keywords: abusive supervision, transformational leadership, affect, shame, guilt, pride, employee well-being, job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Research Aims and Contributions

The aim of this research is to measure the influence of experienced constructive leadership (*transformational leadership*) and destructive leadership (*abusive supervision*) on positive and negative follower well-being (i.e. *job satisfaction, engagement)* and ill-being *(workaholism, burnout*) and to identify the emotional pathways through which leaders influence these well-being and ill-being outcomes. The research aims to answer the following research questions;

- *What*, *how* and *when* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being at work?
  - *What* type of leadership styles as perceived by followers, influence their well-being and ill-being at work?
  - *How* does perceived leadership style influence follower emotions and well-being and ill-being? Do follower emotions (PANA, and the discrete emotions of shame, guilt and pride) mediate this relationship?
  - *When* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes through the pathways of follower emotions? Are the research findings supported across both studies in two diverse organisations and sectors?

Employee well-being is an important issue for organisations. Research shows that engagement and well-being have performance implications that are linked to individual and team performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015; Freeney & Fellenz, 2013; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), client satisfaction (Salanova,

Agut, & Peiro, 2005), financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009) and proactive work behaviours (Bakker and Xanthopoulou, 2009; Ilies, Scott & Judge, 2006; Miner & Glomb, 2010). Follower ill-being (burnout) has been linked to absence (Peterson, Demerouti, Bergström, Åsberg, & Nygren, 2008), absence duration (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009) and poor performance (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Taris & Schaufeli, 2014). Organisations also have an ethical and legal obligation to provide a safe place to work which discourages abusive supervision and supports employee well-being (LaVan & Martin, 2008).

Many authors have moved away from defining mental health as the absence of illness to identifying mental health as a 'flourishing' state (Keyes, 2007) in which individuals experience positive feelings about life (Diener, 2000). The employee well-being construct stems from this positive organisational psychology approach and positive mental health approach promoted by a number of scholars (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, Taris, 2008; Cotton & Hart, 2003; Diener, 2000; Hart & Cooper, 2001; Keyes, 2007; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). This research uses a taxonomy of affective-cognitive work-related well-being and ill-being as conceptualised by Bakker, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2012) to operationalise employee subjective well-being. The taxonomy of work-related subjective well-being is adapted from Russell's (2003) circumplex of core affect based on valance (activation) and arousal (pleasantness). Bakker et al. (2012) have adapted Russell's (2003) circumplex of core affect to map a taxonomy of employee subjective well-being and ill-being to indicate the level of emotion and activation displayed by employees during each state of well-being at work (Figure 2.0).

There is already a large body of research confirming the relationship between an employee's job and their well-being at work. Karasek's (1979) Job Demands-Control Model (JD-C), Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Characteristics Model (JCM), and the Job

Demands-Resources model (JD-R) proposed by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) are widely used to measure the employee's experience of job demands and supports within the work environment. This research investigates the role of the leader in follower well-being, as leaders form an important part of a follower's job, contributing to whether the overall job experience is perceived as pleasant or unpleasant (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). In doing so, the research addresses calls in the literature to explore alternative models of leadership to help understand '*when*, *how*, and *what* kinds of leadership behaviours influence engagement' (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011, p.14; Wu & Hu, 2009) and wider well-being outcomes. By investigating the role of the leader in followers' affective-cognitive well-being, the study also responds to calls for future leadership research to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand how leaders and leadership are related to emotional constructs (Dasborough et al., 2009; Hiller, et al., 2011).

A review of the literature identifies transformational leadership and abusive supervision as constructive and destructive leadership styles respectively. Transformational leadership theory describes the leader as uplifting the morale, motivation and morals of their followers, inspiring followers to perform to high standards and to achieve a vision of the future (Bass, 1999). In contrast, abusive supervision describes negative, hostile leader behaviours and interpersonal abuse, such as putting 'an employee down in front of others' and passive abuse such as giving an employee 'the silent treatment' (Tepper, 2000, p.189). Although existing research supports the influence of constructive and destructive leadership on employee well-being and ill-being at work, the pathways through which the leader exerts this influence are not so well investigated and thus understood (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). The present research sets out to investigate how employees' perceptions of their leader as transformational or abusive can influence their well-being at work? In doing

so, the research responds to calls to identify the pathways through which leadership influences follower well-being and ill-being outcomes (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Skakon et al., 2010) and the need for future leadership research to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand how leaders and leadership are related to emotional constructs (Dasborough et al., 2009; Hiller et al., 2011). The research uses Watson, Clark & Tellegen's (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) to measure followers' general positive and negative affective responses to their leaders' perceived style. However, there have been calls in the literature to go beyond measuring general positive and negative affective states only and to measure discrete emotions (Ashkanasay & Humphrey, 2011; Gooty et al., 2009). These calls informed my decision to also measure the effects of the discrete self-conscious emotions shame, guilt, and pride in the present research. These emotions operate at both a public and private level, resulting from relationships and interactions (Orth, Robins & Soto, 2010; Tangney & Dearing, 2003). In sum, the present research proposes a comprehensive research model (Figure 1.0) which states that (a) perceived constructive and destructive leadership will influence follower well-being and ill-being respectively, and, (b) followers' positive and negative affect and their self-conscious emotions shame, guilt and pride will mediate these relationships.

The proposed research model is unique for a number of reasons. First, it simultaneously tests diverse leadership styles on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes, giving a better understanding of *what* types of leadership style influences follower work-related well-being and ill-being. Second, the research measures the influence of perceived constructive and destructive leadership on follower positive and negative emotions at work. Measuring the mediating effect of follower emotions in the relationship between leadership and follower well-being and ill-being leads to a better understanding of *how* leaders influence follower subjective well-being at work. Third, by conducting the research in two distinctive

organisations from different sectors, the study identifies *when* leaders influence follower emotions and well-being and ill-being at work.

The research was conducted at the individual level in two diverse organisations. Study 1 gathered data from a Japanese multi-national firm (n=183), and Study 2 obtained data from an Irish local government emergency response organisation (n=237). A cross-sectional survey questionnaire was used to collect data. Self-report measures that capture employee perceptions of their work environment and work experience are identified as a better indicator of within person attitude, behaviour and well-being than third party observations or management reports (Boxall & Mackay, 2014; Warr et al, 2014; Wood & De Menezes, 2011).

1.1 Significance of the Present Research

Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) state 'we need a better understanding of how organisations can enable SWB' (subjective well-being)' (p. 22). The findings from my analysis showed that, as predicted, perceived transformational leadership was positively and significantly related to follower well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively related to the follower ill-being outcome burnout in both studies. The negative relationship hypothesised between perceived abusive supervision and follower job satisfaction and engagement was supported in Study 2, while the positive influence of perceived abusive supervision on follower ill-being workaholism and burnout was supported in both studies. The research identified followers' pride and positive and negative affect (PANA) as emotional pathways through which constructive and destructive leaders influenced follower well-being (engagement) and ill-being (workaholism - working compulsively, burnout - exhaustion and disengagement).

The findings present the abusive leader as a job demand placing emotional demands on the follower, and the transformational leader as a job resource, uplifting and supporting

5

the follower. Organisations are responsible for the behaviours of their managers and have an ethical and legal obligation to provide a safe place to work, discouraging abusive supervision and supporting employee well-being (LaVan & Martin, 2008). The research findings therefore have practical implications and a number of human resource policies and practices are outlined to enhance transformational leadership and address abusive supervision.

1.2 Research Hypotheses

The following is a summary of the hypothesised relationships tested in the comprehensive research model presented in Figure1.0.

Hypothesis 1: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower well-being and negatively related to follower ill-being at work.

Hypothesis 2: Follower perceptions of abusive supervision will be is negatively related to follower well-being and positively related to follower ill-being at work.

Hypothesis 3 : Perceived transformational leadership and abusive supervision will influence follower positive and negative emotions at work.

Hypothesis 4 : Follower positive and negative emotions will influence their well-being and ill-being outcomes at work.

Hypotheses 5 : Follower emotions will mediate the effects of perceived transformational leadership and abusive supervision on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes at work.

1.3 Hypothesised Research Model
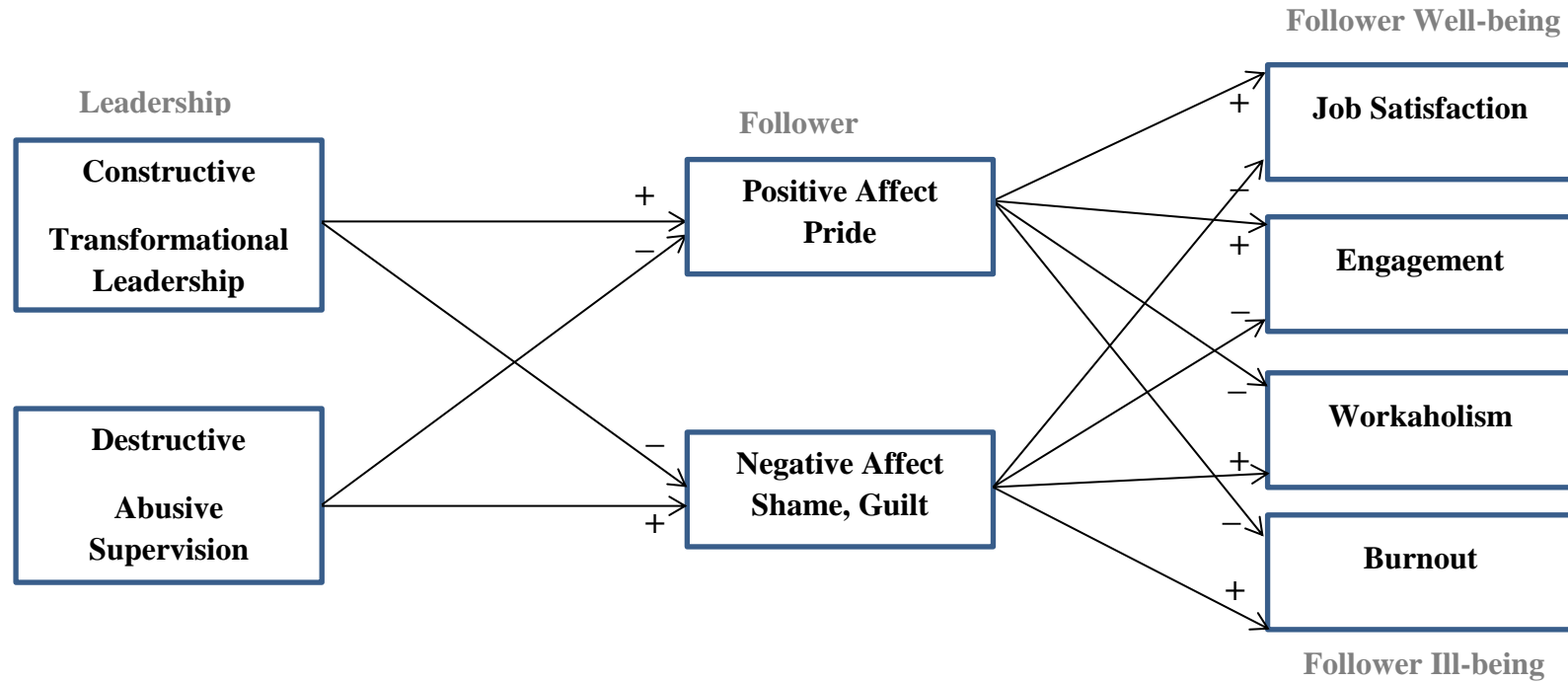
Figure 1.0 Hypothesised Research Model : Leadership, Follower Emotions, Well-being and Ill-being at Work

1.4 Overview of the Thesis Structure

The research is structured over seven chapters, each detailing a specific part of the research process;

Chapter One-Introduction presents an overview of the dissertation outlining the theoretical framework informing the research aims and the hypothesised research model. The chapter outlines the significance of the research with regards to theoretical perspectives in the leadership and well-being literatures. *Chapter Two – Literature Review Part 1* provides an introduction to employee well-being. The chapter presents a taxonomy of employee subjective well-being ranging from well to unwell. Employee well-being is defined as *job satisfaction* and *engagement*, and employee ill-being is defined as *workaholism* and *burnout*. *Chapter Three – Literature Review Part 2* describes the predictors of employee work related well-being. The chapter refers to the trend for previous research to investigate the influence of the employee's job as a predictor of employee well-being. The chapter proposes to extend the employee well-being literature by reviewing the role of the leader in followers' well-being and ill-being at work. *Chapter Four- Research Context* outlines the context in which the research is conducted. It presents the diverse sectors and organisation cultures evident in Study 1 and Study 2. *Chapter Five - Methodology* explores the philosophical basis of the research methodology used in Study 1 and Study 2. It describes the appropriateness of a positivist approach and provides support for the individual level cross-sectional survey research design. This chapter outlines the research process followed in both studies and outlines the validity of measurement variables and scales used to operationalise the hypothesised research model. *Chapter Six-Analysis* presents the data analysis strategy and results, including a presentation of sample representativeness and model fit statistics for Study 1 and Study 2. The model fit statistics for the full hypothesised research model and the

overall regression weights and mediation results are presented first for Study 1 and then for Study 2. *Chapter Seven – Discussion* reviews the findings based on the results presented in Chapter Six. The chapter evaluates how the findings make contributions to the leadership and well-being literatures. In addition, limitations of the research are discussed. The chapter concludes by presenting implications for future researchers and for practitioners wishing to enhance employee well-being. Finally, *Chapter Eight - Conclusion* provides a concise summary of the research aims and hypothesised research model, reiterating the main contributions made by the study with implications for future research and practice.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW PART 1 : DEFINING EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

2.0 Introduction

This chapter identifies the theoretical frameworks which inform the research model and hypotheses tested in the study. It brings together relevant literatures that span the fields of occupational well-being, leadership theory, affective events theory, and emotion. The literature review is presented in two parts. Part 1: *Defining Employee Well-being*, aims to define employee work-related well-being and address the current debates in the literature regarding the discriminant validity of engagement as a construct. The chapter describes both a taxonomy of employee well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout) and an affective-cognitive model of employee well-being. Part 2: *Factors Influencing Employee Well-being*, discusses the predictors of employee well-being, specifically follower perceptions of leadership style and their influence on affective and behavioural responses.

2.1 Employee Well-being

Employee well-being is an important issue for organisations. Research shows that engagement and well-being have performance implications that are linked to individual and team performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Van den Heuvel, 2015; Freeney & Fellenz, 2013; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), client satisfaction (Salanova et al., 2005), financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009) and proactive work behaviours (Bakker and Xanthopoulou, 2009; Ilies, Scott & Judge, 2006; Miner & Glomb, 2010). In contrast, evidence suggests that follower ill-being (burnout) is linked to absence (Peterson et al., 2008), absence duration (Schaufeli et al., 2009) and poor performance (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Taris & Schaufeli, 2014). Given the

implications of these outcomes for both organisations and employees, the fostering of employee well-being and the prevention of employee ill-being is an important issue.

2.2 Defining Employee Well-being

The employee well-being construct stems from the positive organisational psychology and positive mental health approaches that have been advanced by a number of scholars in recent years (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, Taris, 2008; Cotton & Hart, 2003; Diener, 2000; Hart & Cooper, 2001; Keyes, 2007; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). These authors have moved away from defining mental health as the absence of illness to identifying mental health as a 'flourishing' state (Keyes, 2007) in which individuals experience positive feelings about life (Diener, 2000). Ilies, Morgeson and Nahrgang (2005) define employee well-being as subjective, with employees making a 'subjective evaluation of life in terms of pleasantness versus unpleasantness or as a summation of evaluative reactions to life stimuli encountered in various situations or domains' (p. 374).

It is important to note that employee well-being is not just a renaming of the concept of stress. In their review of organisational health research and occupational well-being, Cotton and Hart (2003) make a clear distinction between stress and well-being. They define stress as 'adverse work experiences or "stressors"' (p.118) which cause employee strain and result in negative psychological and physiological responses. Cotton and Hart (2003) present occupational well-being as having both emotional and cognitive components. The emotional component compromises positive or negative emotions which result in an affective response and feelings of pleasantness or unpleasantness. The cognitive component is conceptualised as an evaluative judgement that employees' make about their levels of satisfaction with their work (i.e. job satisfaction).

Occupational health research was previously dominated by a stressors-strain approach (Beehr 1998; Spector & Jex, 1998) and driven by an assumption that stress arises when work characteristics and demands contribute to poor psychological and physical health. However, this is a one dimensional view focusing only on the negative aspects of occupational well-being. The emergence of the positive organisational psychology approach regarded stress and negative employee experiences as only one part of a broader construct of well-being where both positive and negative experiences are posited as making independent contributions to overall levels of employee well-being (Diener, 2000; Hart, 1999; Hart & Cooper; 2001; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In their 2004 study, Schaufeli and Bakker found that job resources such as performance feedback, social support from colleagues and supervisory coaching, had a positive influence on employee engagement. While job demands, such as workload, emotional demands and time pressure had a positive influence on burnout. A further development in the occupational well-being literature sees some job demands (i.e. challenge demands such job complexity, time urgency) as having a positive influence on employee well-being, specifically engagement (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010) when supported by job resources (i.e. supervisor support). Employees appraise stressful situations such as job demands as either potentially challenging or threatening (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling and Boudreau (2000) termed these *challenge* stressors and *hindrance* stressors, where challenge stressors include high workload, time pressure, and high levels of job responsibility, and hindrance stressors include role conflict and role ambiguity. Researchers have found that job demands are a source of both positive and negative experiences in the workplace (Cullinane, Bosak, Flood & Demerouti, 2014; Tadić, Bakker and Oerlemans, 2014). Cullinane et al (2014) found that job demands (workpace, problem solving demands, accountability) in isolation depleted the

energy of employees, however, these demands acted as motivational challenges and predicted work engagement when supported by job resources (autonomy, feedback, training). Further evidence suggest that challenge demands such as workload, job complexity and time urgency, have positive well-being outcomes through opportunities for growth and learning, particularly when supported by job resources such as supervisor support (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Tadić, et al, 2014).

This body of literature suggests that employee well-being is a broader construct which includes both positive and negative experiences and responses. An employee's job demands can increase morale or increase distress, depending on whether they are given adequate support to meet these demands and whether the work generates an experience of challenge and 'uplift' or 'overload'. Employee ill-being therefore, is not due to negative work experiences alone, but is also due to a lack of positive work experiences and supporting resources.

A number of researchers assert that employee well-being is subjective with individuals making cognitive evaluative judgements about their experience of work, accompanied by varying levels of positive and negative emotional reactions (Cotton & Hart, 2003; Salonova et al., 2013; Diener, 2000; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 1999; Warr, 2014). Diener (2000) identifies three components of subjective well-being – '*life satisfaction* (global judgments of one's life)*, satisfaction with important domains* (e.g. work satisfaction), *positive affect* (experiencing many pleasant emotions and moods)*, and low levels of negative affect* (experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods)' (p. 34). Affect, first conceptualised by Watson (1988), is an emotional experience with two distinct dimensions termed *positive affect* and *negative affect*. Watson defines positive affect as a pleasurable, emotional state which reflects an individual's level of engagement with his or her environment and is characterised by *enthusiasm, energy, mental alertness* and *determination*. In contrast, Watson

suggests that negative affect is a distressed, emotional state characterised by *distress, nervousness, fear, anger, guilt* and *scorn*. High levels of positive affect and low levels of negative affect (Watson et al., 1988), and the cognitive evaluation of one's satisfaction with life (Diner, 2000) are identified as the core dimensions of subjective well-being (Lucas & Diener, 2008; Page & Vela-Broderick, 2009; Taris & Schaufeli, 2014). The literature therefore defines employee subjective well-being as a multi-dimensional construct which consists of employees' evaluative judgements about their work and results in positive affect (e.g. morale), or negative affect (e.g. distress), which impacts well-being at work (Cotton & Hart, 2003; Hart & Cooper, 2001; Page &Vela-Broderick, 2009; Salanova et al., 2013; Warr, 2014).

2.3 Circumplex Model of Affective Well-being

Various researchers (Daniels, 2000; Russell, 2003; Warr, 1987, 1990) have further contributed to our understanding of subjective well-being with a circumplex model of affective well-being (Figure 3.0). These authors present a diverse but somewhat similar circumplex of emotion which characterises core affect based upon the axes of *pleasure–arousal* (Warr, 1990), *anxiety–comfort, depression–pleasure, bored–enthusiastic, tiredness–vigour, angry–placid* (Daniels, 2000), and *activation–deactivation* and *pleasure–displeasure* (Russell, 2003). Each axis represents a continuum of emotion reflective of those emotions defined by Watson's (1988) positive and negative affect, and illustrates the range of emotions felt by individuals in the workplace.
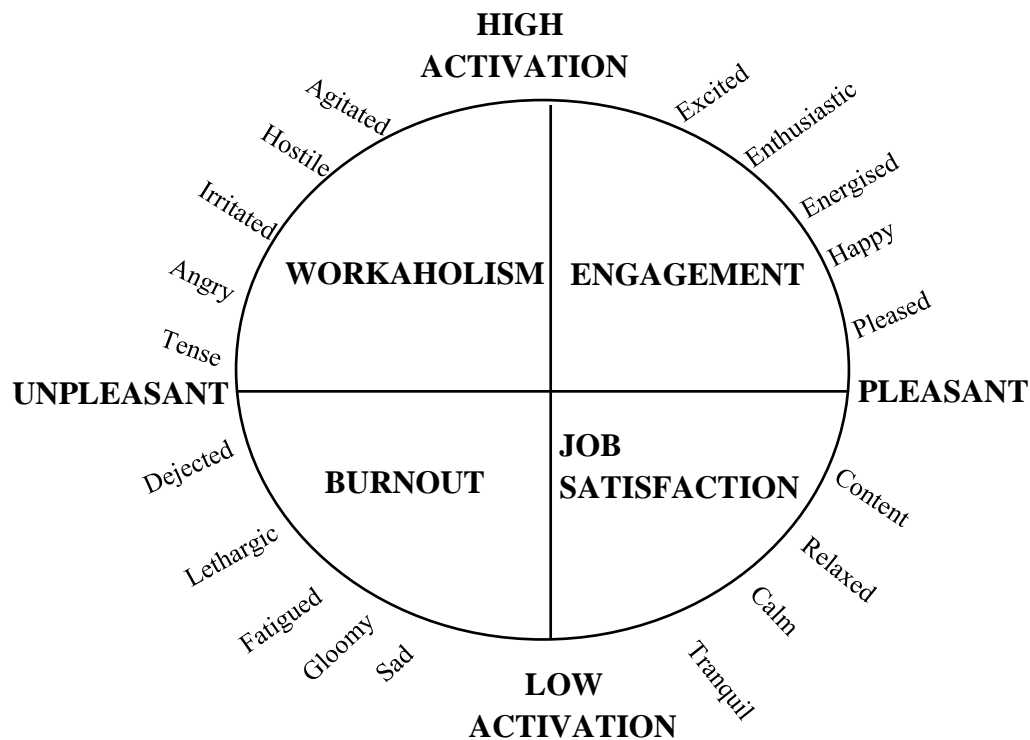
Figure 2.0. Taxonomy of Work-related Subjective Well-being

In keeping with the move to define work related subjective well-being as a broader construct which includes both positive and negative experiences and responses (Cotton & Hart, 2003; Diener, 2000; Hart & Cooper; 2001; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 1999), a taxonomy of affective-cognitive work-related well-being and ill-being is conceptualised by Bakker, Demerouti and Xanthopoulou (2012). These researchers adapt Russell's (2003) circumplex of core affect based on valance (activation) and arousal (pleasantness). Russell defines core affect as 'a neurophysiological state that underlies simply feeling good or bad' (2003, p.1261) which comprises four axes of emotion, ranging *pleasant to unpleasant* and *high activation to low activation.* Bakker et al. (2012) adapt Russell's (2003) circumplex of core affect to map a

taxonomy of employee subjective well-being spanning *job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism*, and *burnout* which indicates the level of emotion displayed by employees in each state of well-being (Figure 2.0).

Each dimension of the taxonomy of subjective work-related well-being is defined and described in more detail in the following sections.

2.4 Employee Work Related Well-being: Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was first defined by Locke (1976) as ". . . a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304). Central to Locke's definition is cognition (evaluating, thinking) and affect (emotion, feeling) (Saari & Judge, 2004). Ilies, Wilson and Wagner (2009) define job satisfaction as the employee's attitude about their job, an 'evaluative state that varies over time' (p. 87), indicating both positive and negative dimensions. This conceptualisation of job satisfaction is supported by researchers who describe it as an evaluative judgement and positive emotional reaction and attitude to one's work (Briner & Kiefer, 2009; Faragher, Cass & Cooper, 2005; Wegge, Van Dick, Fisher, West & Dawson, 2006; Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Wright, Cropanzano & Bonet, 2007). In the four dimensional taxonomy of employee work-related well-being, Bakker et al (2012) identify job satisfaction as a passive state of contentment accompanied by low activation. While an employee in a state of contentment would be welcomed by many organisations, a state of low activation would suggest the employee is not inputting their full selves or capabilities into their work (Warr et al. 2014). However, if the taxonomy of employee well-being is a continuum ranging from job satisfaction to work engagement, workaholism and burnout, then job satisfaction is an

important state of well-being which may be an antecedent of work engagement. However, this hypothesis has not yet been tested empirically.

2.4.1 Job Satisfaction Outcomes

A meta-analysis conducted by Faragher et al (2005) systematically reviewed research evidence from 485 studies which linked job satisfaction to measures of health among 267,995 employees worldwide. They found statistically significant negative correlations between job satisfaction and indicators of mental health including burnout, depression, and anxiety. Job satisfaction has also been linked with performance. Petty and McGee's (1984) meta-analysis of the satisfaction-performance relationship across 3,140 employees concluded that individual job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated. However, Rich, LePine and Crawford (2010) found that the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and two performance indicators i.e., task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, was not as pronounced as the relationship between engagement and the same two indicators. These findings are echoed in the work of Warr et al. (2014) who found that 'high-activation pleasant affect was more strongly correlated with positive behaviours than were low-activation pleasant feelings' (p. 342). Salanova et al (2014, p.7) suggest that job satisfaction describes '9-to-5' employees who are 'content but fall short on drive'. However, caution may be required in the use of the '9-to-5' term to describe employees who are content and passive, as this would imply that employees who are engaged and work with vigor, dedication and absorption, must work long hours.

2.5 Employee Work Related Well-being: Engagement

This research will use Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker's (2002a) definition of engagement as 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state characterized by vigor,

dedication, and absorption' (p. 74). In his seminal paper on engagement, Kahn (1990) defines engagement as 'the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active, full role performances' (p. 700). Kahn refers to engagement as the study of 'how people occupy roles' (p. 700) and he found that people invest their selves physically, cognitively, and emotionally in their work to varying degrees. However, despite a keen academic interest in researching engagement by various researchers (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich, LePine & Crawford, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002a; 2002b), and a keen practitioner interest in measuring and enhancing engagement (Harter Schmidt & Hayes, 2002), some researchers question the construct validity and discriminant validity of engagement (Briner, 2014; Newman & Harrison, 2008; Purcell, 2014). In the following section, a critique pertaining to the construct of engagement is outlined in detail.

2.5.1 Criticisms of the Engagement Construct

Purcell (2014) and Briner (2014) claim that despite a continued growth in engagement research in academia and industry, they are concerned about the lack of an agreed definition of engagement. Purcell (2014) states that this is confounded by the fact there are two diverse approaches, *state /work engagement* and *behavioural /employee engagement.* He identifies state engagement as that defined by Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova (2006), namely 'the individual's psychological state of mind while at work' (p.242). Purcell uses Truss's (2014) definition of employee engagement as 'an approach taken by the organisation to manage their workforce' (p.87), that is the human resource and management practices that enable an employee to become engaged. Purcell claims that these diverse definitions do not support a clear research agenda for engagement.

2.5.2 Discriminant validity

Concerns of construct overlap between engagement and job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment are expressed by Briner (2014), and Newman and Harrison (2008). Briner (2014) specifically questions the construct validity, discriminant validity and predictive validity of engagement. He argues that engagement overlaps with other constructs, and consequently, existing measures of engagement cannot be valid or reliable in the absence of an agreed definition and construct proliferation. Briner (2014) claims there is very little evidence that engagement is linked to positive individual or organisational outcomes and calls into question studies which make cause and effect claims. To address the question of whether engagement is a distinct construct from job satisfaction, job involvement and job motivation, the taxonomy of work related subjective well-being (Bakker et al, 2012) helps to address this confusion. By differentiating work engagement from job satisfaction on physical, cognitive and emotional dimensions, the taxonomy of employee well-being differentiates engagement from job satisfaction. The taxonomy of employee well-being describes engagement, the optimum state of employee well-being as a pleasant state of enthusiasm and high activation, while job satisfaction is described as a pleasant but passive state of contentment, that is accompanied by low activation. From these descriptions, it follows that engagement and job satisfaction are two different states. In relation to job involvement, Kahn (1990) specifically distinguishes engagement from job involvement and commitment. He states that job involvement and commitment are more generalised states where employees maintain average levels of each over time, whereas engagement refers to specific fluctuations of physical and psychological presence in one's work. Kanungo (1982) further clarifies the difference between engagement and job involvement when he defines job involvement as an individual's cognitive belief about how

19

much a job can satisfy their specific needs and their resulting identification with the job: 'An individual's psychological identification with a particular job' which 'tends to be a function of how much the job can satisfy one's present needs' (p.342). This depicts job involvement as a cognitive rather than affective concept, where individuals evaluate the potential of a job to meet their needs and consequently they decide to identify with that job.

Schaufeli (2013) clearly distinguishes engagement from commitment on the grounds that engagement represents the relationship an employee has with their work, whereas commitment also includes the relationship the employee has with the organisation. He further clarifies the distinction between '*work engagement*' and '*employee engagement*' as follows;

> '*Although typically "employee engagement" and "work engagement" are used interchangeably work engagement refers to the relationship of the employee with his or her work, whereas employee engagement may also include the relationship with the organisation*'.   (Schaufeli,   2013;   p.1)

Rich et al. (2010) measured the relationship between engagement, job satisfaction, job involvement, job motivation and two performance indicators - task performance and organisation citizenship behaviours. They found that engagement loaded stronger on task performance and citizenship behaviours than the other three constructs, establishing distinct predictive validity of engagement. This provides empirical evidence that engagement is a unique construct that relates differently to performance outcomes - task performance and citizenship behaviours than job satisfaction, job involvement and job motivation.

This body of research provides evidence to suggest that the construct of engagement is a distinct and unique construct. More specifically, it demonstrates that engagement is distinct from job satisfaction in relation to the emotions and energy levels displayed, and

different to organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) in that engagement is the relationship one holds with the job and tasks and not the organisation as a whole. Engagement is also different from job involvement (Kanungo, 1982) i.e. the individual's cognitive belief about how much a job can satisfy their specific needs. Finally, engagement is different from motivation. Motivation relates to *why* someone gives their full selves to their work e.g. for need satisfaction, whereas engagement is *how* someone gives their full selves to their work i.e. physically, cognitively and emotionally.

2.5.3 Construct validity and measurement

In relation to concerns regarding construct validity and the measurement of engagement (Briner, 2014; Newman & Harrison, 2008), research was carried out by Schaufeli et al. (2006) and by Rich et al. (2010) to establish the validity of the construct of engagement. Schaufeli et al. (2006) tested a 9 item version (UWES-9) of their original 18 item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale in 27 studies, across 10 countries, using 14,521 respondents across 9 occupational groupings. Structural equation modelling (SEM) confirmed a three-factor model of engagement with the dimensions, vigor, dedication, and absorption. Cronbach's alpha for the total 9-item scale measuring vigor, dedication and absorption varied between .85 and .92 (median = .92) across all 10 countries. Rich et al. (2010) also developed a measure of work engagement building on Kahn's (1990) definition. They tested the Job Engagement Scale using a sample of 245 respondents. Three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 measuring emotional, physical and cognitive engagement, with internal consistency reliabilities ranging from .89 to .94 (Rich et al., 2010; p.624). The results of these two studies show a three factor model of engagement measuring physical engagement, affective engagement and cognitive engagement.

2.5.4 Towards an Agreed Definition of Engagement

Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008) call for an agreed definition of engagement that will support the progression of research into the construct. Different uses of terminology exist between European (Schaufeli et al., 2002) and United States (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008, Rich et al, 2010) researchers, however, there are many similarities in their definitions of engagement. Table 2.0 summarises the dimensions of engagement identified by these researchers who have empirically confirmed that engagement can be defined as a multi-dimensional construct characterised as, *physical engagement, affective engagement* and *cognitive engagement*.

Looking firstly at those European researchers such as Schaufeli et al. (2002a) who define work engagement as 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption' (p.74). Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti and Hetland (2012) and Schaufeli (2013) describe the *vigor* dimension of engagement as high levels of energy and mental resilience. They describe *dedication* as being strongly involved in one's work, experiencing a sense of significance, challenge, being inspired, enthusiastic and proud of one's work. Finally, *absorption* is described as a state of being fully concentrated, happy and engrossed in one's work tasks so much so, that time seems to fly by. Researchers in the United States such as Macey and Schneider (2008) distinguish between *trait engagement* (positive views of life and work), *behavioural engagement* (extra-role behaviour) and *state engagement* (feelings of energy, absorption and emotion/satisfaction). Their definition is similar to that used by practitioners in that they present engagement as an umbrella concept which includes a number of constructs. However, their conceptualisation of *state engagement* shares the same *physical, affective* and *cognitive* dimensions as other definitions discussed. Other US researchers (Rich et al., 2010) define engagement as 'the simultaneous investment of cognitive, affective, and physical energies into role performance' (p. 617).

Christian et al. (2011), consistent with Kahn (1990) and Rich et al. (2010), define engagement 'as a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work' (p. 95).

As can be seen in Table 2.0 there are many synergies between the European and US definitions of engagement. *Vigor* shares dimensions with *physical engagement, dedication* with *emotional engagement*, and *absorption* with *cognitive engagement*. Schaufeli (2013) himself draws these comparisons in an attempt to move towards an agreed definition of engagement by stating 'the definitions of engagement as a psychological state by Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli et al. (2002a)....agree that engagement entails a physical-energetic (vigor), an emotional (dedication), and a cognitive (absorption) component' (p. 9).

2.5.5 Engagement Outcomes

Evidence suggests that engagement is linked to a range of positive individual and organisational outcomes such as task performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Van den Heuvel, 2015; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008), organisational citizenship behaviour (Rich et al., 2010), higher personal initiative and more innovative behaviour (Hakanen, Perhoniemi & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008). Bakker and Bal (2010) found that engagement was positively related to in-role and extra-role performance among a study of Dutch teachers. Hakanen et al.'s study (2008) of 2555 dentists found that engagement had positive individual and team outcomes. They found that engagement had a positive influence at the individual level positively and significantly influencing personal initiative which in turn had a positive influence on work group innovativeness.

Table 2.0 Towards an Agreed Definition of Engagement - Physical, Cognitive and Emotional.

Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker (2002a) *EU* **Conceptualised and operationalised engagement.** **Developed the 18 item UWES (2002) and shorter 9 Item UWES-9 (2006) to measure the dimensions *Vigor, Dedication, Absorption.***	Kahn (1990) *US* **Conceptualised engagement.**	Macey Schneider (2008) *US* **Conceptualised engagement.**	Rich, LePine & Crawford (2010) *US* **Conceptualised and operationalised Engagement.** **Adopted Kahn's (1990) original conceptualisation of engagement.** **Developed the 18 Item Job Engagement Scale to measure *Physical, Cognitive,* and *Emotional* engagement.**
'work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption' Schaufeli et al. (2002a, p.74) *Vigor* (high levels of energy and mental resilience = **physical** engagement) *Dedication* (involved in one's work, experiencing a sense of significance, challenge, inspiration, enthusiasm, pride = **emotional** engagement) *Absorption* fully concentrated , happy and engrossed in one's work tasks = **cognitive** engagement)	'engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's "preferred self" in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (**physical, cognitive,** and **emotional**), and active, full role performances' (p.700). 'People become physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others, cognitively vigilant, and empathically connected to others in the service of the work they are doing' (p.700)	Macey and Schneider (2008) present engagement as an umbrella concept and distinguish between *trait engagement* (positive views of life and work), *behavioural engagement* (extra-role behaviour) and *state engagement* (feelings of energy, absorption and emotion/satisfaction). **State Engagement** *Feelings of energy* = **physical** engagement. *Absorption* = **cognitive** engagement. *Emotion/satisfaction* = **emotional** engagement.	'job engagement is best described as a multidimensional motivational concept reflecting the simultaneous investment of an individual's **physical**, **cognitive**, and **emotional** energy in active, full work performance'(p.619).

However, one of the criticisms levelled against cause and effect claims for engagement is that such claims rely on longitudinal research designs (Briner, 2014). Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola's (2008) three year longitudinal study in 2555 respondents showed that high levels of engagement led to higher organisational commitment over time. Finally, Schaufeli et al. (2009) found evidence that high levels of engagement are related to lower levels of absenteeism, which can be quantified in financial terms.

2.6 Employee Work Related Ill-being: Workaholism

Workaholism was first conceptualised by Oates (1971) as '. . . the compulsion or the uncontrollable need to work incessantly' (p. 11). It is characterised by a strong irresistible inner drive to work excessively hard. Building on this definition, in their development of the Workaholism Battery, Spence and Robbins (1992) conceptualised and measured workaholism in terms of the dimensions *work involvement*, *drive* and reduced *work enjoyment* (workaholic triad). McMillan, O'Driscoll and Burke (2003) identified both behavioural and cognitive components of workaholism where the behavioural component was operationalised as a *strong irresistible inner drive* and *working excessively hard*, while the cognitive component was evident in *thinking persistently about work*, and *working compulsively*. This definition is adopted by Schaufeli, Shimazu and Taris, (2009) who define workaholism as 'the tendency to work excessively hard (the behavioural dimension) and being obsessed with work (the cognitive dimension), which manifests itself in working compulsively' (p. 322).

The taxonomy of employee well-being (Bakker et al., 2012) identifies workaholism as an unpleasant state of ill-being, accompanied by high activation and emotions such as agitation, anger, and feeling tense. How then do workaholics differ from engaged employees who are also in a state of high activation? (Bakker et al., 2012). Unlike employees in a state

of work engagement who get 'carried away' when they are working (Schaufeli et al., 2006), and who are intrinsically driven and enjoy their work, workaholics do not enjoy their work (Shimazu, et al., 2013; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Van Wijhe, Peeters & Schaufeli, 2014). Kahn (1990) first identified the enjoyment aspect that distinguished engagement when he stated that 'people who are personally engaged keep their selves within a role, without sacrificing one for the other' (p. 700).

Van Beek et al. (2012) found workaholic employees work harder than their colleagues, work harder than their organisation expects them to, and are driven or pushed to work hard. To understand what drives workaholics to work excessively and compulsively, Van den Broeck et al., (2011) and Van Beek et al., (2012) draw on self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This theory distinguishes between two types of motivation which have different origins and outcomes. Ryan and Deci (2000) describe *autonomous motivation* as an individual's perception of the locus of causality (the reason to act) as 'emanating from their self', while *controlled motivation* is identified as an inferior type of motivation that 'occurs when individuals experience an external locus of causality (p. 605). Self-determination theory predicts that individuals experience an activity as interesting, enjoyable, and satisfying when they perceive autonomy and the motivation to act as intrinsic and coming from within. However, individuals who perceive that motivation is extrinsic and out of their control, will experience disinterest, displeasure, and dissatisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Van Beek et al., 2011). Using self-determination theory, Van Beek et al. (2012) and Van Den Broeck et al. (2011) examined the motivation driving each dimension of workaholism (working excessively and working compulsively) to distinguish between the quality and intensity of the motivation. Both studies found that each dimension of workaholism is driven by two different types of motivation, autonomous motivation and controlled motivation. They found the cognitive component of workaholism - working compulsively – arose out of introjected

regulation, a controlled motivation, where the individual feels they must comply with standards that are set externally to satisfy feelings of self-worth and self-esteem. In a sample of 760 health care professionals, Van Beek et al., (2012) found that high levels of workaholism were associated with high levels of introjected regulation (controlled extrinsic motivation where individuals act to avoid criticism or to receive reward) and high levels of identified regulation (autonomous extrinsic motivation where individuals accept and identify with the reasons to act). Working excessively, the behavioural component of workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008), is identified as arising out of autonomous motivation, the individual perceives the reason to act or behave as coming from within. Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to this as an internal perceived locus of causality, whereas Schaufeli et al., (2011) describe it as identified regulation, where the individual has internalised the reason to act and therefore believes the motivation comes from within.

2.6.1 Workaholism Outcomes

While workaholics may be productive in the short term, in the long-term, however, workaholism may lead to burnout (Schaufeli, Taris & Van Rhenen, 2008). Workaholics do not enjoy their work, they sacrifice their families and friends through working excessively and compulsively, and they experience ill health namely fatigue, anxiety and depression (Bakker, Demerouti & Burke, 2009; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Shimazu, Schaufeli & Taris, 2010). Workaholics often have poor relationships with their colleagues as they feel the need to control work, and find it difficult to delegate (Van Wijhe, Peeters & Schaufeli, 2014). Workaholics are tense, agitated, and unwelcoming (Bakker et al., 2012), behaviours which are at odds with the values of many organisations. Therefore, workaholism is a state of ill-being that can have negative individual and organisational outcomes.

2.7 Employee Work Related Well-being: Burnout

The final dimension of the taxonomy of work-related well-being is burnout, which is a three dimensional construct first conceptualised by Maslach (1993; 1998) and measured by Maslach and Leiter (1997). Burnout is defined as 'a type of prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job......a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment' (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998, p.64). Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) further define the three dimensions of burnout as (a) *exhaustion i.e.* the depletion and draining of mental and physical resources, (b) *cynicism i.e.* detachment and indifference towards one's job, and (c) *inefficacy* i.e. a negative evaluation of one's work performance that leads to feelings of inadequacy and poor job-related self-esteem. The taxonomy of work related well-being (Bakker et al., 2012; Salanova et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2008) classifies burnout as an unpleasant state of low-activation indicated by emotions such as dejected, fatigued, and sad, in contrast to engagement which is classified as a state of high activation and pleasure. This research uses the conceptualisation of burnout developed by Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou and Kantas (2003) who define burnout as a two dimensional construct composed of *exhaustion* and *disengagement from work*. They define exhaustion as 'a consequence of intensive physical, affective and cognitive strain, that is, as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands' (Demerouti, Mostert & Bakker, 2010, p.210). Disengagement on the other hand, is defined as 'distancing oneself from one's work in general, work object, and work content' (p.211).

2.7.1 Discriminant validity

While differences of opinion surround the definition of engagement, there are similar debates regarding the relationship between burnout and engagement. A number of researchers propose that the two dimensions of engagement (*vigor* and *dedication*) and burnout

(*exhaustion* and *cynicism*) are each other's polar opposites (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2013). In keeping with perspectives within positive organisational psychology, Maslach and Leiter (1997) claim that burnout is an erosion of engagement with the job. In a study drawn from three different samples, one telecom company (n=477) and two financial services companies (n = 507, 381), Gonzalez-Roma et al. (2006) found that exhaustion-vigor, and cynicism-dedication, were scalable on two distinct bipolar dimensions, namely, *energy* (exhaustion-vigor) and *identification* (cynicism-dedication). Their study provides empirical evidence supporting the conceptualisation of burnout and engagement as polar opposites with two distinct 'underlying bipolar dimensions dubbed energy and identification'(p.172). Schaufeli et al. (2008) in a subsequent study of 587 telecom managers found evidence to suggest that engagement, workaholism and burnout were three distinct yet correlated constructs and that they were three different types of employee well-being. Schaufeli et al. (2008) further differentiated the three constructs on the basis that they did not constitute one single common factor and that the three concepts related differently to excess working time, job characteristics, work outcomes, quality of social relationships, and perceived health. However, this study also showed that engagement and burnout acted as each other's polar opposites and that they were negatively correlated.

As described earlier, engagement is characterised by *vigor* (high activation) and *dedication* (high identification) (Schaufeli et al., 2002), while burnout is characterised by *exhaustion* (low activation) and *cynicism* (low identification) (Demerouti et al., 2003). It would therefore appear that burnout and engagement are conceptually each other's opposite (Gonzalez-Roma et al., 2006). However, despite conceptualising engagement as the positive antithesis of burnout, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) define and operationalise engagement in its own right on the basis that burnout and engagement are independent, yet negatively

correlated states of mind. We know from Maslach and Leiter's (1997) conceptualisation of engagement that burnout has a third dimension, *reduced professional efficacy* which is not negatively correlated with the third dimension of engagement – *absorption* (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) challenge Maslach and Leiter's (1997) approach to measuring engagement and burnout by reverse scoring the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI-GS). They argue that engagement cannot be measured by the opposite profile of the MBI-GS. Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) argue the structure and measurement of engagement and burnout are different as they have different antecedents and are explained by different psychological mechanisms. They found that burnout is determined by demanding aspects of the job such as workload and physical demands, whereas engagement is determined by the availability of resources such as autonomy or support. These findings are supported by Demerouti et al. (2010) who found that the cynicism dimension of burnout (measured with the MBI-GS) and the dedication dimension of engagement (measured with the UWES) are opposite ends of the attitude continuum termed *identification*. However, the dimensions *exhaustion* (burnout) and *vigor* (engagement) did not represent different ends of the *energy* continuum, despite being highly correlated. In fact, they found that exhaustion was related to work pressure (a job demand), while vigor was related to job autonomy (a job resource). Therefore, Schaufeli and Bakker (2010), and Demerouti et al. (2010), claim that burnout and engagement should be conceptualised and measured as independent, distinct psychological states that are negatively correlated. Cole, Bedeian and O'Boyle, (2012) further explored the discriminant validity of burnout and engagement and how both constructs relate to other antecedent and outcome variables. In relation to discriminant validity, findings from their meta-analytic review showed high correlations between the dimensions of burnout and engagement ranging from r = -.85 to r = -.79 (Cole et al., 2012; p. 1571). These findings are indicative of convergent rather than discriminant validity (Kline, 2011). They also found that

burnout and engagement showed very similar patterns of correlations with antecedent (job demands, work load, job resources, co-worker support) and outcome (health complaints, job satisfaction, organisational commitment) variables. Therefore, Cole et al. (2012) question the distinctiveness of burnout and engagement as independent and unique constructs. However, Cole et al. also express some doubt over their own findings. Their findings show that when they controlled for burnout, 'this substantially reduced the effect sizes associated with the dimensions underlying engagement' (p.1572) and health complaints. The variance in health complaints accounted for by engagement declined by 80%, indicating that burnout and engagement relate differently to health outcomes. In an attempt to further explore the distinctiveness between the burnout and engagement constructs, Cole et al., (2012) specifically call for Schaufeli and colleagues' independent states perspective of engagement and burnout to be reformulated.

2.7.2 Burnout Outcomes

Employees in a state of burnout experience *exhaustion* (low activation) and *cynicism,* low identification and disengagement from work (Demerouti et al., 2010; Demerouti et al., 2003). Therefore burnout is a negative state which might have detrimental individual and organisation outcomes. Bakker et al. (2004) found that job demands (e.g. work pressure and emotional demands) predicted burnout which turn predict in-role performance. Other researchers have found that burnout is positively related to absence (Peterson, et al., 2008) and absence duration (Schaufeli et al., 2009), it is related to reduced mental and physical health (Bakker & Costa, 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2001; Sonnenschein et al., 2007), and has a negative spill over effect to the individual's home life (Bakker, Demerouti & Shimazu, 2013; Burke & Greenglass 2001).

Summary

Part 1 of this literature review focused on defining employee well-being. It reviewed a taxonomy of employee well-being which presented subjective well-being as a multi-dimensional construct comprising well-being (engagement, job satisfaction) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout), with each dimension displaying unique and independent states of activation and pleasure. Current debates in the literature regarding the discriminant validity of engagement and burnout as a construct were also discussed. The affective-cognitive model of employee subjective well-being reviewed provides researchers and organisations with a means of defining and measuring employee subjective well-being at work.

CHAPTER THREE
LITERATURE REVIEW PART 2:
PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

3.0 Introduction

Part 2 of the literature review considers those factors and antecedents which influence subjective work-related well-being. Using various models of work to identify the importance of job demands and supporting resources in influencing work-related well-being, this section identifies gaps in the literature and calls for further research to identify the pathways through which leaders influence follower well-being. This section details how the following theoretical frameworks inform the overall hypothesised research model;

Work related well-being is an evaluative state with employees making positive or negative judgements about their work and work environment (Ilies et al, 2005). Therefore employee work related well-being is malleable and open to influence from a range of stimuli in the work environment. There is already a large body of research confirming the relationship between an employee's job and their well-being at work (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Karasek, 1979). These various work models have identified the important role of the leader in the employee's positive and negative evaluation of their work, with the leader identified as having a significant amount of control over followers' job resources and experience of work (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Karasek, 1979). Leadership theory, specifically Transformational Leadership theory (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns, 1978) shows that leaders can be perceived as positive, having a constructive and supportive influence on followers' experiences of work. However, Abusive Supervision theory (Tepper, 2000) also shows the reverse, that leaders can be perceived by followers as having a negative and destructive influence on their experiences of

work. To understand how leaders influence followers' experiences at work, the research draws on Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) which states that events in the workplace elicit both positive and negative emotional reactions from employees (Basch & Fisher, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Frijda 1994). The research proposes that follower perceptions of their leader's / immediate manager's leadership style will elicit emotional reactions of pleasantness or un-pleasantness which has consequences for follower behaviours leading to high activation or low activation as indicated by the Taxonomy of Employee Well-being (Bakker et al., 2012). The research specifically proposes a relationship between follower perceptions of a constructive or destructive leadership style and the discrete self-conscious emotions Shame, Guilt and Pride as these emotions operate at both the individual and relationship levels and arise from public approval or disapproval (Tangney & Dearing, 2003). It is proposed that perceived transformational leadership style will act as a job resource providing high levels of effort, resources and support through development and coaching (Bass, 1999; Skakon et al., 2010) and will elicit positive emotional reactions such happiness, enthusiasm and pride, leading to high activation and follower well-being. Conversely, it is proposed that perceived abusive supervision will act as a hindrance demand where the follower will experience both active (public reprimanding) and passive (the silent treatment) abuse which will elicit negative emotional reactions such as sadness, tension and dejection, leading to low activation and follower ill-being.

3.1 Predictors of Employee Work Related Well-being: Job Demands and Resources.

There is already a large body of research confirming the relationship between an employee's job and his or her well-being at work. Karasek's (1979) Job Demands-Control Model (D-C) is widely used to measure job strain and to show how the work environment

34

influences employee well-being. The JD-C model describes the work environment in terms of two dimensions, the psychological *demands* of the work situation, and the amount of *control* (decision latitude, skill discretion) workers have to meet these demands. Karasek's JD-C model has been used in a number of studies to show how low levels of *job control* and high levels of *job demands* influence employee strain, psychological and physical well-being (De Jonge & Kompier, 1997; De Lange et al., 2003, 2004; Schnall et al., 1990; Taris & Kompier, 2004; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). In a longitudinal study spanning three years, Taris and Kompier found a causal relationship between work characteristics specifically job control (*skill discretion, decision authority*) and social support from supervisors, and mental health (*depression, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion*).

Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Characteristics Model (JCM) which describes five core job dimensions, *skill variety*, *task identity*, *task significance*, *autonomy*, and *feedback,* has also been used in many studies (Loher, Noe, Moeller & Fitzgerald, 1985) to show how job characteristics influence work outcomes such as job satisfaction (a dimension of well-being as outlined in Part 1), employee feelings, and employee behaviours such as work performance (Judge, Bono, Locke, 2000; Loher et al., 1985). However, in a meta-analysis which included 28 studies, Loher et al. (1985) found only a moderate relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. Their results showed that after correcting for variance due to sampling error and unreliability in the measures, the observed variance in the correlation between job-characteristics and job satisfaction across 28 studies was .0028, accounting for 53 per cent of the observed variance. Their results indicated that 47 per cent of the observed variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by other situational factors such as *management support.* This aspect of work, featuring the role of the manager/supervisor is

incorporated into the more recent model of work in the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R) developed by Demerouti et al. (2001).

The JD-R model proposes that all working environments can be can be considered in terms of two characteristics, namely job demands and job resources, which have health impairment or motivating influences respectively (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2014). Researchers have shown how job demands and resources are predictors of employee well-being, specifically engagement (Christian et al., 2011; Cullinane et al., 2014) and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2014; Crawford et al., 2010; Makikangas, Bakker, Aunola, Demerouti, 2010; Schaufeli, Bakker, Van Rhenen, 2009; Tadić, et al., 2014). *Job demands*, are defined as the 'physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort' (Crawford, Le Pine & Rich, 2010, p.835) and include aspects of the job such as *work load*, *time pressures*, *emotional demands*, and *physical demands* (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2005). Job demands can act as a positive challenge or as a negative hindrance, depending on the corresponding job resources available to the employee to meet these demands (Crawford et al., 2010; Tadić, et al., 2014). In a recent study, Tadić, et al. (2014) found that hindrance job demands, namely role conflict and role ambiguity, had a negative relationship with employee positive affect and work engagement. They found that job resources, including *social support, autonomy, performance feedback*, and *opportunities for development*, buffered this relationship such that the negative effect was lower when job resources were higher. In contrast, they found challenge job demands, *workload, time urgency, job responsibility*, and *job complexity*, had a positive relationship with positive affect and work engagement, and job resources also boosted this relationship. Challenge demands such as workload, job complexity and time urgency have positive well-being outcomes when supported by job resources which provide opportunities

for growth and learning (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Tadić, et al, 2014). Job demands therefore are associated with both negative psychological costs such as exhaustion (resulting from   demands), or positive outcomes such as engagement (resulting from challenge demands) (Tadić, et al., 2014).

JD–R theory proposes that job resources are directly related to positive indicators of work-related well-being, *job satisfaction and engagement* (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). *Job resources*, which incorporate management/supervisor support, are defined as those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals such as *job control, autonomy*, *supervisory coaching*, *opportunities for development*, *participation in decision making*, *task variety*, *performance feedback*, and *work social support* (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker et al., 2005; Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources 'stimulate personal growth and development, and reduce job demands and their associated physiological and psychological costs' (Crawford, Le Pine & Rich, 2010, p. 835). Job resources are consistently found to positively predict engagement (Hakanen et al., 2006; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006;   Schaufeli et al., 2009a). For example, Schaufeli et al. (2009a) found that an increase in job resources (social support, autonomy, opportunities to learn and develop) led to an increase in engagement. A number of studies have also found a negative relationship between job resources (autonomy, a high quality relationship with the supervisor, performance feedback) and employee burnout (Bakker et al., 2005; Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In a study of over 1000 employees from the higher education sector, Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema (2005) found that high job demands (work overload, physical demands, work-family interface) and low job resources (autonomy, support from colleagues, a high-quality relationship with the supervisor, performance feedback) produced the highest levels of burnout (exhaustion, cynicism).

A number of work models in the well-being literature (Demerouti et al., 2001; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Karasek, 1979) have identified the important role of the leader in controlling job resources and influencing followers' experiences of work. Job demands and job resources therefore can have both a health impairment and a motivational influence. These researchers have established the important role of the leader as a job resource (e.g. enabling opportunities for development, participation in decision making, task variety, performance feedback) and also as a job demand (e.g. dictating work load, time pressures, emotional demands, job control and physical demands) with consequences for employee well-being.

3.2 Leadership Style and Follower Well-being

Immediate managers and supervisors form an important part of a follower's job and through their leadership style can contribute significantly to whether the overall job experience is perceived as pleasant or unpleasant (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Some researchers distinguish between leadership and management, identifying leaders as focusing on long term strategy and influencing followers to commit to achieving this vision, while managers focus on short-term stability, monitoring resources and achieving efficiencies (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Zaleznik, 1977). However, other researchers identify leadership and management as being inextricably linked with effective leaders demonstrating both leadership and management behaviours (Hickman, 1992; Kotter, 1990), behaving with the mind of a manager and the soul of a leader (Hickman, 1990). There is also a move away from identifying leaders in positional terms as those individuals who occupy top roles within the organisation (Hollander, 2012; Meindl, 1995; Uhl-Bien, 2006) to identifying leadership as relational (Hollander, 2012; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Relational Leadership Theory (Uhl-Bien, 2014) identifies leadership as a process that is co-constructed in social and

relational interactions between two or more people for the attainment of mutual goals. This research adopts the view that leadership and management are inextricably linked, that leadership is relational and those individuals who are responsible for managing people and resources, from front-line supervisors to the senior management team, demonstrate both leadership and management behviours. The focus of the present thesis is on employees' perceptions of their immediate supervisor, regardless of the supervisor's level within the organisational hierarchy, and therefore to avoid any confusion the terms 'supervisor' and 'supervision' are adopted throughout the thesis.

Shamir (2007, 2012) proposed that for leadership to exist, one party must have influence over the other. A leader-centric approach to leadership (Hollander, 1993; Meindl,1985) views the leader as a 'power-wielding' influence that has individual, group, and organisational outcomes (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe & Carsten, 2014, p.84). McDermott, Conway, Rousseau and Flood (2013) state that 'line managers' leadership styles each have the potential to influence employee behaviors and attitudes, through their impact on ability, motivation, and opportunity for employees to perform' (p.293). Leaders are presented as motivating and directing followers into action to achieve individual and organisation goals (Bass, 1985). The level of *effort, resources and support* exchanged between the leader and follower influences the quality of the working environment (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000;Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Wayne et al. (1997) found that the relationship the follower has with their leader and their perceptions of organisation support (POS) significantly influenced manager rated follower performance and follower organisation citizenship behaviours. They state that leaders have influence over an organisation's resources such as task and training opportunities, emotional support and access to information which in turn influences performance outcomes. Aside

from job crafting behaviours, where some employees proactively influence their tasks and work relationships (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), the majority of control over job resources and employees' experience of work is held by their leader (Christian et al., 2011; Dulebohn et al., 2012, Sy, Cote & Saavedra, 2005; Zhang, Wang & Shi, 2012). Tuckey, Bakker and Dollard (2012) also assert this view when stating that 'leaders play an influential role in how employees experience their work' (p. 15). In a study of 540 volunteer emergency responders, they found that empowering leadership encourages both teamwork and independent action, and encourages followers to seek out learning opportunities for their development, and this positively enhanced individual level motivational processes which in turn supported engagement. Overall Tuckey et al. (2012) found that leaders who empowered their followers created a positive work environment which led to an increase in engagement.

The relationship the employee has with their manager is an important lens through which they evaluate their work environment and experience of work (Brower, Schoorman & Tan, 2000; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Nielsen & Daniels, 2012; Uhl-Bien, 2006). Leadership theory has shown that leader behaviours can be constructive e.g. *transformational* (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns,1978) or destructive e.g. *abusive* (Tepper, 2000, 2007), with Pelletier (2012) finding that leaders can 'intentionally or unintentionally, inflict harm upon their constituents'(p.412).

3.3 Constructive Transformational Leadership and Follower Well-being and Ill-being

Transformational leadership, first introduced by Burns (1978), is a leader-centric theory (Uhl Bien et al., 2014) based on the traits and behaviours of the leader which influences followers. Transformational leadership is identified as a constructive leadership

style where the leader's behaviour influences 'major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organisation members....building commitment for the organisation's mission, objectives, and strategies' (Yukl, 1989, p269). Transformational leadership theory describes the leader as uplifting the morale, motivation and morals of their followers (Bass, 1999), inspiring followers to see beyond their own self-interests, to perform to high standards and to achieve a vision of the future (Bass, 1999). This is achieved through four transformational leadership behaviours (Bass, 1999; Skakon et al., 2010): (1) *idealised influence* (the leader acts as a role model, communicating the values, purpose and importance of the organisation's mission, demonstrating charisma and qualities that will motivate respect and pride from followers), (2) *inspirational motivation* (the leader provides meaningful and challenging work), (3) *intellectual stimulation* (the leader encourages follower creativity and problem solving), and (4) *individualised consideration* (identifying the individual needs of followers, advising, supporting, developing and coaching). This multidimensional view of transformational leader behaviours is supported by the work of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) who similarly describe transformational leadership as comprising six key behaviours: (1) *identifying and articulating a vision,* (2) *providing an appropriate role model,* (3) *fostering the acceptance of group goals,* (4) *communicating high performance expectations,* (5) *providing individualised support* and (6) *encouraging intellectual stimulation.*

Employees who perceive transformational leadership are said to experience intellectual stimulation, meaningful and challenging work and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The transformational leader acts as a job resource, supporting follower needs through development and coaching (Bass, 1999; Skakon et al., 2010), and is therefore likely to enable follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement). Constructive transformational leaders provide high levels of effort, resources and support to followers by communicating a clear vision, providing individualised support to achieve this

41

vision, and encouraging follower growth (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Perceived transformational leadership is likely to result in the follower experiencing their leader as a resource, providing autonomy, support, clear direction and feedback. Thus enabling the follower to experience positive emotions as indicated by the taxonomy of employee well-being where the follower feels content, relaxed, calm, happy and enthusiastic when interacting with their leader. These resulting positive emotions influence follower activation levels indicated by the taxonomy of employee well-being and enable followers to work with vigor, dedication and absorption, and to experience contentment and satisfaction in their work.

Freeney and Fellenz (2013) found that perceived supervisor support positively and significantly predicted engagement. Their findings are supported by the work of Tims et al., (2011) and Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) who specifically identify transformational leadership (characterised by coaching, supporting and stimulating employees to perform beyond their own expectations) as significantly enhancing the employees' positive experiences of work. Tims et al. (2011) in a diary study of 42 professional employees conducted over five consecutive working days, found the transformational leader increased follower's daily personal resources optimism which in turn positively and significantly influenced follower engagement. Other researchers have found that transformational leadership positively enhances follower working conditions and well-being outcomes. In two separate studies across different work environments, Arnold et al. (2007) found that work involvement partially mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and well-being in Study 1 and fully mediated the relationship in Study 2. This is consistent with a study conducted by Nielsen et al. (2008) who also found work involvement mediated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and the well-being indicator job satisfaction. This theory and research has led to the following hypothesised relationship

between perceived transformational leadership and follower well-being at work;

> *Hypothesis 1a*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to employee job satisfaction.

> *Hypothesis 1b*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to employee engagement.

However, evidence from the workaholism literature casts some doubt over the negative relationship proposed in this research between transformational leadership and employee ill-being, specifically, workaholism. Research in the area of organisational identification suggests that an over-identification with a transformational leader may drive follower workaholism, with a follower working excessively hard to avoid disappointing an influential and inspiring leader. Organisational identification, defined as the 'perception of oneness or belongingness' (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21) to the organisation, is related to employee health and less stress (Avanzi, Van Dick, Fraccarolia & Sarchielli, 2012; Haslam & Van Dick, 2011; Van Dick & Haslam, 2012). Individuals can identify with their 'careers, with different units within their organisation (e.g. work groups), or with the organisation as a whole' (Avanzi et al., 2012, p.290). Individuals experience organisational identification when they internalise the values and norms of the organisation giving them a sense of meaningfulness and belonging (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). However, research by Avanzi et al. (2012) show a curvilinear relationship between organisational identification and workaholism. Their research among a sample of 358 teachers in Study 1, and 205 court employees in Study 2 in Italy shows that workaholism decreases initially when organisational identification increases, but when identification becomes too strong, termed *over identification*, then workaholism increases. The research concluded that an over-identification with the organisation is positively related to workaholism and can have a negative influence

on employee well-being. It is therefore possible that an over-identification with one's leader could have the same negative outcome.

Working excessively, the behavioural component of workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008), is identified as arising out of autonomous motivation and identified regulation (Schaufeli, 2011), where the individual is inspired to perceive the reason to act or behave as coming from within. Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to this as an internal perceived locus of causality. Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) explored the 'dark side' of charismatic leadership where an inspirational leader can be manipulative and emotionally demanding, particularly if the follower is open to such exploitation. This view is further clarified by McMillan et al. (2003) who draw on operant learning theory (Skinner, 1984) to predict that workaholism could be instilled into an individual given adequately potent and suitable reinforces such as peer approval. Based on these theories, it is possible that the transformational leader who inspires followers through idealised influence and inspirational motivation, could potentially be related to employee ill-being, specifically workaholism. For example, Van Wijhe et al. (2013) identified performance-based self-esteem (Hallsten, 1993) as a predictor of working compulsively, as individuals' whose self-esteem is contingent upon outstanding performances are likely to work hard to achieve recognition from their leader. The research findings of Burke, Matthiesen and Pallesen (2006) also found neuroticism was a predictor of working compulsively and concluded that 'workaholism is best explained as a personal trait that may be activated and supported by experiences and events in one's environment, the workplace likely being the most important setting' (p. 1231). Warr et al. (2014) suggest further research is needed to identify the influence of the constructive leader, who motivates and communicates a clear vision, on followers' state of *high-activation* and *unpleasant affect*

(identified as workaholism in the affective-cognitive model of subjective well-being presented in Part 1).

Although evidence of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being, specifically workaholism, is explored in the data and discussed in Chapter Six Analysis, this research instead proposes the transformational leader who demonstrates idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999) will not create an environment that encourages workaholism in their followers (Burke et al., 2006). Followers who perceive transformational leadership experience individualised consideration, the leader identifies individual needs of followers through advising, supporting, developing and coaching (Bass, 1990). The transformational leader through this supportive work environment has the opportunity to identify in the follower those behaviours that are characteristic of workaholism e.g. agitation, anger, hostility, tension (Bakker et al., 2012) and move to address this state through feedback, coaching and development. The research therefore proposes a negative relationship between perceived transformational leadership and the follower ill-being indicator workaholism as follows;

> *Hypothesis 1c*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee workaholism-working excessively.

> *Hypothesis 1d*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee workaholism-working compulsively.

It is also unlikely follower perceptions of a transformational leadership style will support a work environment that leads to follower burnout. Through individualised consideration (Bass, 1999) and providing individualised support (Podsakoff et al, 1990), followers who perceive transformational leadership are likely to experience a supportive work environment which does not encourage exhaustion or disengagement characteristic of

burnout (Demerouti et al., 2003). Through individualised consideration, transformational leaders listen and communicate with followers and engage in intellectual stimulation developing and mentoring followers to ensure they have the competencies to achieve clearly defined goals (Bass, 1999). Therefore, the transformational leader will support a balance between job demands and job resources, ensuring the follower's personal resources are not depleted therefore reducing the potential for burnout. Research shows that perceived transformational leadership has been linked to reduced stress and burnout among employees (Densten 2005; Leithwood, Menzies, Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Liu, Siu & Shi, 2010; Webster & Hackett, 1999). Liu, Siu and Shi (2010) found that trust and enhanced personal resources (as measured by levels of self-efficacy) fully mediated the negative relationship between transformational leadership and follower ill-being outcomes namely perceived work stress and stress symptoms (headache, constant tiredness), and partially mediated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and the well-being indicator job satisfaction. This is consistent with previous research on job demands and resources discussed earlier which identifies the important role of the leader as a job resource which can buffer the negative effects of job demands (Cullinane, et al., 2014). This theory and research has informed the following hypotheses;

> *Hypothesis 1e*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee burnout - exhaustion.
>
> *Hypothesis 1f*: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee burnout - disengagement.

This body of literature supports the view that constructive transformational leaders are positively related to follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and negatively related to follower ill-being (workaholism, burnout).

3.4 Destructive Abusive Supervision and Follower Well-being and Ill-being

There are a growing number of researchers investigating destructive leadership through a variety of conceptualisations; *destructive leadership* (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007), *abusive supervision* (Tepper, 2000) and *petty tyranny* (Ashforth, 1997). Einarsen et al. (2007) define destructive leadership as "the systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor, or manager that violates the legitimate interests of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation's goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates" (p. 208). Ashforth (1997) defines petty tyranny as 'someone who uses their power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and perhaps vindictively' (p. 126). In contrast, Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervision as the 'subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact' (p. 178) which may or may not be intentional. This research will use Tepper's (2000) conceptualisation of abusive supervision to measure destructive leadership at the individual level. The reason for focussing on Tepper's (2000) conceptualisation of abusive supervision is that it is a closer fit with the hypothesised research model presented (Figure 3.0). This research measures the individual employee's perception of their leader as destructive and abusive, resulting from negative and hostile interactions aimed specifically at them personally rather than the organisation or team. Evidence suggests that employees who experience abusive supervision will experience poor effort, poor resources and support (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005; Tepper, 2000).

Followers who perceive abusive supervisory behaviour experience a leader who actively puts them down in front of others, tells them their thoughts and feelings are stupid, reminds them of past mistakes, doesn't give them credit, and includes passive non-verbal

abusive behaviours such as giving the follower 'the silent treatment' (Tepper, 2000). These behaviours are in stark contrast to the transformational leader who uplifts the morale and motivation of their followers. Perceived abusive supervision is unlikely to support the follower to experience a positive work environment and through active and passive abuse, the abusive supervisor is likely to elicit unpleasant follower emotions such as tension, agitation and sadness, indicators of employee ill-being on the taxonomy of work-related well-being. It is unlikely followers who experience negative emotions as a result of perceived abusive supervision will evaluate their work as satisfying or feel motivated to work with vigor, dedication and exhaustion, instead, these followers are likely to work excessively to avoid negative evaluations and feedback from their supervisor or to disengage to protect themselves.

Tepper, Moss, Lockhart and Carr (2007) indicate that abusive supervision damages the quality of the leader-follower relationship with employees using regulative communication strategies i.e. specifically avoiding contact and communications with their supervisor, to escape the negative consequences of abusive supervision. Liu, Liao and Loi (2012) found that abusive supervision negatively influenced follower performance in terms of creativity. In their study of 1,392 team members, they found that team leader abusive supervision negatively and significantly predicted team member creativity. In relation to follower work-related well-being, Tepper (2000) provides evidence of the negative impact of abusive supervision on job satisfaction. Only two studies to date (Bailey, Madden, Alfes & Fletcher, 2015; Sulea, Fischmann, & Filipescu, 2012) have directly studied the negative link between abusive supervision and engagement. Aryee et al. (2008) also found a link between abusive supervision and lower levels of dedication. Tepper (2000) characterises abusive supervision as enduring and likely to continue until the leader-follower relationship is terminated or the leader changes their behaviour. He uses the work of Walker (1992) and

abuse experienced within partnerships to explain how follower's endure sustained abusive supervision in the workplace out of a feeling of powerlessness, due to economic dependence, or fear of separation. These theories and research have informed the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 2a: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee engagement.

Tepper (2000) suggests that a*busive leaders* who impose a tense and controlling work environment are likely to encourage individuals to perceive an external locus of causality. This forces the follower to behave and act to avoid negative evaluations and ridicule from an external source (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Extrinsic drivers can be found in the social environment or even purposefully be induced by others or organisations. Self-determination theory focuses on the socio-contextual conditions that enhance or diminish the processes of self-motivation, and supports the view that workaholism has both intrinsic and extrinsic drivers. This view is further supported in the literature by McMillan et al., (2003) who identify the social environment as encouraging workaholism. Drawing on operant learning theory (Skinner, 1984), McMillan et al. hypothesise 'that workaholism could be shaped into anyone given adequately potent and suitable reinforcers' or positive outcomes such as peer approval (McMillan et al., 2003, p. 172). Schaufeli, Taris and Van Rhenen, (2008) have identified working compulsively, the cognitive component of workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2009), as arising out of introjected regulation, a controlled motivation, where individuals feel they must comply with standards that are set externally. The individual has not internalised the reason to act or behave. Instead, they are driven by an external pressure to have acknowledgement from their supervisor or for ego enhancement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). They also work to avoid negative feedback, and an internal pressure to avoid guilt, shame or

anxiety (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Van Wijhe et al., 2014). The relationship between the employee's perception of an abusive supervisory style and reduced enjoyment of their work (Schaufeli et al., 2002), a key difference between workaholism and engagement, suggests a positive relationship between abusive supervision and workaholism, and a negative relationship between abusive supervision and engagement. A possible link between abusive supervision and workaholism is suggested by the work of Zhang and Bartol (2010) who assert that abusive supervisors who evaluate their subordinate's performance in an abusive manner, may push their employees to work excessively hard to avoid negative evaluations in the future. This body of literature suggests a positive relationship between the follower's perception of abusive supervision and workaholism.

> *Hypothesis 2c*: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee workaholism - working excessively.

> *Hypothesis 2d*: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee workaholism - working compulsively.

Tepper's (2002) work shows that employees who perceive a destructive leadership style, specifically abusive supervision, suffer from anxiety and emotional exhaustion, a key dimension of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2010; Tepper, 2000; Zellars, Tepper & Duffy, 2002). In a survey of 249 employees in varied workplace settings, Yagil (2006) found that abusive supervision positively and significantly predicted follower burnout. Demerouti and Bakker (2008) found that 'burnout is a psychological syndrome that may emerge when employees are exposed to a stressful working environment, with high job demands and low resources' (p. 1). Through interpersonal abuse such as putting 'an employee down in front of others', and passive abuse, such as giving an employee 'the silent treatment' (Tepper, 2000, p. 189), the abusive supervisor acts as a hindrance demand influencing employee ill-being. Liu et al. (2012) state that 'abused employees often suffer from depression, anxiety, and emotional

exhaustion, and they tend to alienate themselves from their jobs'. This study therefore proposes the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 2e: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee burnout - exhaustion.

Hypothesis 2f: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee disengagement.

This section has highlighted both the theory and extant evidence that has led to the hypotheses proposed. It demonstrates that leadership can have both a positive and negative influence on followers' experiences of work and can influence both positive and negative indicators of well-being. The next section considers the pathways through which leaders can influence followers' experiences at work and their well-being and ill-being outcomes.

3.5 Pathways through which Leaders Influence Follower Well-being and Ill-being

Uhl Bien (2006) states that leadership is relational and emanates from the 'rich connections and interdependencies of organisations and their members and is determined by the reactions of the individuals involved' (p.655). Consequently, followers can perceive their leaders to be *constructive* or *destructive* with varying well-being outcomes (Skakon et al., 2010).

Hansbrough et al. (2015) recently called for the study of leadership to extend its focus to investigate how leaders influence follower outcomes. They argue that contemporary approaches to leadership have not adequately considered individuals' perceptions and processes (Brown & Lord, 2001), yet 'the scientific study of leadership requires a greater sensitivity to followers' information processing beyond the traditional focus on reported

leader characteristics and actions' (Hansbrough et al., 2015, p. 233). Although existing research supports the influence of constructive and destructive leadership on employee well-being and ill-being at work, the pathways through which the leader exerts this influence are not so well documented (Skakon et al., 2010). In a systematic review of 49 papers across 30 years which confirm the influence of leadership on employee well-being, Skakon et al. (2010) state that 'it is still unclear how precisely this happens' (p. 131). They call for future leadership and well-being research to extend beyond merely identifying correlations between leadership style and follower well-being outcomes and to investigate the pathways and processes which account for this relationship. This call is echoed by Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) who state 'we need a better understanding of how organisations can enable SWB' (subjective well-being)' (p. 22). There are a number of calls in the literature for further research to explore the role of the leader in follower well-being and engagement (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011; Christian et al., 2011; Skakon et al., 2010; Wu & Hu, 2009) and to specifically measure the positive and negative influence of the leader on the taxonomy of follower well-being (Schaufeli, Taris and Van Rehenen, 2008) ranging from well (job satisfaction, engagement), to unwell (workaholism, burnout). Bakker et al. (2011, p.14) call for alternative models of leadership to help understand 'when, how, and what kinds of leadership behaviours influence engagement'. A call that is echoed by Wu and Hu (2009 p. 164) who call for future research to examine whether effective and ineffective leadership behaviours are predictive of employee well-being and whether these leadership behaviours have the same consequences. Hiller et al. (2011) state there is a need for 'future leadership research 'between now and 2035' to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand how leaders influence employee outcomes' (p. 1170). They specifically call for further research to investigate the complex ways in which the leader and leadership are related to emotional constructs, motivational states, and outcomes of performance or

effectiveness. It is clear from these calls that there is a need to measure the pathways and processes through which constructive and destructive leaders influence the taxonomy of follower subjective well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout) at work.

3.6 Emotion in the Workplace

To explore the pathways through which the leader influences follower well-being at work, this research draws on Affective Events Theory (AET) developed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). Affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) posits that events in the workplace generate positive and negative emotional reactions (Basch & Fisher, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Frijda 1994). Affective events theory explains how exogenous factors, such as leadership, can elicit emotional reactions that have consequences for follower attitudes and behaviours (Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst, 2002). Basch and Fisher (1998) define an affective event as 'An incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job related agent, object or occurrence' (p.3). In their study of 101 employees from ten international hotels across Australia and the Asia/Pacific region, Basch and Fisher (1998) set out to identify an event matrix, identifying which events elicit positive or negative emotional reactions at work. They identified 14 categories of job events which elicit positive emotions, these include acts of management, receiving recognition, job involvement, job control. Those events which elicit negative emotions include acts of management, lack of recognition, making mistakes, lack of influence and control. Consistent with these findings, Wegge et al. (2006) found in a study of 2091 call centre employees from 85 different call centres that various work conditions related to the arousal of affective reactions of employees. Their study found that work characteristics such as autonomy,

opportunities for participation and supervisory support were positively and significantly related to follower positive emotions (strong, inspired, determined, attentive, active). They found that negative work experiences such as work overload was positively and significantly related to negative emotions (guilty, scared, nervous, jittery, afraid) and that work overload also reduced follower positive emotions.

3.6.1 Emotion and Mood

Emotions are transient and intense reactions to an event, person or entity (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Fischer, Shaver, & Carnochan, 1990; Izard, 1991; Lazarus, 1991; Warr et al., 2014), a 'discrete, innate, functional, biosocial action and expression system' (Fischer et al., 1990 p.84). It is the transient nature of emotion and a perceived point of origin that distinguishes emotion from mood. *Moods* activate in an individual's cognitive background, they have no specific target, they are less intense than emotions, and persist for a longer duration (Briner & Kiefer, 2009; Fisher, 2010). Pirola-Merlo et al. (2002) also make this distinction defining *emotion* as 'a discrete affective state that is perceived by the individual to have an identifiable cause and/or referent' (p. 562), suggesting that it is a reactive state. They also define *mood* as 'a diffuse affective state that lacks a clear referent or cause' (p. 562) that can be state or trait orientated. Pirola-Merlo et al. (2002) also provide a clear definition of *affect* as 'a generic label comprising both mood and emotion' (p. 562). Emotions involve a reaction that includes a cognitive and motivational interaction (Briner & Kiefer, 2009) which results in 'simply feeling good or bad, energized or enervated' (Russell, 2003, p.144). Kuppens, Tuerlinckx, Russell and Barrett (2013, p.917) state that 'affective experiences involve at least two properties: valence (ranging from feeling pleasant to unpleasant) and arousal (ranging from feeling quiet to active)'. The pleasure and arousal dimensions of affect is supported by a number of researchers (Fisher, 2010; Larsen & Diener, 1992; Warr et al.,2014; Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, Tellegen, 1999) and clearly outlined

54

in Russell's (2003) circumplex of core affect (discussed in Part 1 of this review and depicted in Figure 2.0).

3.6.2 Positive and Negative Affect

Researchers have shown that affect is a reactive state or stable dispositional tendency to evaluate events as positive or negative (Russell, 2010, Watson et al., 1988; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In developing a measure of affect, the Watson et al. (1988) Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) identifies specific positive and negative dimensions that can be used to measure momentary emotional states or longer dispositional mood. Positive affect (mood or emotion) is demonstrated as *attentive, interested, alert, excited, enthusiastic, inspired, proud, determined, strong* and *active.* Negative affect (mood or emotion) is demonstrated as *distressed, upset, hostile, irritable* (angry); *scared, afraid, ashamed, guilty, nervous, jittery* (Watson et al., 1988).

3.7 Leadership Style and Follower Emotions

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) assert that 'the experience of work is saturated with emotion' (p. 97) and emotions at work are aroused by features of the job such as autonomy, participation, supervisor support (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Herman & Ashkanasy, 2015; Wegge et al., 2006; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). We have already seen that the majority of control over these job resources are held by the leader (Christian et al, 2011; Dulebohn et al., 2012, Sy et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012). In a longitudinal study involving 282 employees, Tsai, Chen, and Cheng, (2009) found transformational leaders influenced follower positive emotions. Other researchers who have found that leaders are a source of employee positive and negative emotions at work include Bono, Folds, Vinson and Muros (2007) and (Dasborough, 2006). Bono et al. (2007) in an experience sampling study of

health care workers found that employees who perceived their supervisors as high on transformational leadership experienced more positive emotions throughout the workday than those employees who did not. In keeping with affective events theory Dasborough (2006) found that leaders are a source of affective events which elicit positive and negative emotions from followers. Her research found that positive leader behaviours such as the leader showing awareness of employee concerns, respect and empowering followers, led to follower positive emotions (excitement, enthusiasm). Conversely, she found that leaders who did not communicate, who communicated aggressively or were rude, prompted follower negative emotions (anger, frustration).

In 2004, Avolio et al. referred to the absence of a conceptual framework of leadership and followers' emotional states. Gooty, Connelly, Griffith and Gupta (2010) have since specifically called for research to examine the influence of transformational leadership on followers' affective experience and work outcomes. As previously stated, for leadership to exist, one party must have influence over the other (Shamir, 2007, 2012). Bono et al.'s (2007) study suggests that leaders influence follower emotions at work and emotional states are the core of follower attitude and behaviour in organisations (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Ashton-James & Ashkanasay, 2008). This view is consistent with Lawler's (2001) affect theory of social exchange which predicts that emotions produced by social exchange generate positive or negative feelings which can be internally rewarding (feelings of pleasantness) or punishing (feelings of unpleasantness). This body of research has informed the following hypothesis;

Hypothesis 3a : Transformational leadership will be positively related to employee positive affect.

Hypothesis 3b : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee negative affect.

Hypothesis 3c : Abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee positive affect.

Hypothesis 3d : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee negative affect.

3.8 Self-conscious Emotions: Shame, Guilt, Pride

Gooty, Gavin, and Ashkanasy (2009) and Ashkanasay and Humphrey (2011) have called for emotion research to extend beyond the dimensions of positive and negative affect to include the differential effects of discrete emotions such as anger, guilt, pride (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) on work outcomes. Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano (1999) state that measuring general positive or negative affective states alone, reduces the ability to predict behaviours arising from specific emotional states. Consequently, this research also tests the influence of constructive transformational leadership and destructive abusive supervision on follower discrete self-conscious emotions shame, guilt and pride, to measure how these emotions influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. *Shame*, *guilt*, and *pride* are identified as discrete emotions in this research as they have been identified as resulting from relationships and interactions (Orth, Robins & Soto, 2010; Tangney & Dearing, 2003). Tangney and Dearing (2003) identify that these very public self-conscious emotions 'function at both the individual and relationship levels'(p.2) and arise from public exposure and disapproval of some shortcoming or transgression. This view is also supported by Orth et al. (2010) who identify shame and guilt as unpleasant emotions when failing to meet internalized social standards such as morality or competence. It is proposed that followers who perceive a transformational leadership style where the leader engages in idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999), will experience positive emotions and fewer negative emotions. Conversely, followers who perceive an abusive supervision style where the leader engages in ridiculing the

employee, lying to the employee, or giving them the silent treatment, will experience negative emotions and fewer positive emotions.

Hypothesis 3e : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee shame.

Hypothesis 3f : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee guilt.

Hypothesis 3g : Transformational Leadership will be positively related to employee pride.

Hypothesis 3h : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee shame.

Hypothesis 3i : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee guilt.

Hypothesis 3j : Abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee pride.

3.9 Follower Emotions and Well-being and Ill-being

Lewis (1971) first introduced the self-conscious emotions defining shame and guilt as unpleasant self-evaluative emotions, with shame focusing on the global self and guilt focusing on specific behaviour. *Shame* is described as an 'overwhelming and debilitating emotion' that paralyses the self through negative self-scrutiny, resulting in a sense of worthlessness, powerlessness and the need to withdraw (Tangney, 1996; p. 743). This shift in self-perception, which is often accompanied by a sense of shrinking, of being small and of wanting to 'sink into the floor and disappear' (Tangney & Dearing, 2003; p. 239) suggests a positive relationship between shame and the disengagement dimension of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2003) which is located in the low activation displeasure quadrant of the circumplex of emotion (Bakker et al, 2012; Russell, 2003). Hallsten, Josephson & Torgén, (2005) also support this view and identify individuals with *performance based self-esteem* (self-esteem that is gained through good role performance) as being at risk of burnout. *Guilt,*

is described as a sense of tension, remorse and regret over the 'bad thing done', and leads to 'reparative action - confessing, apologizing, or somehow repairing, the damage done' (Tangney, 1996, p743). Tension, is a high activation state of displeasure (Bakker et al, 2012; Russell, 2003), and is situated on the workaholism quadrant of the circumplex of emotion (Schaufeli et al., 2009). It is therefore possible that this negative self-evaluative behaviour drives the employee to reassess their actions and to work compulsively and excessively to make amends or to avoid future negative evaluations from their leader.

Pride is described as a positive self-conscious emotion, a pleasant emotion resulting from meeting internalized social standards (Orth et al., 2010; Tangney, 1999; Tracy & Robins, 2004). Tracy, Cheng, Robins and Trzesniewski (2009) distinguish between authentic pride (I did a good thing) and hubristic pride (I am a good person), confirming authentic pride the affective core of self-esteem, and hubristic pride, the affective core of narcissism. Orth et al. (2010) confirm that authentic pride results from attributions to unstable and specific causes (e.g. specific accomplishments or prosocial behaviours – I did a good thing). Hubristic pride results from attributions to stable and global aspects of the self (e.g. I am a good person) Orth et al. (2010). It is possible that these positive emotions are related to job satisfaction and engagement which are located in the pleasure quadrants on the circumplex of emotion (Bakker et a, 2012; Russell, 2003).

Shame, guilt and pride are identified as important public emotions that have significant influences on moral judgment (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007), social behaviour (Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher, & Gramzow, 1992), and subjective well-being (Tracy et al., 2009). Positive emotions and self-evaluations, particularly pride, have been identified as a dimension of employee well-being, specifically engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker, Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002a). Also, in a study of 2327 undergraduate students,

Tracy et al. (2009) found that authentic pride is positively related to self-esteem and negatively related to anxiety and depression.

> *Hypothesis 4a :* Employee positive affect and pride will be positively related to job satisfaction.
>
> *Hypothesis 4b:* Employee positive affect and pride will be positively related to employee engagement.
>
> *Hypothesis 4c:* Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to working excessively.
>
> *Hypothesis 4d:* Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to working compulsively.
>
> *Hypothesis 4e:* Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to employee exhaustion.
>
> *Hypothesis 4f:* Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to employee disengagement.

Negative self-evaluations, have been linked to exhaustion and burnout (Best, Stapleton, & Downey, 2005; Grant & Sonnentag, 2010; Hobfoll, 2002; Morrison, Payne & Wall, 2003). Hobfoll (2002) found that employees who engaged in negative self-evaluations, similar to those associated with shame, are positively and significantly related to exhaustion with employees expending valuable psychological resources focusing on negative aspects of themselves (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2006). Van Wijhe et al. (2014) identify the 'cognitive approach to workaholism as stemming from dysfunctional core beliefs (e.g., "I am a failure") (p.160)' and negative self-evaluations. They identify the important role of pride and guilt in workaholics whose self-worth is contingent upon performance based self-esteem (Hallsten, 1993). Oates (1971) and Van Wijhe et al. (2014) also suggest a link between pride and workaholism, asserting workaholics take pride in the amount of work they achieve, particularly those with an over reliance on performance based self-esteem. This body of research has led to the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 4g: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4h: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee engagement.

Hypothesis 4i: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be positively related to working excessively.

Hypothesis 4j: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be positively related to employee working compulsively.

Hypothesis 4k : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be positively related to employee exhaustion.

Hypothesis 4l : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be positively related to employee disengagement.

Research by Glasø and Einarsen (2006) confirm that emotions produced during interactions between leaders and followers influence follower well-being outcomes, specifically job satisfaction. Followers who experience transformational leadership in particular are said to develop an emotional attachment to their leader (Avolio et al.,2004; Bass, 1999). Dulebohn et al. (2012) explain how high quality leader-member relationships, typical of transformational leaders, have positive individual and organisational outcomes as a result of 'increased affective attachment between leaders and followers' (p.1718). A positive relationship between positive affect and the well-being outcome job satisfaction has been confirmed by a number of researchers (Ashkanasy, & Humphrey, 2011; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Ilies & Judge, 2002; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). Conversely, a negative relationship between negative affect and job satisfaction has been confirmed by Glaso et al. (2011). Wegge et al., (2006) found that supervisory support, autonomy and opportunities for participation were positively and significantly related to follower job satisfaction and this relationship was partially mediated by follower positive emotions

(feeling strong, inspired, determined, attentive, active). The research model presented (Figure 3.0) identifies follower positive and negative emotions and the discrete emotions shame, guilt and pride as mediators in the relationship between leadership and follower well-being and ill-being.

This body of research has informed the overall research hypotheses that constructive transformational leaders positively influence follower well-being outcomes through follower positive emotions and pride, and negatively influence follower ill-being through a negative relationship with follower negative emotions, shame and guilt. Conversely, the research proposes that destructive abusive supervisors negatively and significantly influence follower well-being through a negative relationship with follower positive emotions and pride, and positively influence follower ill-being through follower negative emotions, shame and guilt.

*Hypothesis 5a: E*mployee positive affect and pride, will mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.

*Hypothesis 5b: E*mployee positive affect and pride, will mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.

*Hypothesis 5c: E*mployee positive affect and pride, will mediates the negative relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.

*Hypothesis 5d: E*mployee positive affect and pride, will mediate the positive relationship between abusive supervision and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.

Hypothesis 5e: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.

Hypothesis 5f : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.

Hypothesis 5g : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.

Hypothesis 5h : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the positive relationship between abusive supervision and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.

Summary

The second part of this chapter reviews research on the antecedents of employee wellbeing at work. It focuses on the role of job demands and job resources as being important antecedents of employee wellbeing and in particular the role of the leader in influencing follower well-being and experience of work. This review of the literature clearly identified an important gap in our understanding of how leaders influence follower well-being and highlights calls in the literature to further explore the pathways through which leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being. Building on this review of existing literature and the framework of Affective Events Theory, a research model on the mediating role of positive and negative affect and the discrete self-conscious emotions shame, guilt, and pride are presented to explain the pathways through leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The research model proposes that followers' perception of a constructive or destructive leadership style will influence critical positive or negative self-conscious emotions which in turn influence their well-being or ill-being at work. Research hypotheses are presented to test the specific pathways through which constructive and destructive leaders influence different aspects of employee well-being ranging well (job satisfaction, engagement) to unwell (workaholism, burnout) in order to contribute to a wider understanding of how leaders influence follower subjective well-being at work.
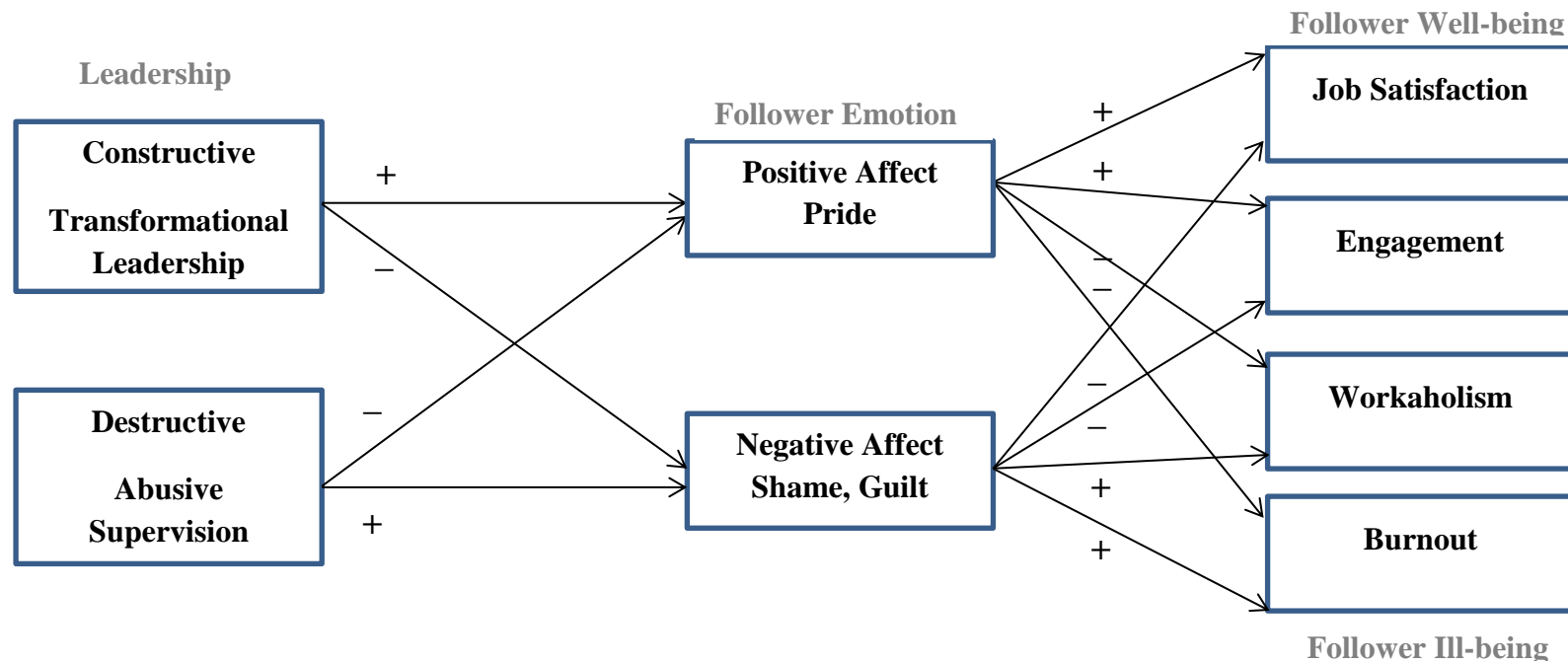
Figure 3.0 Hypothesised Research Model with Proposed Positive and Negative Relationships

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH CONTEXT

4.0 Introduction

Employee well-being and engagement are important organisational issues which have performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), ethical (LaVan & Martin, 2008), and health and safety implications (Bakker & Costa, 2014; Schaufeli, Bakker, Hoogduin, Schaap, & Kladler, 2001; Sonnenschein, Sorbi, Van Doornen, Schaufeli, & Maas, 2007) across a number of industries and sectors. This chapter provides a description of the organisations involved in Study 1 and Study 2 of this research. By conducting the research in two distinctive organisations from different sectors and cultures, the study can identify *when* leaders influence follower well-being through the pathways of follower emotion. Collecting data from two diverse samples reduces common method variance and increases the potential for results to be generalised across contexts.

4.1 Japanese Multi-national Firm BIE

Study 1 was conducted in Brother International Europe which is part of The Brother Group headquartered in Nagoya, Japan. It is a multinational firm with offices throughout the world and manufacturing plants in Japan, Taiwan, Korea, America, Malaysia, Ireland and the United Kingdom (UK). A multinational organisation is a firm which operates beyond their national borders to yield 'benefits from product and geographical diversifications through economies of scale and scope' (Kotabe, Srinivasan, & Aulakh, 2002, p.80). The research took place in the European headquarters of Brother International Europe which is based in

Manchester UK and has a total of 175 employees. Data was also collected from a number of Brother sites located in Europe and these are detailed in *Chapter Four - Methodology*.

4.1.1 Background

The research commenced almost four years into a global recession. For Brother, however, 2011 also saw the organisation embarking on its '3rd Wave' of growth, referred to by BIE chairman and managing director, Mr. Tada, as 'The New Generation' which he said would be achieved by 'staying positive' and by 'learning from each other'. At the Brother International Europe three-day 'Look to the Future' employee communications event, held at the BIE Ltd. headquarters in Manchester in June 2012, Mr. Tada spoke of this new phase of growth being committed to a future built on courage, quality and reliability. To achieve this future vision, the Brother Global Charter and Codes of Practice were communicated to all participants on the day and called for all employees to behave with trust, respect, ethics and morality and to behave with challenging spirit and speed.

4.1.2 Organisation Structure

The BIE organisation structure, depicted in Figure 4.0, shows a hierarchical organisation with strict reporting lines. This is consistent with a study conducted by Schaufeli, Shimazu and Taris, (2009) involving 3, 311 Japanese workers. They identify a culture in which work and social relationships are strongly hierarchical requiring employees to respect their senior superiors. They also suggest that the social harmony element of Japanese culture plays a key role to the extent that individuals' well-being is secondary to the well-being of the group (Iwata, Roberts, & Kawakami, 1995; Schaufeli, 2009). The influence of culture is discussed later in *Chapter 7 – Discussion* to interpret the research findings.

BIE Company Structure
As at 1st October 2012

Shareholders Meeting

Board of Directors

Mr Y Tada
Chairman & Managing Director

Tracey Andrew
PA to Chairman & Managing Director

Corporate Planning
Mr T Okishio
Director

European Operations and Logistics
Mr B Killeavy
Director

Finance Information Services
Mr G Lockton
Senior Director

Management Information Services
Mr I Metcalfe
Director

P&S Business
Mr K Ota
Director

European Operations and Logistics
- Mr J Baker **Senior Manager EP&SS**
- Mr N Hill **Manager European Supply Chain**
- Mr M Keyes **Manager European Logistics**
- Mr N Mistry **Manager European Service Support**
- Mr P Ramsell **Manager Logistics**

Finance Information Services
- Mr R Brown **Senior Manager Finance & Admin**
- Ms J Dixon **Senior Manager HR**
- Miss S Ashmore **Manager Taxation**
- Mr A Buxton **Manager Legal Department**
- Mr D Thorpe **Senior Manager FIS Support**
- Mr M Townend **Manager BIE Finance & European Reporting**
- Mr A Ford **Manager Finance Shared Services**

Management Information Services
- Mrs S Hayes **Senior Manager European Infrastructure**
- Mr E Pasenau **Manager Application Services**
- Mr C Middlewood **Manager European Central Data**
- Mr D Bayley **Manager Infrastructure Services**

P&S Business
- Mr S Stones **Senior Manager Inkjet, Marketing**
- Mr C Marshall **Senior Manager Laser, Pan European & Trade**
- Mr R Thomas **Manager Product Planning**
- Mr D Fisher **Manager Electronic Stationery**
- Mr A Peart **Manager Marketing Communication**
- Mr D Hirota **Manager SSG & SH**
- Mr J Quarterman **Manager Laser & MPS**
- Mr M Copley **Manager Online Sales & Marketing**

Figure 4.0 Brother International Europe (BIE) Organisation Structure

4.2 Irish Local Government Emergency Response Organisation DFB

Study 2 takes place in an Irish context in a local government emergency response organisation. Emergency responders' work is both physically and emotionally demanding. An essential requirement for the role of emergency responder requires that they must be physically fit and assessment centres during recruitment are used to measure physical fitness, handgrip and leg strength. There are a total of 750 emergency responders employed by Dublin Fire Brigade.

4.2.1 Background

This research took place almost five years into a global recession which saw Ireland plunged into a banking crisis and the Irish Government imposing financial emergency measures in the Public Interest Acts of 2009-2013 and the Public Service Stability Agreement 2013-2016 (Haddington Road Agreement). This meant that public sector pay was significantly reduced and a moratorium on recruitment and promotion was put in place. This led to many local government and public sector employees being required to work harder for less money and with fewer resources (Roche & Teague, 2014). However, the effects of these financial and resource restrictions did not negatively influence customer satisfaction and service levels as perceived by users. In the most recent annual report of the local government emergency response organisation published in 2013, a customer satisfaction survey was carried and the findings show that the overall satisfaction rating for services provided by this organisation were 99% compared to 96% in 2007.

4.2.2 Organisation Structure

This emergency response service, similar to many other emergency response organisations around the world, operates a strict hierarchical reporting structure that is almost militaristic in nature (Archer, 1999; Jiang, Hong, Takayama & Landay, 2004). In addition,

this organisation continues to hold a quality standards accreditation (ISO 9001:2008) for all aspects of their service. ISO compliance and awards require strict standards and protocols. This, coupled with its hierarchical and militaristic features, provides a useful lens for interpreting the research findings discussed in detail in *Chapter Seven – Discussion*.
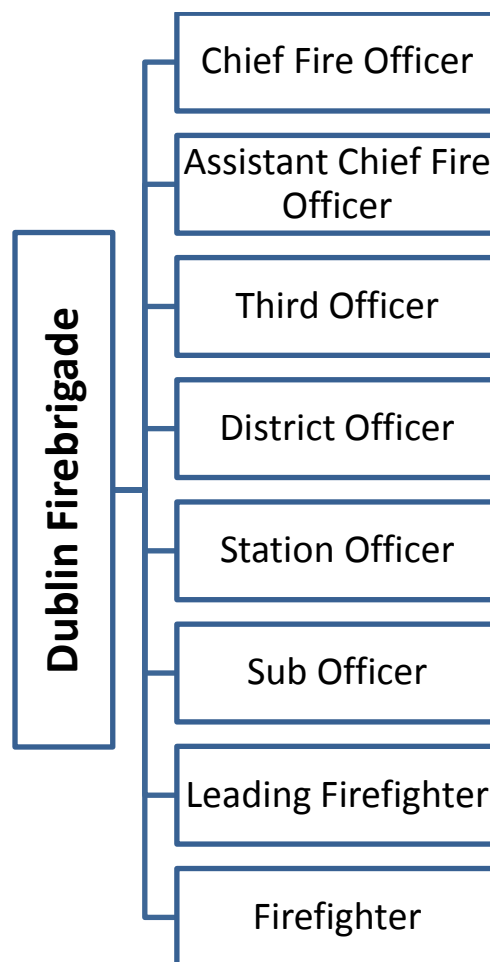
Figure 4.1 Dublin Fire Brigade (DFB) Rank Structure

Summary

This chapter has provided a brief overview of the context of both organisations included in the research. It provided a description of each organisation's size and an outline of its structure and culture. This overview will help to contextualise the research findings presented in *Chapter Seven – Discussion*.

CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.0 Introduction

The present research proposed and tested (a) the impact of employee perceptions of constructive and destructive leadership (i.e. transformational vs. abusive supervision) on their wellbeing (i.e., job satisfaction, engagement, burnout and workaholism), and (b) the mediating role of self-conscious emotions (i.e., shame, guilt, and pride). This chapter presents a detailed description of the research methodology beginning with a description of the positivist research philosophy that informed the quantitative approach taken in the present study. The research process is outlined including a description of the pilot study which in turn informed the final measurement instrument used. The sampling and survey procedures used in both studies are described in detail. Finally, the measurement model is presented along with the results of a confirmatory factor analysis and model fit statistics for the measurement variables.

5.1 Research philosophy – Positivism in Social Science

If accurate decisions based on scientific evidence are to be made in organisations, the way in which knowledge is acquired and tested is critical (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The application of previously tested facts to understand current reality and predict future reality is important in social science and organisation research (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Positivism, a term first introduced by French philosopher August Comte (1798-1857) in the nineteenth century, refers to an epistemological approach in which only knowledge acquired through human experience, observation, measurement and testing can inform social reality. Positivism is based on the principle of verification where a hypothesis is meaningful only if it can be empirically tested by observation through sense experience, analytical or mathematical

calculation (Abbott, 1990). August Comte's (1798-1857) positivist approach to acquiring knowledge and testing its reliability supports a quantitative methodological approach. A quantitative approach, typically conducted through survey questionnaire, is characterised by operational definitions of phenomena built on existing theory which are objectively measured to investigate causality and then replicated across different contexts (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) to either confirm or disconfirm existing theory (Whetten, 1989). This empiricist view of reality believes that we acquire knowledge through our sensory experience of the world and that any knowledge-claim can be tested by experience which is observable and quantifiably measured (Benton & Craib, 2001). The quantitative positivist approach attempts to understand human behaviour by objectifying and measuring human actions, interactions, and outcomes, in an attempt to predict and control. A positivist approach to research measurement and design underlies much of the theory and research in the leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Tepper, 2000, 2007; Yukl, 1989) and well-being literatures (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1986; Maslach Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009; Spence & Robins, 1992). Social scientists who adopt a positivist approach believe that 'scientific objectivity rests on a clear separation of testable factual statements from subjective value judgements' (Benton & Craib, 2001, p.14), and that this observation can be neutral, value free and objective. The positivist ontology is therefore objectivist, the investigator and the investigated are assumed to be independent entities, with the investigator assumed to be capable of studying the phenomena without influencing it or being influenced by it (Benton & Craib, 2001; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; O'Brolcháin, 2011).

However, critics of a positivist approach claim it does not enable the research of 'human beings and their behaviours in an in-depth way' (Crossan, 2003, p. 51) as the use of defined quantitative measures remove other potential influencing variables and removes the

potential for unique personal individualised input. Post-positivism (Popper, 1959) emerged as a result of these challenges. The post-positivist approach does not reject positivism but extends it making the assumption that 'reality is multiple, subjective and mentally constructed by individuals' (Crossan, 2003; p. 54). Therefore, to measure phenomena in a more in-depth way, the post-positivist approach usually adopts an interpretivist and qualitative research methodology. This approach typically uses diary studies or interviews to generate broad themes to understand phenomena and generally gives the individual being researched opportunities for unique personalised responses. However, this approach is deemed inappropriate for this study as this research set out with a defined research question to measure specific hypothesised causal relationships between existing constructs embedded in theory (Figure 5.0). Rather than a qualitative approach using open questions, structured interviews or diary studies to elicit a broad range of responses and themes from respondents, this research used a survey questionnaire to focus participant responses in relation to pre-defined measurement variables and hypothesised causal relationships.

5.2 A Quantitative Theory-Model-Test Approach

The positivistic approach adopted in this study to investigate the influence of constructive and destructive leadership on employee emotions and well-being at work assumes a realist ontology where the researcher develops objective knowledge by working in a *theory-model-test* approach. *Theories* are identified which specify causal laws which are taken to represent reality. A hypothesised research *model* (Figure 5.0) is specified identifying causal relationships to answer a specific research question. The model is then *tested* using validated and reliable instruments which can measure unobservable variables and causal relationships, to confirm or disconfirm theory (Benton & Craib, 2001; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; O'Brolcháin, 2011). A positivist approach was deemed most appropriate for this

research as the research sought to add to existing theory investigating new relationships between previously theorised and tested variables (Figure 5.0).

The following key characteristics of the positivist quantitative methodology (Benton & Craib, 2001) were adopted in this study as follows:

- the investigator and the investigated are assumed to be independent entities;

- a scoping literature review (Jesson, Matheson & Lacey, 2011) was undertaken to understand existing theory and develop hypotheses through a process of deduction;

- a structured research methodology based on the selection of a representative and sufficiently large sample was surveyed using valid and reliable measurement tools;

- an accurate analysis of data was conducted ;

- the results can be replicated.

Through a process of testing and replication of observations across two diverse studies, the research aimed to contribute to existing leadership and well-being literatures to predict future events and behaviours in different organisational sectors. However, Popper (1976) cautions that no scientific law can be accepted as absolute and indefinitely 'proven'. Instead, he proposes that science is a continuous process of observation and testing of previously confirmed hypotheses that may be disproved in the future. He supports the view that existing theory must be continuously tested to strengthen its predictive power.

		WORK RELATED WELL-BEING
	SHORT PANAS (Kercher, 1992; McKinnon et al, 1999)	**JOB SATISFACTION** (Cammann, Fichman & Klesh (1979) 3 items
DESTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP **Abusive Supervision** (Tepper, 2002) 15 items	**STATE SHAME** (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994) 5 items	**ENGAGEMENT** (Schaufeli, Bakker &Salanova, 2006) UWE9-9 items
CONSTRUCTIVE LEADERSHIP **Transformational Leadership** (Podsakoff et al, 1990) 12 items	**STATE GUILT** (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994) 5 items	**WORKAHOLISM** (Schaufeli, Shimazu, Taris, 2009) DUWAS10 – 10 items
	STATE PRIDE (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994) 5 items	**BURNOUT** Demerouti,Bakker, Vardakou,& Kantas,2003) OLBI-16 items
		WORK RELATED ILL-BEING

Figure 5.0. Hypothesised Research Model Representing a Theory-Model-Test Methodology with Measures

5.3 Research Process

To test the external validity and the ability to replicate the hypothesised research model a cross-sectional study using a survey questionnaire was designed and distributed to two diverse samples; *Study 1*, Brother International Europe (BIE), a Japanese multi-national firm (n = 183), and *Study 2*, Dublin Fire Brigade (DFB), a local Irish government emergency response organisation (n = 237). The proposed survey questionnaire (Appendix A) was first submitted with the university's research ethics application (Appendix B) which received approval (Appendix C) as a low-risk social research project. The survey questionnaire was designed in paper and on-line format. It was decided, where feasible, to distribute the paper survey and collect it on the same day to improve participant response rates. This was possible for the researcher to conduct in all Study 2 (DFB) sites, but for Study 1, only the BIE Manchester, Ireland and German sites received paper-pencil surveys. Despite a 97% response rate in Study 2 (DFB) using a paper-pencil survey, the response rate for Study 1 (BIE) was somewhat lower as paper-pencil participants did not consistently lead to higher response rates than on-line survey participants. A summary of the research process used in both studies is presented in Table 5.0.

Table 5.0. Summary Research Process: Study 1 and Study 2

1. **Select the organisation for fit with the research aims.**
2. **Pilot study designed.**
3. **Site visit and pilot study tested.**
4. **Survey questionnaire edited to reflect pilot results and participant feedback.**
5. **Select the sample participants.**
6. **Survey distribution and data collection.**
7. **Data Analysis.**
8. **Findings communicated to participating organisations to contribute to practice.**

5.4 Study 1 BIE Research Process

Brother International Europe (BIE) is part of The Brother Group headquartered in Nagoya, Japan. It is a multinational firm with offices throughout the world and manufacturing plants in Japan, Taiwan, Korea, America, Malaysia, Ireland and the United Kingdom (UK). In commemoration of Brother's 50th anniversary in Europe, research funding was provided by the firm to Dublin City University Business School to investigate the factors influencing employee well-being and engagement in BIE.

5.5 Study 1 BIE Pilot Study

In preparation for the study, the researcher piloted the survey questionnaire with ten PhD researchers in the DCU Business School. No changes were suggested regarding item wording or item ordering by the PhD group. However, they commented that the 15 minutes completion time indicated on the survey instruction letter did not accurately reflect the actual completion time which all ten found was closer to 20 minutes. The researcher also conducted a three-day pilot site visit to BIE's European headquarters in Manchester (UK), a report of which can be found in Appendix D. This visit, undertaken in 2012 coincided with the firm's *'Look to the Future'* employee communications event, aimed at communicating the firm's Global Charter, Code of Conduct, and its three-year growth strategy 2012-2015. A pilot survey was distributed to the 29 participants attending this event, drawn from 11 of the firm's European sites. These were: Hungary (n=1), European HQ Manchester (n=4), UK (n=3), Finland (n=1), France (n=2), Germany (n=2), Italy (n=2), Norway (n=1), Russia (n=2), Sweden (n=1), Switzerland (n=2), and 5 anonymous surveys where the work location was not specified. This was an ideal group with which to conduct the pilot survey as it captured the cultural diversity of the range of potential European survey participants. Participants were

timed completing the survey and were asked for their feedback in relation to face validity and sense-making of the individual items.

The following feedback was received which informed the final survey design, sample selection, and survey translation:

- employees whose first language is not English stated it took them a longer time to complete the survey questionnaire than was initially identified in the survey introduction and cover letter;

- participants stated that English language proficiency should be taken into consideration when selecting Brother sites for survey distribution and the possibility of translating the survey to be explored.

As a result of this feedback, the survey was also translated into German for distribution to employees in German speaking sites. Using a good practice translation process for adapting self-report measures for cross-cultural use (Bullinger et al., 1998), the participating organisation arranged for the survey to be translated by native speakers into German and back translated by native speakers into English. Participants also raised concerns about the biographical information collected, specifically the question '*what is your job title*?' as they felt individuals could be identified from this response. Pilot participants claimed this question would jeopardise the anonymity and confidentiality assured in the invitation letter to participate in the research. Consequently, this question was removed from the survey. Finally, the following two items from the Dutch Work Addiction Scale-DUWAS (Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009) were re-worded to reduce ambiguity, and to increase understanding and improve face validity: 'I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have called it quits' which was reworded to 'I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have gone home' and 'I stay busy and keep my irons in the fire', which was reworded to 'I stay busy and do many tasks at once'.

5.6 Study 1 BIE Sampling

There are a total of 19 Brother Europe sites with Brother International Europe headquarters based in Manchester, UK. As a result of participant feedback from the pilot survey regarding survey length, English language difficulties, and survey completion time, the researcher –together with the firm's HR manager and Operations Director - agreed that only sites proficient in English, and also German speaking sites using a German translated survey, would be included in the research. Those sites which conduct day-to-day operations in both their local language and English were identified for inclusion in the survey. These sites were: UK, Ireland, Brother Nordics - Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Brother CEE – Central & Eastern Europe, Switzerland and Italy. The number of employees invited to participate in the research in each site along with the response rate and survey format are summarised in Table 5.1.

5.7 Study 1 BIE Survey Procedure

The survey was distributed to all staff at all grades in the selected European sites. As some of these sites have a very small number of employees, it was decided to protect anonymity and confidentiality by grouping responses from Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland as Brother Nordics, while Germany, Austria and Italy were grouped as Brother Central and Eastern Europe (CEE). A total of 388 surveys were distributed between June 2013 and December 2013 and 183 surveys were returned, yielding an overall Brother International Europe response rate of 47%. As the research measures the employee's perception of their manager's leadership style, the invitation to participate stated that participants must report to another person.

Table 5.1 Study 1 Sample BIE

Organisation	Total number of employees employed at the site	% (number) Response Rate	Questionnaire Format	Distribution
Pilot study : Brother Europe LTF - Employee Training (June 2013)	100% (n =29)	90% (26)	Paper	Researcher
Brother Dublin (May 2013)	100% (17)	88% (15)	Paper	Researcher
Brother Intl Europe UK (August 2013)	100% (175)	33% (57)	Paper	HR Manager
Brother Nordics : Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland (December 2013)	100% (80)	41% (33)	Qualtrics	Researcher emailed questionnaire link
Brother Switzerland (December 2013)	100% (68)	51% (35)	Qualtrics	Researcher emailed questionnaire link
Brother CEE Central & Eastern Europe : Germany, Austria, Italy (December 2013)	100% (19)	89% (17)	Qualtrics	German translated paper survey distributed by HR Manager to Germany & Austria employees,

- Sites selected for English language proficiency
- 388 Surveys were distributed to Brother Ireland, UK, European sites between June 2013 and December 2013.
- 183 completed surveys from all sites, 47% response rate.

To encourage survey response rates, a paper survey was distributed in a sealed envelope to Brother Ireland staff by the researcher and to Brother International Europe Headquarters (UK) staff and two German speaking sites by the HR manager. As anticipated, sites where paper surveys were distributed and collected on the day had higher response rates compared to emailed surveys. All paper surveys were returned in a sealed envelope directly back to the researcher in DCU Business School and the HR Manager did not have access to the participants' responses. However, it was not possible for the researcher or the HR manager to access all European sites, therefore, all other participating sites received the survey questionnaire by email using the Qualtrics survey tool.

Each participant received an invitation letter (Appendix E) outlining that the purpose of the research was to capture their experience of work and well-being at Brother. Participants were advised that participation in the survey was voluntary, that their responses were strictly confidential (crucial as the survey measured the employee's perception of their manager's leadership style), and under no circumstances would their individual responses be made available to anyone.

5.8 Study 2 DFB Research Process

Dublin Fire Brigade (DFB) is an emergency response organisation that is part of Dublin City Council, the largest local authority in Ireland. In contrast to Brother International Europe, DFB is a local government organisation and provides the opportunity to test the hypothesised research model in a different organisation sector. A copy of the research proposal presented can be found in Appendix F and a summary of the DFB research process is outlined in table 5.0 above.

5.9 Study 2 DFB Pilot Study

In preparation for the research, the researcher met with two senior members of DFB to understand the organisation's operations, culture, and context. The survey questionnaire was piloted with these senior staff members. The survey had already been changed to reflect participant feedback from the Brother International pilot survey. No changes were suggested regarding item wording or item ordering by DFB staff.

5.10 Study 2 DFB Sampling

To minimise the impact of the research on operations, it was agreed that five fire stations would be included in the data collection. These stations were chosen as they were the largest stations in terms of 'watches' (teams) and were identified as having the best potential

to maximise the number of participants and response rates. Each station operates with four rotating watches, A, B, C and D. The number of team members within each watch varies from station to station. Of the participating fire stations, Station 1 operates the largest watches / teams with 20 employees in each watch, while Station 5 operates the smallest watches with six members. Due to rotating shift duties and operational demands, it was agreed that surveys would not be left for employees who were not in attendance at the station during the data collection if they were on call-outs, annual leave or sick leave. This is because the way in which shift patterns and recovery days are structured in DFB, there may be gaps of up to four days before an employee returns to work and it was feared surveys would be lost or forgotten with no researcher contact to prompt participation. It was agreed that the survey questionnaire would only be distributed to DFB staff in attendance in the fire station on the day, and would include all grades/ranks and duties e.g. senior officers, fire-fighters, and kitchen staff who are rotated from the operational fire-fighters.

5.11 Study 2 DFB Survey Procedure

Within a two-week data collection period, the researcher visited each fire station on four different occasions to distribute the survey to each of the four watches. On each occasion, the station officer called all employees who were in the station to the break room where the researcher explained the aim of the research. The researcher distributed an invitation letter (similar to that in Appendix F) and questionnaire (the same as that in Appendix A) to 245 DFB employees outlining the purpose of the research. Employees were advised that their participation was voluntary, their responses were strictly confidential, and under no circumstances would their individual responses be made available to anyone. The researcher waited for employees to return from emergency call-outs or to complete meal times in order to distribute the survey. Completed survey questionnaires were returned directly to the researcher on the day, and this contributed to a 97% (n = 237) response rate.

81

Due to the on-call emergency aspect of the job, a total of eight surveys were not commenced, these are very low numbers and had little impact (3%) on the overall response rate. All DFB employees surveyed were operational fire fighters (165 – 70%) or senior officers (47 – 20%), 10% (28) of respondents chose not to indicate their rank.

Table 5.2 Study 2 Sample (DFB)

Fire Station & Watch	Number of employees present in the fire station during the site visit	% (number) Response Rate	Methodology for site selection and response rates
Station 1 A Watch	25	100% (25)	
Station 1 B Watch	20	100% (20)	
Station 1 C Watch	20	100% (20)	▪ Sites with the largest watches were selected.
Station 1 D Watch	18	100% (18)	
Station 2 A Watch	16	100% (16)	
Station 2 B Watch	15	50% (8)	▪ 245 surveys were distributed between January 2014 and April 2014.
Station 2 C Watch	15	100% (15)	
Station 2 D Watch	14	100% (14)	
Station 3 A Watch	7	100% (7)	
Station 3 B Watch	5	100% (5)	▪ 237 completed surveys, 97% response rate.
Station 3 C Watch	8	100% (8)	780 fire fighters, 30% representative sample.
Station 3 D Watch	6	100% (6)	
Station 4 A Watch	9	100% (9)	
Station 4 B Watch	14	100% (14)	
Station 4 C Watch	12	100% (12)	
Station 4 D Watch	15	100% (15)	
Station 5 A Watch	6	100% (6)	
Station 5 B Watch	5	100% (5)	
Station 5 C Watch	8	100% (8)	
Station 5 D Watch	6	100% (6)	

5.12 A Quantitative Approach – Survey Questionnaire

The positivist quantitative approach adopted in this research informed the collection of data through a survey questionnaire using previously validated and reliable measures. The

survey questionnaire is a statement based self-report measure, designed using previously validated item scales with well-established construct validity. The survey questionnaire is an appropriate and useful means of gathering information when the information sought is reasonably specific and familiar to the respondents. As this study measured followers' negative perceptions of their leader and their feelings and emotions as a result of interactions with their leader, the survey questionnaire provided anonymity and confidentiality. Measurement scales were selected for their fit with construct dimensions being measured (Table 5.3, Table 5.4, Table 5.5) and scale length to ensure a concise questionnaire to encourage participant completion. Research was conducted at the individual-follower level to measure follower perceptions of their leader's style (*transformational leadership, abusive supervision*), the influence on follower emotions (*shame, guilt, pride, positive and negative affect*) and follower well-being at work (*job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout*). It is suggested that self-report measures that capture employee perceptions of their work environment and work experience are a better indicator of within person attitude, behaviour and well-being than third party observations or management reports (Boxall & Mackay, 2014; Warr et al. , 2014; Wood & De Menezes, 2011).

5.13 Questionnaire Structure

The survey questionnaire used in both studies can be found in Appendix E. The questionnaire consists of an introductory letter and the following four sections:

- **Section 1: About your work**

    Measures employee perceptions about their work.

- **Section 2 : About your manager**

    Measures employee perceptions about their immediate manager's leadership style.

- **Section 3 : Interacting with your immediate manager**

    Measures employee perceptions of how their interaction with their immediate
    manager makes them feel.

- **Section 4 : Your general disposition**

    Measures the employee's disposition and how they generally feel.

- **Section 5 : Biographical information**

    Demographic information, work related information in relation to grade, tenure, and
    number of days absent.

Outcome variables which were of major interest to the study (*job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout*) were positioned at the start of the survey as there is a greater probability of participants completing the first section of the questionnaire (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Siniscalco, & Auriat, 2005). Also, dependent variables were positioned before independent variables to reduce the likelihood of social desirability contributing to common-method variance (Boxall & Mackay, 2014; Kline et al., 2000). As regards items placement, items measuring individual constructs were grouped together, a method which Davis and Venkatesh (1996) confirm neither positively nor negatively influences the reliability or validity of the scales over an intermix method of construct items. Items measuring similar constructs were positioned together in sections one to four to improve sense reading. Sensitive items about participant emotions and perceptions of their immediate manager's leadership style were placed in later sections. Section five measured objective continuous data such as education, years of service and absenteeism.

5.14 Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Model Fit Indices and Scale Reliability

All survey responses were measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was

conducted using MPlus to measure the internal validity of item scales and to assess the fit indices. Reliability analysis was then conducted on each scale in SPSS (Version 21) to assess the Cronbach's alpha using Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) cut-off .70 value, and Henson's (2001) more stringent value of .80 as a guide. CFA and reliability results along with the items used to operationalise each construct are outlined in Tables 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5.

5.15 Common Method Variance

Measuring different constructs with the same methods (Podsakoff et al, 2012), particularly self-report measures (Bodner, 2006), can bring into question whether observed covariance between constructs is due to the same measurement method used. Self-report measures of different constructs can often contain items of similar content (e.g. *Engagement* - UWES-9 'I am proud of the work that I do', *State Pride* - SSGS 'I felt proud'). Although data in this study was collected in two different organisational sectors, the survey measurement and design used cross-sectional self-report data, and was collected using the same method i.e. a survey questionnaire. Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) identify this measurement method as creating those conditions which may lead to Common Method Bias (CMB), a measurement error which can either inflate or deflate the observed relationships between constructs. Podsakoff et al. (2012, p.540) identify CMB as 'the biasing effects that measuring two or more constructs with the same method may have on estimates of the relationships between them' (Podsakoff, et al., 2012, p.540). CMB is problematic in research as it can lead to an incorrect perception of how much variance is accounted for in a criterion construct, it can also enhance or diminish the discriminant validity of a scale (Podsakoff et al., 2003; 2012). If common method variance is present, a single factor will emerge from a factor analysis, or one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the variables (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003;

2012). To test for the presence of common method bias, the present research measurement and design implemented a number of procedural and statistical recommendations by Mirowsky and Ross (1991), Podsakoff and Organ (1986), and Podsakoff et al., (2003, 2012).

Procedural recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2012) to reduce the likelihood of CMB in cross-sectional self-report studies were adopted in the research measurement and design and some of these have already been outlined in section 5.13 above in relation to the survey structure. The survey questionnaire was structured to ensure a separation between predictor and outcome variables to reduce the respondent's ability and/or motivation to use previous answers to fill in gaps with what is recalled from previous answers. A number of items were re-worded to improve face validity and sense making, particularly for those participants whose first language was not English. Where appropriate, scales with positively and negatively worded items were selected to reduce the potential for a participant's preference for a positive or negative response style (Mirowsky & Ross, 1991). Although the same Likert scale format (seven point Likert scale) was used throughout the survey questionnaire, the survey design ensured participants' attention was focused by using different sections and instructions for measuring various constructs (see Questionnaire Structure 5.13 above and Appendix E). The survey questionnaire was divided into four sections each with its own unique instruction. Section three instructed the respondent to pause and take some time to reflect on their recent interactions with their immediate manager and how they felt during these interactions. Podsakoff and Organ (1986, p.534) specifically identified the recall of discrete events using self-report measures as being 'less vulnerable to distortion' and common method variance, as participants are less likely to continue a repetitive line of answers from previous questions, or to use their 'lay theories about how organizational phenomena ought to be related'.

Statistical recommendations to test for CMB included Harman's One Factor Test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) where all the variables included in the study were entered into a factor analysis. The results of the unrotated factor solution were reviewed, if CMB is present in a study, then 'a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis', or 'one "general factor" will account for the majority of the covariance in the independent and criterion variables' (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986, p.536). Harman's One Factor Test was conducted in Study 1 and Study 2. Study 1 showed that 28.2% of the variance was explained by one factor, and 27.6% of the variance was explained by one factor in Study 2. This would indicate that common method bias was not a serious concern in either study as the total variance explained by one factor was less than 50%.

Finally, a series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to establish the discriminant validity of the scales. A full measurement model was initially tested, where all variables were allowed to load onto their respective factors and all factors were allowed to correlate. Fit indices were calculated to determine how the model fit the data (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011; Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). For the χ^2/df, values less than 2.5 indicate a good fit and values around 5.0 an acceptable fit (Arbuckle, 2006). For the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), values above .90 are recommended as an indication of good model fit (Hair et al, 2011). For the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), a value below 0.08 indicates an acceptable model fit (Williams et al., 2009). For the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), values less than .06 indicate a good model fit and values less than .10 an acceptable fit (Arbuckle, 2006).

5.16 Measurement Variables

The following section outlines the measurement variables and items used to operationalise the hypothesised research model. Results of the CFA conducted in MPlus and reliability conducted in SPSS (Version 21) are described and summarised in Tables 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5.

5.16.1 Measurement Variables Work Related Well-being

Employee well-being was operationalised as job satisfaction and engagement.

Job satisfaction was construed as one factor and measured with three items from Cammann, Fichman and Klesh (1979). An example item is '*In general, I like working here*'.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 82% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and 83% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The scale showed high internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = .89 and in Study 2 DFB α = .89.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) also revealed a good model fit in both studies (χ**2/df = 0.0/0 = 0, *p* <.001, CFI = .10, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .00**), and Cronbach Alpha of α = .89 in Study 1 BIE and α = .89 in Study 2 DFB.

Engagement was measured using Schaufeli et al.'s (2006) nine item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale - *UWE9* which assesses three dimensions of work engagement, i.e., vigor '*At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy*', dedication '*I am enthusiastic about my job*' and absorption '*I feel happy when I am working intensely*'. Schaufeli et al. (2006) recommend a one factor model using one composite engagement score to measure engagement to avoid problems of multi-collinearity which they encountered when each of the three engagement dimensions were entered simultaneously as independent predictors in a

regression equation (Demerouti et al., 2001; Salanova et al., 2001; Schaufeli, et al., 2002; Schaufeli, et al., 2002).

EFA revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 45% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and 58% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. This result was achieved when item nine (*I get carried away when I'm working*) which did not load correctly onto a single factor was removed. The UWES-9 showed high internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE $\alpha = .84$ and in Study 2 DFB $\alpha = .90$.

However, CFA confirmed three first-order factors (*vigor, dedication, exhaustion*) plus one second-order factor and this model demonstrated acceptable model fit indices in Study 1 **($\chi 2/df = 50.78/15 = 3.35$, *p* <.001, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .05)** and in Study 2 **($\chi 2/df = 27.249/15 = 1.81$, *p* <.001, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03).** Nine items were adopted for the CFA but one item *'I get carried away when I am working'* was removed during the factor analysis due to low factor loadings. Participants in the pilot study commented that this item was confusing, particularly for those whose first language was not English, they understood this to mean that they were lifted up and carried away.

The Cronbach alphas in Study 1 were vigor $\alpha = .74$, dedication $\alpha = .80$ and absorption $\alpha = .46$ (absorption included only 2 items as item 9 was removed 'I get carried away when I am working'). The Cronbach alphas in Study 2 were vigor $\alpha = .81$, dedication $\alpha = .81$, and absorption $\alpha = .69$. Therefore, employee engagement is analysed as one factor with three dimensions in both studies.

Table 5.3 Measurement Variables, CFA and Model Fit Indices : Leadership

Independent Variables			
Construct definition and dimensions	**Construct Measure & Items**	**Study 1 BIE : CFA, Alpha**	**Study 2 DFB : CFA, Alpha**
Transformational Leadership Transformational leadership theory describes the leader as uplifting the morale, motivation and morals of their followers (Bass, 1999), they inspire followers to see beyond their own self-interests, to perform to high standards and to achieve a vision of the future (Bass, 1999). **Transformational Leadership behaviors** 1.Articulating a vision. 2.Providing an appropriate model. 3.Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goal 4.High Performance Expectations. 5.Individualised Support. 6. Intellectual Stimulation.	**Transformational Leadership Inventory – 12 Items** (Podsakoff et al., 1996) **12 items from Podsakoff et al. (1996);**	One factor model, four dimensions using all 12 items. $(\chi2/df = 97.68/49 = 1.97, p <.001,$ **CFI = .98, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .03)**	One factor model, four dimensions using all 12 items. $(\chi2/df = 134.25/49 = 2.73, p <.001,$ **CFI = .97, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .04).**
	Idealised Influence 1. Has a clear understanding of where we are going. 2. Has a clear sense of where he/she wants our unit to be in the future. 3. Provides us with a compelling vision to work towards.	**α= .91**	**α= .93**
	Intellectual Stimulation 4. Inspires others when he/she discusses our direction for the future. **5.** Encourages people to see changes as situations full of opportunities. **6.** Is able to get others to commit to what we need to accomplish in our unit.	**α=.91**	**α= .89**

	Inspirational Motivation 7. Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways. 8. Stimulates me to re-think some things that I have never questioned before. 9. Challenges me to re-examine some of my basic assumptions about my work.	**α=.90**	**α= .93**
	Individualised Consideration 10. Considers people's feelings before acting 11. Behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of the personal needs of others **12.** Sees the interests of employees are given due consideration.	**α=.88**	**α= .90**
Abusive Supervision The 'subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact'(Tepper, 2000, p.178). *Active interpersonal abuse* - ridicules me, tells me my thoughts and feelings are stupid. **Passive acts of abuse** - doesn't give credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort, gives me silent the treatment.	**Abusive Supervision Scale – 15 items** (Tepper, 2000) 1. Ridicules me 2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid 3. Gives me the silent treatment. 4. Puts me down in front of others. 5. Invades my privacy. 6.Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures. 7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. 8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment. 9. Breaks promises he/she makes. 10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason. 11. Makes negative comments about me to others. 12. Is rude to me. 13. Does not allow me to interact with my co-workers. 14. Tells me I'm incompetent. 15. Lies to me.	One factor model using all 15 items.. **(χ2/df = 185.80/81 = 2.29, *p* <.001, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .04)** α= .95	One factor model using all 15 items. **(χ2/df = 408.75/85 = 4.81, *p* <.001, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .04).** α= .97

Table 5.4 Measurement Variables, CFA and Model Fit Indices : Follower Emotions

Mediator Variables			
Construct definition and dimensions	**Construct Measure & Items**	**Study 1 BIE : CFA, Alpha**	**Study 2 DFB : CFA, Alpha**
State Positive and Negative Affect Affect is a reactive state or stable dispositional tendency to evaluate events as positive or negative (Russell, 2003, Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). State – as a result of the employee's perception of their manager's leadership style. **State Positive Affect** Inspired Alert Excited Enthusiastic Determined **State Negative Affect** Afraid Upset Nervous Scared Distressed	**State PANA** – 10 items (Kercher, 1992; Mackinnon et al., 1999) **Positive Affect** 1. I felt inspired 2. I felt alert 3. I felt excited 4. I felt enthusiastic 5. I felt determined **Negative Affect** 6. I felt afraid 7. I felt upset 8. I felt nervous 9. I felt scared **10.** I felt distressed	Two-factor model (two first order factors) Positive Affect and Negative Affect using all 10 items. **(χ2/df = 60.63/34 = 1.78, p <.001, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, SRMR =.05)** PA α =.74 NA α =.86	Two-factor model (two first order factors) Positive Affect and Negative Affect using all 5 items. **(χ2/df = 121.97/34 = 3.59, p <.001, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .06).** PA α = .87 NA α =.92
Shame, Guilt, Pride The self-conscious emotions *shame*, *guilt*, and *pride*, as these have been	**Shame, Guilt & Pride** – 15 items. (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994)	State Shame - a one factor model using all 5 items. **(χ2/df = 4.28/5 = .86, p <.001,**	State Shame - a one factor model using all 5 items. **(χ2/df = 20.63/4 = 5.16, p <.001,**

identified as important public and self-conscious emotions resulting from relationships and interactions (Tangney & Dearing, 2003; Orth, Robins & Soto 2010). *Shame* is described as an 'overwhelming and debilitating emotion' that paralyses the self through negative self-scrutiny, resulting in a sense of worthlessness, powerlessness and the need to withdraw (Tangney, 1996, p743). *Guilt*, described as a sense of tension, remorse and regret over the 'bad thing done', leads to 'reparative action - confessing, apologizing, or somehow repairing, the damage done' (Tangney, 1996, p743). *Pride* however, is a positive self-conscious emotion.	**Shame** (about me / the self) 1. I felt small. 2. I want to sink into the floor and disappear. 3. I felt humiliated, disgraced. 4. I felt like I am a bad person. 5. I felt worthless, powerless. **Guilt** (about the action / the behaviour) 1. I felt remorse, regret. 2. I felt tension about something I have done. 3. I cannot stop thinking about something bad I have done. 4. I felt like apologizing, confessing. 5. I felt bad about something I have done. **Pride** 1. I felt good about myself. 2. I felt worthwhile, valuable. 3. I felt capable, useful. 4. I felt proud. 5. I felt pleased about something I have done. *Note : Trait Shame Guilt Pride are not in the same order.*	CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR =.01 α =.91	CFI = .98, RMSEA = .14, SRMR = .02) α =.93
		State Guilt a one factor model using all 5 items. ($\chi 2/df$ = 7.58/5 = 1.20, *p* <.001, **CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05, SRMR =.02**) α =.90	State Guilt a one factor model using all 5 items. ($\chi 2/df$ = 15.49/5 = 3.1, *p* <.001, **CFI = .97, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .03**) α =.82
		State Pride a one factor model using all 5 items. ($\chi 2/df$ = 4.80/4 = 1.2, *p* <.001, **CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, SRMR =.02**) α =.85	State Pride a one factor model using all 5 items. ($\chi 2/df$ = 15.69/4 = 3.92, *p* <.001, **CFI = .98, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .31**) α =.85 in Study 2 DFB.

Table 5.5 Measurement Variables, CFA and Model Fit Indices : Employee Well-being and Ill-being

Dependent Variables			
Construct definition and dimensions	**Construct Measure & Items**	**Study 1 BIE : CFA, Alpha**	**Study 2 DFB : CFA, Alpha**
Job Satisfaction '. . . a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences' (Locke, 1976 p. 1304). Central to Locke's definition is cognition -evaluating, thinking, and *affect - emotion*, feeling (Saari & Judge, 2004).	**Job Satisfaction - 3 items** (Camman et al., 1979) 1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job. 2. In general, I like working here. 3. All things considered, I am satisfied with my current job.	One factor using all 3 items. CFA results = 0 α = .89	One factor using all 3 items. CFA results = 0 α = .89
Engagement 'a positive, fulfilling, work-related state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption' (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p.74). *Vigor* - high levels of energy and mental resilience while working. *Dedication* - refers to a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. *Absorption* - characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes	**UWES-9 : Utrecht Work Engagement Scale - 9 items** (Schaufeli, Bakker, Salanova, 2006) **Vigor** 1. At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy. 2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. 3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. **Dedication** 4. I am enthusiastic about my job. 5. My job inspires me. 6. I am proud of the work that I do. **Absorption**	Three first-order factors *vigor, dedication, exhaustion* and one second order factor using 8 items. **(χ2/df = 50.78/15 = 3.35, *p* <.001, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .05)** vigor α = .74 dedication α = .80 absorption α = .46 (Absorption - Item 9 was removed to improve model fit statistics; *I get carried away when I am working*)	Three first-order factors *vigor, dedication, exhaustion and one second order facto* using 8 items. **(χ2/df = 27.249/15 = 1.81, *p* <.001, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03).** vigor α = .81 dedication α = .81 absorption α = .69 (Absorption - Item 9 was removed to improve model fit statistics; *I get carried away when I am working*)

quickly and one has difficulties with detaching from work .	7. I feel happy when I am working intensely. 8. I am immersed in my work. 9. I get carried away when I'm working.		
Workaholism 'the tendency to work excessively hard (the behavioural dimension) and being obsessed with work (the cognitive dimension), which manifests itself in working compulsively' (Schaufeli, Shimazu, and Taris, 2009, p.322). **Working Excessively – the behavioural component, a** strong irresistible inner drive and working excessively hard. **Working Compulsively -** the cognitive component was evident in thinking persistently about work, and working compulsively. Workaholism is 'the tendency to work excessively hard (the behavioural dimension) and being obsessed with work (the cognitive dimension), which manifests itself in working compulsively' (Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009, p.322).	**DUWAS - Dutch Work Addiction Scale 10 items** (Schaufeli, Shimazu, Taris, 2009)	Two first-order factors and one second order factor using 9 items. (χ^2/df =43.192/25=1.73, p<.001, CFI.951, RMSEA = .063, SRMR = .050)	Two first-order factors and one second order factor. (χ^2/df =56.224/19=2.96, p<.001, CFI.914, RMSEA = .091, SRMR = .061)
	Working Excessively 1. I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock. 2. I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have called it quits. ** Reworded to improve face validity, a result of the pilot survey participant feedback;* I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have gone home. 3. I stay busy and keep my irons in the fire. ** Reworded to improve face validity as a result of the pilot survey participant feedback;* I stay busy and do many tasks at once. 4. I spend more time working than socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities. 5. I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the phone.	α =.71 for working excessively Item 6 was removed to improve model fit statistics; It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working.	α =.68 working excessively was The following items (3, 10) were removed to improve model fit statistics; I stay busy and keep my irons in the fire. I feel guilty when I take time off work.

	Working Compulsively 6. It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working. 7. It's important for me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing. 8. I often feel that there's something inside me that drives me to work hard. 9. I feel obliged to work hard, even when it's not enjoyable. 10. I feel guilty when I take time off work.	α =.70 for working compulsively	α =. 78 working compulsively.
Burnout Demerouti et al. (2003) define burnout as a two dimensional construct comprising *exhaustion* and *disengagement from work*. **Exhaustion** is defined as a consequence of intense physical, affective and cognitive strain, i.e. as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008, p.4). **Disengagement** - in the OLBI refers to distancing oneself from one's work in general, work object and work content (e.g., uninteresting, no longer challenging, but also "disgusting"). Moreover, the disengagement items concern the relationship between	**Oldenburg Burnout Inventory - 16 Items** (Demerouti, Bakker,Vardakou, Kantas, 2003) *Note* : positive items are reversed scored. **Exhaustion** 1. There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	Two first-order factors (with items removed to improve model fit - Mplus would not run a second order model). (χ^2/df =88.198/53=1.66, p<.001, CFI.929, RMSEA = .060, SRMR = .061)	Two first order factors (with items removed to improve model fit). (χ^2/df =41.151/19=2.17, p<.001, CFI.953, RMSEA = .070, SRMR = .065)
	2. After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better. 3. I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well. **(R)** 4. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained. 5. After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities. (R) 6. After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary. 7. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well. (R)	α =.74 for exhaustion The following items were removed to improve model fit statistics.; 7.I find my work to be a positive challenge. 13.This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.	α = .76 Burnout - exhaustion The following items were removed to improve model fit statistics; 2.There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work. 14. Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well. 16. When I work, I usually feel energized.

employees and their jobs, particularly with respect to identification with work and willingness to continue in the same occupation. (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008, p.5) '**Exhaustion** is defined as a consequence of intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain, i.e., as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands (Demerouti et al., 2003). **Disengagement** – 'refers to distancing oneself from one's work and experiencing negative attitudes toward the work object, work content, or one's work in general'(Demerouti et al., 2003).	8. <u>When I work, I usually feel energized. (R)</u> **Disengagement** 1. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work. (R) 2<u>. It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.</u> 3. <u>Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically. D</u> 4. I find my work to be a positive challenge. (R) 5. <u>Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.</u> 6. <u>Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.</u> 7. <u>This is the only type of work that</u> I can imagine myself doing. D(R) 8. I feel more and more engaged in my work. (R) **(R) = Reverse Scored**	α =.71 for disengagement OLBIDis = ROLBI1 OLBI3 OLBI6 OLBI9 OLBI11 ROLBI15	α =.73 Burnout -disengagement The following items were removed to improve model fit statistics; 3.It happens more often that I talk about my work in a negative way. 6.Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically. 9.Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work. 11. Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks. 13. This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.

Note : items underlined were removed during CFA to improve model fit indices.

5.16.2 Measurement Variables Work-Related Ill-being

Employee ill-being was operationalised as workaholism and burnout (Bakker, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2012; Salanova, Del Líbano, Llorens & Schaufeli, 2014).

Workaholism was measured using the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (*DUWAS)* developed by Schaufeli, Shimazu and Taris (2009). This ten item scale was developed by Schaufeli et al. (2009) as an alternative scale to Robinson's (1989) 25 item Work Addiction Risk Test (WART) and Spence and Robbins's (1992) 25 item Workaholism Battery (WorkBat). The DUWAS was psychometrically evaluated using independent explorative and confirmative samples from two culturally diverse samples that included employees from The Netherlands (N = 7,594) and Japan (N = 3,311) (Schaufeli et al., 2009). It comprises five items from the nine-item Compulsive Tendencies scale of the WART (Robinson, 1999) and five items from the eight-item Drive scale of the WorkBat (Spence & Robbins, 1992). Items were refined and selected based on their content and factor-loadings. Through a process of exploratory principal components analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis, Schaufeli et al. (2009) confirmed a two-factor structure of workaholism – *working excessively*, *working compulsively,* which was validated across both samples. Their results show that both scale dimensions (*working excessively, working compulsively*) are internally consistent and that the DUWAS is a useful tool to measure workaholism in cross-cultural research and diverse contexts (Schaufeli et al., 2009).

The DUWAS was selected for this study as it fits with the construct dimensions of workaholism in the taxonomy of work-related well-being (Bakker, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2012) and presented a concise measure of workaholism with ten items in total. The ten item scale assesses two dimensions of workaholism, namely, working excessively – '*I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and*

writing a memo, while talking on the phone' and working compulsively -*'It's important for me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing'*.

EFA revealed a two factor structure – Working Excessively and Working Compulsively in Study 1 BIE when item six *'It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working'* which has a low factor loading was removed. This two factor structure of workaholism accounted for 53% of the variance. A single factor structure was a better fit to the data in Study 2 DFB and accounted for 34% of the variance. CFA results showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE $\alpha = .78$ and in Study 2 DFB $\alpha = .78$.

Consistent with Schaufeli et al. (2009), CFA showed that workholism is operationalised as two separate variables namely working excessively and working compulsively. The fit indices for two first-order factors (the two dimensions) plus one second order factor fell within an acceptable fit indices, however, two first-order factors shown in Table 5.7 below demonstrated a better fit indices in Study 1 BIE and in Study 2. The Cronbach's alpha in Study 1 were $\alpha = .71$ for working excessively and $\alpha = .70$ for working compulsively. In Study 2 the Cronbach Alpha for working excessively was $\alpha = .68$ and $\alpha = .78$ for working compulsively.

Burnout was measured using the 16 item Oldenburg Burnout Inventory-*OLBI* (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, & Kantas, 2003). Unlike the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1986), the OLBI not only measures affective aspects of exhaustion but also physical and cognitive aspects in keeping with the affective-cognitive model of work-related well-being used in this study. The scale assesses two dimensions of burnout, namely exhaustion: *'There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work'* and disengagement *'Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work'*.

As a result of the CFA in Study 1 BIE, the following items were removed due to low factor loadings (ranging from .22 to .40);

I find my work to be a positive challenge.
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.

EFA showed a two factor structure – Exhaustion and Disengagement as a better fit to the data in Study 1 BIE which accounted for 45% of the variance. This was achieved when item 13 was removed '*This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing*' as a result of low factor loadings. A single factor structure emerged in Study 2 DFB which accounted for 58% of the variance. This result was achieved when item two '*There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work*', item three '*It happens more often that I talk about my work in a negative way*', and item 13 '*This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing*' were removed as they did not load onto a single factor. CFA results showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE with a Cronbach alpha for Disengagement $\alpha = .80$ and Exhaustion $\alpha = .77$. The cronbach alpha for the single factor structure in Study 2 DFB was $\alpha = .83$.

Table 5.6 Competing Models : CFA results for the Dutch Work Addiction Scale *(DUWAS)*

Study 1 BIE	χ^2	df	χ^2 /df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Second-order factors; **Workaholism :** Working Excessively Working Compulsively	45.462	25	1.81	.94	.07	.05
Two first-order factors; **Working Excessively** **Working Compulsively**	43.192	25	1.73	.95	.06	.05

Study 2 DFB	χ^2	df	χ^2 /df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Second-order factors; **Workaholism :** Working Excessively Working Compulsively	90.389	25	3.62	.86	.11	.07
Two first-order factors; **Working Excessively** **Working Compulsively**	56.224	19	2.96	.91	.09	.06

In Study 1 BIE and Study 2 DFB, the fit indices for two first-order factors (disengagement, exhaustion) plus one second-order factor (burnout) fell within an acceptable range, but the fit indices for two first-order factors were better than the second-order as shown in Table 5.8 below. In Study 1 the fit indices were acceptable for two first order factors (**χ^2/df =88.198/53=1.66, p<.001, CFI = .929, RMSEA = .060, SRMR = .061**). The Cronbach's alphas in study 1 were α =.74 for exhaustion and α =.71 for disengagement.

The fit indices in Study 2 were also acceptable for two first order factors (**χ^2/df =41.151/19=2.17, p<.001, CFI = .953, RMSEA = .070, SRMR = .065).** The alpha coefficient was α =.76 for exhaustion and α =.73 for disengagement. Therefore, burnout was analysed as two factors namely exhaustion and disengagement in both studies.

5.16.3 Constructive Leadership: Transformational Leadership

Constructive leadership was conceptualised and operationalised as Transformational Leadership using the 12 item Transformational Leadership Inventory – TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990). This 12 item scale has multi-item subscales corresponding to four dimensions of transformational leadership; (1) Idealised Influence (Has a clear understanding of where we are going), (2) Intellectual Stimulation (Inspires others when he/she discusses our direction for the future), (3) Inspirational Motivation (Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways) and (4) Individualised Consideration (Considers people's feelings before acting). Bass and Avolio's (1997) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (*MLQ*) was also considered for this study. However, the 22-item MLQ measuring the same leadership dimensions *(Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualised Consideration*) as the more concise 12-item TLI was not selected as it would lengthen the survey response time and the TLI is an equally valid and reliable measure (Krüger et al., 2011).

Table 5.7 Competing Models : CFA Results for the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory-*OLBI* (Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, Kantas, 2003)

Study 1 BIE	χ^2	df	χ^2 /df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
One factor	305.486	103	2.97	.74	.10	.098
Two first-order factors (with items removed - Mplus would not run a second order model).	88.20	53	1.66	.93	.06	.06
Exhaustion, Disengagement						
Study 2 DFB	χ^2	df	χ^2 /df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
With second-order	41.150	18	2.29	.951	.074	.066
Two first-order factors.	41.151	19	2.17	.953	.070	.065
Exhaustion, Disengagement						
All Vs without second order	400.277	103	3.89	.71	.11	.09
OLBIDis						
OLBIEx						

This 12-item measure has multi-item subscales corresponding to four dimensions: (1) *Idealised Influence,* (2) *Intellectual Stimulation*, (3) *Inspirational Motivation,* (4) *Individualised Consideration.*

EFA showed a single factor structure which accounted for 65% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and also a single factor structure which accounted for 67% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The single factor Transformational Leadership Inventory showed high internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = .95 and in Study 2 DFB α = .95.

The fit indices for four first-order factors (the four dimensions) plus one second-order factor fell within an acceptable range in Study 1 **(χ2/df = 97.68/49 = 1.97, *p* <.001, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .03)** and in Study 2 **(χ2/df = 134.25/49 = 2.73, *p* <.001, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .04)**. Cronbach alphas in Study 1 BIE were α = .91, .91, .90, and .88, respectively, and in Study 2 DFB, α = .93, .89, .93, and .90. Therefore, transformational leadership was analysed as one factor with four dimensions.

5.16.4 Destructive Leadership : Abusive Supervision

Destructive leadership was conceptualised and operationalised as *Abusive Supervision* which was measured using 15 items from Tepper's (2000) Abusive Supervision Scale. These items assess interpersonal abuse and passive acts of abuse which fit the conceptualisation of destructive leadership in this study. Example items include: my immediate manager 'r*idicules me, tells me my thoughts and feelings are stupid'* and my immediate manager *'gives me the silent treatment'*.

EFA revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 61% of the variance in Study 1 BIE and a single factor structure which accounted for 70% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The Abusive Supervision scale showed high internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = .95 and in Study 2 DFB α = .97.

CFA revealed a one-factor model was a good fit to the data in Study 1 **(χ2/df = 185.80/81 = 2.29, *p* <.001, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .04)** and a moderately good fit to the data

in Study 2 (**χ2/df = 408.75/85 = 4.81, *p* <.001, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .04).** The Cronbach's alpha was α =.95 in Study 1 and α =.97 in Study 2.

5.16.5 Follower Emotions

The emotional reactions of employees to their interactions with their immediate manager were measured using a general measure of positive and negative emotions and a specific measure to assess the self-conscious emotions *Shame, Guilt,* and *Pride*.

5.16.6 Positive and Negative Emotional Reactions

Watson et al. (1988) developed the 20-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule – *PANAS* to measure momentary positive or negative emotional states or longer dispositional mood. This study employed a shorter version of the PANAS termed the Short PANAS developed by Mackinnon et al., (1999). The international Positive and Negative Affect Schedule Short Form - *I-PANAS-SF* by Thompson (2007) was also considered for this study. However, the positive affect sub-scale in this measure included a *shame* item which would have overlapped with the State Shame and Guilt Scale (SSGS) (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994) used in the study and could potentially lead to high correlations amongst the measurement variables. The Short PANAS consists of ten words which describe positive (*Inspired, Alert, Excited, Enthusiastic, Determined*) and negative (*Afraid, Upset, Nervous, Scared, Distressed*) feelings and emotions. Participants were asked to rate how they felt when they interacted with their immediate manager.

EFA for state Positive Affect - PA sub-scale revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 62% of the variance in Study 1 BIE when item 9 '*I felt determined*' was removed for low factor loading.

Table 5.8 Competing Models : CFA Results for the Transformational Leadership Inventory (Podsakoff et al., 1990)

Study 1	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
With second-order TLx12 by TLIC TLIM TLII TLIS	97.68	49	1.97	.98	.07	.03
Without second-order (first-order factors) 4 Separate Vs TLII by TL1 TL2 TL3 TLIC by TL4 TL5 TL5	139.692	48	2.91	.95	.10	.04
Study 2	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
With second-order	134.246	49	2.73	.97	.09	.04
Without second-order (first-order factors)	181.083	48	3.77	.95	.11	.03

A single factor structure emerged in Study 2 DFB which accounted for 66% of the variance. The state Positive Affect (PA) sub-scale showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability α =.77 in Study 1 BIE when item 9 was removed and internal consistency reliability α = .87 in Study 2 DFB.

EFA for the state Negative Affect-NA subscale showed a single factor structure which accounted for 66% of the variance in Study 1 BIE and a single factor structure which accounted for 76% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The state Negative Affect (NA) sub-scale showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = .86 and in Study 2 DFB α = .92.

CFA revealed a two-factor model Positive Affect and Negative Affect was a good model fit in Study 1 ($\chi2/df = 60.63/34 = 1.78$, $p < .001$, **CFI = .96, RMSEA = .07, SRMR =.05**) and in **Study 2 ($\chi2/df = 121.97/34 = 3.59$, $p < .001$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .06).** The alphas for PA in Study 1 were α =.74 and α =.87 in Study 2. The alphas for NA were α =.86 in Study 1 and α =.92 in Study 2. Therefore, PANA were operationalised by two first order factors, namely positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA).

5.16.7 Self-conscious Emotions: Shame, Guilt, Pride

The State Shame and Guilt Scale - SSGS (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994) was used to measure follower emotional reactions to their perceived interactions with their immediate manager. Other measures of self-conscious emotions considered included the authentic and hubristic pride scales (Tracy & Robins, 2007), the Experiential Shame Scale – ESS (Turner, 1998; Turner, Waugh, & Wicker, 2001), the Other as Shamer Scale –OAS (Goss et al., 1994), the Internalized Shame Scale-ISS (Cook, 1987) and the Test of Self-Conscious Affect - TOSCA (Tangney, Wagner & Gramzow, 1989). The pride scales, ESS,

and OAS, measured only one dimension of the self-conscious emotions, pride or shame. The ISS was not appropriate as it measured trait shame, while the TOSCA, a scenario based scale, did not fit with the self-report design, logic, or flow of the survey.

To ensure the scale measured the employee's state and emotional reaction to their interaction with their immediate manager, the following instruction was given to participants: -

Pause and take some time to think about your recent interactions with your immediate manager. Please circle each statement according to which best describes how you felt during these interactions.

Follower feelings of shame, guilt, and pride were measured using fifteen items, i.e. five items to measure each dimension. Sample items include: shame – '*I feel humiliated, disgraced*' and guilt - '*I feel bad about something I have done*'. Sample items measuring pride include hubristic pride –'*I feel worthwhile, valuable*' and authentic pride '*I feel pleased about something I have done*'.

Despite doubts cast by Briner and Kiefer (2009) over the accuracy of asking participants to rate emotional experiences long after they have occurred, evidence from Marschall, Sanftner and Tangney (1994) demonstrated that the SSGS could be used effectively to retrospectively measure how an individual felt about a past interaction or behaviour. While Podsakoff and Organ (1986, p.534) identified the recall of discrete events using self-report measures as being 'less vulnerable to distortion' and common method variance, as participants are less likely to continue a repetitive line from their previous answers. Also important to note, the survey in this case, was not asking participants to rate their emotional reaction to an event long after it had occurred as many of the participants would have had interactions with their immediate manager on that day.

State Shame was measured using five items from the SSGS. EFA for state Shame revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 66% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and a single factor structure which accounted for 79% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The state shame sub-scale showed high internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α =.91 and in Study 2 DFB α = .93.

CFA indicated a one-factor model with good model fit indices ($\chi2/df = 4.28/5 = .86, p <.001,$ **CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR =.01**) in Study 1 and ($\chi2/df = 20.63/4 = 5.16, p <.001,$ **CFI = .98, RMSEA = .14, SRMR = .02**) in Study 2 DFB. The alpha coefficient was α =.91 in Study 1 BIE and α =.93 in Study 2 DFB.

EFA for state Guilt revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 73% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and a single factor structure which accounted for 59% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The state guilt sub-scale showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = .90 and in Study 2 DFB α = .82. The fit indexes for a one-factor model of *State Guilt* indicated a very good model fit ($\chi2/df =$ **7.58/5 = 1.20, p <.001, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05, SRMR =.02**) in Study 1 and ($\chi2/df =$ **15.49/5 = 3.1, p <.001, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .03**) in Study 2. The alpha coefficient was .90 in Study 1 and α =.82 in Study 2.

EFA for state Pride revealed a single factor structure which accounted for 63% of the variance in Study 1 BIE, and a single factor structure which accounted for 63% of the variance in Study 2 DFB. The state Pride sub-scale showed satisfactory internal consistency reliability in Study 1 BIE α = 85. and in Study 2 DFB α = .85.

The fit indexes for *State Pride* revealed a one-factor model and also indicated a very good model fit ($\chi2/df = 4.80/4 = 1.2, p <.001,$ **CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, SRMR =.02**) in Study 1

and ($\chi2/df = 15.69/4 = 3.92$, $p <.001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .31) in Study 2 DFB. The alpha coefficient was α =.85 in Study 1 BIE and α =.85 in Study 2.

5.16.8 Control Variables

To control for participant general emotional disposition, a trait version of the PANA and the SSGS were also used. This was to ensure that dispositional factors did not account for all of the variance in follower emotional reactions to interactions with their immediate manager and to enable the measurement of emotional states and reactions to be assessed independently. To ensure the trait versions of the PANA and SSGS measured the employees' general emotional disposition, the following instruction was given to participants: -

The previous section was concerned with how you felt during your interactions with your immediate manager. This section is concerned with you and your general disposition. The following statements may or may not describe how you generally feel. Please circle the response that corresponds most closely to the extent that you generally feel this way.

5.16.9 Trait PANA

In the CFA for the control variables trait PANA fit indexes for a two-factor model Positive Affect and Negative Affect indicated a good model fit in Study 1 ($\chi2/df = 73.55/31 = 2.37$, $p <.001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .07) and in Study 2 ($\chi2/df = 47.13/32 = 1.47$, $p <.001$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .04) The alpha coefficient is α =.63 for trait PA in Study 1 and α =.85 in Study 2. The alpha coefficient for trait NA in Study 1 is α =.88 and α =.93 in Study 2.

5.16.10 Trait Shame, Guilt, Pride

The fit indexes for a one-factor model of trait Shame indicated a very good model fit in Study 1 and ($\chi2/df = 4.55/5 = .91$, $p <.001$, CFI = .1.00, RMSEA = .0.00, SRMR = .02)

110

in Study 2 ($\chi2/df = 12.66/5 = 2.53$, $p <.001$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .02). The alpha coefficient was $\alpha =.63$ in Study 1 and $\alpha =.91$ in Study 2.

The fit indexes for a one-factor model of trait Guilt indicated a very good model fit in Study 1 ($\chi2/df = 9.00/5 = 1.8$, $p <.001$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .02) and in Study 2 ($\chi2/df = 6.28/5= 1.26$, $p <.001$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, SRMR = .02). The alpha coefficient was $\alpha =.85$ in Study 1 and $\alpha =.86$ in Study 2.

The fit index for a one-factor model of trait Pride indicated a very good model fit in Study 1 and ($\chi2/df = 10.71/5 = 2.14$, $p <.001$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .03) and in Study 2 ($\chi2/df = 17.70/5 = 3.54$, $p <.001$, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .03). The alpha coefficient was $\alpha =.74$ in Study 1 and $\alpha =.80$ in Study 2.

However, despite acceptable fit indices and Cronbach alpha results for trait PANA and trait Shame, Guilt and Pride in both studies, these control measures were removed from the final test of model fit using Structural Equation Modelling, as inclusion of these control variables reduced the overall model fit to an unacceptable level. These results are noted for Study 1 in Table 6.6 and for Study 2 in Table 6.12.

5.17 Research Ethics

Ethics Approval was sought for the research from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee (see Research Ethics Committee Notification Appendix C). This notification outlined how approval for access to the participants in Study 1 was approved by the Managing Director of Brother Ireland and the Senior Director and HR Manager of Brother International Europe. Approval for access to participants in Study 2 was approved by the HR Director at Dublin Fire Brigade. Limited risks associated with the research were

outlined by the researcher in the Research Ethics Committee Notification which outlined how respondents may have concerns if they provide honest responses within the questionnaire in relation to their immediate manager's leadership style or how they felt when they were interacting with their immediate manager. To mitigate against this risk, great care was taken to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the individual survey data. All surveys were anonymous and no individual participant responses were shared with the organisations. The committee approved the research as a low-risk social research project (Research Ethics Committee Approval Appendix D).

Summary

This chapter outlined the research methodology and process applied in the research. The measurement variables and items used to operationalise the hypothesised research model and the results of the CFA are discussed. The next section, Chapter 6 – Analysis, outlines the data analysis strategy and the results of the measurement models in each study.

CHAPTER SIX
DATA ANALYSIS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the analyses carried out to test the proposed research model and presents the findings. The chapter deals with each study separately and is therefore structured as **Study 1 Brother International Europe (BIE)**, and **Study 2 Dublin Fire Brigade (DFB)**. Firstly, the potential for common method bias is addressed as analyses are carried out which demonstrate that this is not a serious problem in either study. Secondly, the data analysis strategy adopted for studies 1 and 2 respectively is described. The results for each study are then outlined, commencing with an analysis of non-response bias to examine the sample representativeness in the study. Descriptive statistics and correlations using SPSS (version 21) are presented to show associations between the focal variables. Finally, results of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using MPlus (Muthen & Muthen, 1998) are presented showing the results of weighted regression analysis, mediation tests and model fit statistics for the overall hypothesised research model. To allow the reader a better visual interpretation of the overall model results, this model is divided into eight sub-models. The overall weighted regression and mediation results of the full hypothesised research model are presented to demonstrate the effects of transformational leadership on follower emotions and all four indicators of well-being and ill-being, and this is repeated for the effects of abusive supervision.

6.1 Data Analysis Strategy

The first stage of data analysis in this study conducted tests for potential common method bias (CMB) and are discussed in detail in the previous section (Chapter 5 – Research Methodology). The research measurement and design implemented established

recommendations to test for CMB (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003; 2012). Results of a Harman One Factor Test in Study 1 and Study 2 showed that common method bias did not adversely affect the results in this research as one general factor did not account for the majority of the covariance among the variables. A series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were also conducted to establish the discriminant validity of the scales. A full measurement model was initially tested in MPlus where all variables were allowed to load onto their respective factors and all factors were allowed to correlate. Fit indices were calculated to determine the model fit and these model fit statistics are presented and discussed in detail in the previous section (5.15). The second stage of data analysis conducted in the study used SPSS (version 21) to analyse descriptive statistics and correlations, and these results are presented to show associations between the focal variables. Demographic results are also presented to give an insight into response rates and sample representativeness.

Finally, stage three of the data analysis involved Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using MPlus (Muthen & Muthen, 1998) to conduct a regression analysis, to test for mediation, and to identify the model fit statistics. The overall hypothesised research model (Figure 6.0) testing the influence of perceived transformational leadership and abusive supervision on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes and the mediating effects of follower emotions was tested. The model fit statistics for this full hypothesised research model and the overall regression weights and mediation results are presented. However, as this is a complex model with a large number of variables, for reporting purposes, the full hypothesised model is divided into eight sub-models which allows the reader a better visual interpretation of the overall model results. The overall weighted regression and mediation results of the full hypothesised model are presented firstly to demonstrate the effects of transformational leadership on follower emotions and all four indicators of well-being and ill-being, and this is repeated for the effects of abusive supervision.

114

This research used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as an analytical approach to simultaneously combine factor analysis, linear regression and mediation models for theory testing. The analysis strategy followed the two steps recommended by McDonald and Ho (2002) and Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards, (2009) for conducting SEM in management research. Firstly, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was carried out to verify the factor structure of the set of observed focal variables in the present study. Secondly, a structural model was defined informed by theory. Williams et al. (2009) suggest that 'the overall fit from the second step yields information about the adequacy of the structural part of the overall theoretical model, and also allows for analysis of residuals at the latent variable level that shows specifically where a model is working well and where it is breaking down' (p.587). To report the model fit indices, Williams et al. (2009) recommend the use of the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) fit statistics. For the CFI, values above .90 are recommended as an indication of good model fit (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). For the RMSEA, values below .08 indicate an acceptable model fit (Williams et al., 2009). SRMR, values less than .06 indicate a good model fit, values less than .10 an acceptable fit, while χ^2/df, values less than 2.5 indicate a good fit with values around 5.0 an acceptable fit (Arbuckle, 2006). Hair et al (2011) identify R^2 values of 0.75 as substantial, 0.50 as moderate, and 0.25 as moderate or weak.

6.2 Test of Mediation

Mediation hypotheses were tested via Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using MPlus (Muthen & Muthen, 1998). To establish mediation, the following conditions need to be met according to Baron and Kenny (1986) and Kenny and Judd (2014);

- the first condition stipulates that the dependent variable must be positively/negatively and significantly related to the independent variable (X->Y);

- the second condition stipulates that the mediated variable is positively/negatively and significantly related to the independent variable (X->M);

- the third condition stipulates that the dependent variable is positively/negatively and significantly related to the mediated variable (M->Y);

- the fourth condition requires the direct relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable to be non-significant (full mediation) or weaker (partial mediation) when accounting for the effect of the mediator (XM->Y).

The study reports results for the 5% level of significance or below ($p < .001$, $p < .01$, $p < .05$) because the former is the most commonly used value in psychology (MacKinnon et al., 2002). However, in line with previous organisation behaviour research published in the Academy of Management Journal (Gardner, Gino & Staats, 2012) and Organization Science (Gittel, Seidner & Wimbush, 2010), this research also reports marginally significant results indicated by p-values below .10 ($p <.10$). Reporting these p-values can provide a sign-post for researchers for the inclusion or exclusion of variables in future research. Reporting results which show p-values below .10 ($p <.10$) are presented in light of the current discussion regarding a publishing bias that favours only positive results which may lead to future research unknowingly replicating past studies where hypotheses have not been supported (Goodchild van Hilten, 2015; Ioannidis et al., 2014). Exact values to three decimal places are reported.
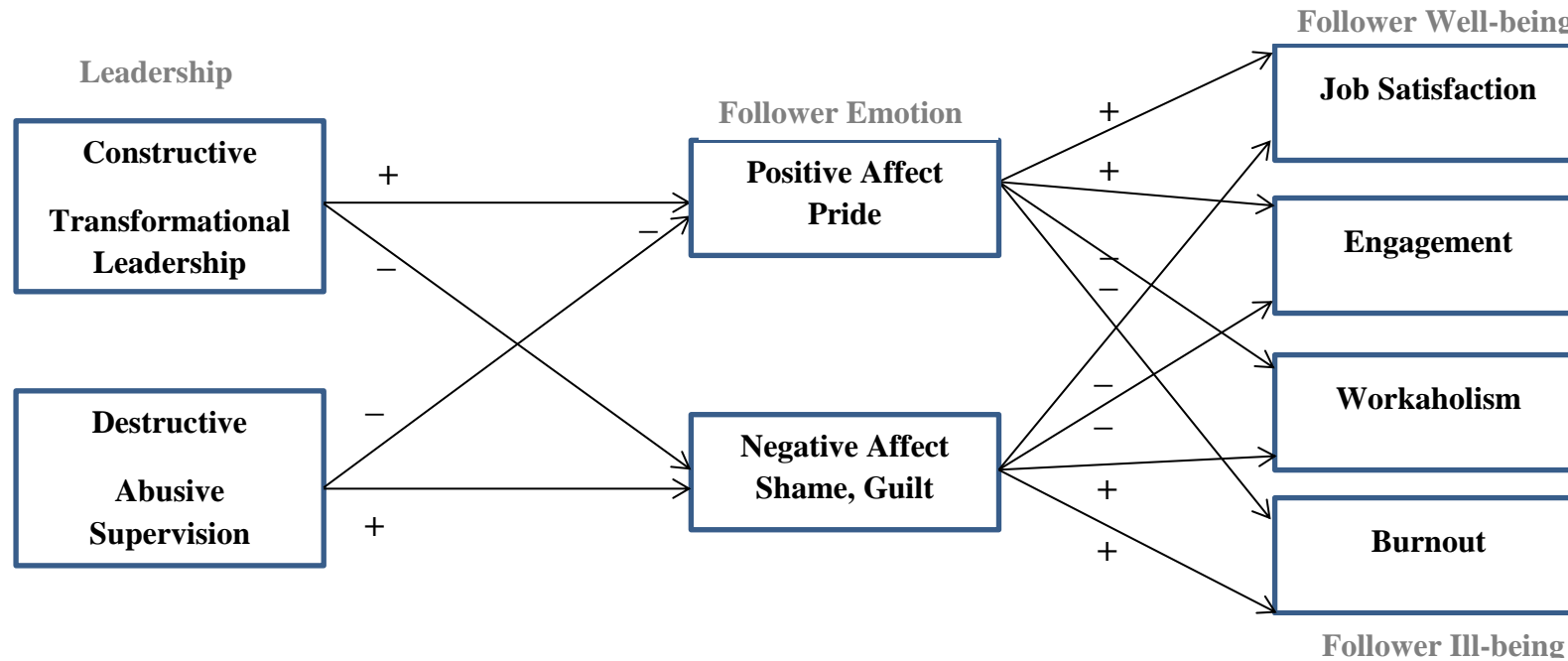
Figure 6.0 Hypothesised Research Model - Leadership, Follower Emotions, Well-being and Ill-being at Work

6.3 Study 1: Brother International Europe (BIE)

The results for Study 1 are presented as descriptive statistics, regression and mediation analysis and model fit statistics.

6.4 Sample Representativeness

A survey questionnaire was distributed in paper form to employees in BIE UK and Ireland, and as an on-line survey to Brother employees across a number of European sites (Denmark, Norway, Finland, Sweden, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Italy). Participants' responses represent their perceptions of their immediate manager's leadership style, their emotional response to their interactions with their immediate manager, and their well-being at work. It is interesting to note that Brother sites with smaller total numbers of employees had higher response rates, perhaps an indicator that respondents from smaller groups feel they must participate as numbers are already low, or that it will be more evident in a smaller groups if people do not participate.

Table 6.0 Study 1 Participant Response Rates

388 Surveys Distributed June 2013 - December 2013	Response Rate
183 completed surveys	47%
BIE Manchester 57 responses	33%
Brother Ireland 15 responses	88%
Brother Nordics 33 responses (Denmark = 11, Norway 6, Finland 6, Sweden 10);	41%
Brother Switzerland 35 responses,	51%
Brother Central and Eastern Europe 17 responses (BCEE) which includes Germany 13, Austria 3, Italy 1,;	89%
Brother Look to the Future (LTF) participants 26 responses LTF participants include Hungry 1, BIE Manchester 4, UK 3, Finland 1, France 2, Germany 2, Italy 2, Norway 1, Russia 2, Sweden 1, Switzerland 2, anonymous/work location not specified	90%
Brother Nordics 33 responses (Denmark = 11, Norway 6, Finland 6, Sweden 10)	41%

Percentage response rates from the larger sites were statistically valid in terms of representation of the employees at that site. However, the actual number of participants who responded to the survey in some sites was as low as three. To maintain the confidentiality that was assured to participants, the data was analysed as one group comprising all participating Brother International European sites.

6.5 Profile of the Respondents

A total of 113 (62%) males and 60 (32%) females responded to the survey, with 10 (6%) respondents choosing not to indicate their gender. The age profile of participants ranged from 20-30 years (15%), 31-40 years (32%), 41-50 years (32%), 50-65 years (17%), and another 4% of respondents chose not to indicate their age. In terms of education, 15% of respondents were educated to A-Level or equivalent, 28% were qualified to certificate level, Bachelor Degree 22%, Postgraduate Diploma 6%, Masters Degree 10%, and 19% of respondents chose not to indicate their education level. A total of 6% of respondents worked in Administration, 13% Information Technology (IT), 2% Human Resources (HR), 30% Sales & Marketing, 14% Finance, 1% Manufacturing, 26% other, while 4% of respondent chose not to indicate their type of work. 26% of respondents were managers. 47% of respondents had up to two years services, 18% had 2-4 years' service, 25% had 5-9 years' service, and 10% of respondents did not indicate their length of service.

6.6 Individual Items Descriptive Analysis

The means and standard deviations for individual items for the study's participants are presented in Tables 6.1 to 6.3. All responses were measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). A score of 5 or above indicated respondents agreed with the item / statement, a score of 3 or below, indicated respondents

disagreed. A score of 3 indicated that respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the item / statement presented.

6.6.1 Followers' Perceptions of their Immediate Manager's Leadership Style.

The survey assessed followers' perceptions of their immediate manager's leadership style. Specifically, respondents were instructed to think about their immediate manager's leadership style and to answer a number of statements with regard to their managers. Specifically, the instructions read as follows:

The following statements relate to your perceptions of your immediate manager's leadership style. Thinking about this individual, please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.

The number of responses, mean, and standard deviation (SD) for each item are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Study 1: Followers' perceptions of their immediate manager's leadership style

Measurements	N	Mean	SD
Abusive Supervision			
Ridicules me	178	2.11	1.39
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid	178	1.86	1.31
Gives me the silent treatment.	178	2.04	1.43
Puts me down in front of others.	178	1.96	1.43
Invades my privacy.	178	1.65	1.08
Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.	178	2.29	.157
Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	177	2.77	1.76
Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	177	2.16	1.51
Breaks promises he/she makes.	177	2.33	1.55
Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason.	177	2.11	1.52
Makes negative comments about me to others.	178	1.99	1.28
Is rude to me.	177	1.79	1.27
Does not allow me to interact with my co-workers.	177	1.61	.91
Tells me I'm incompetent.	178	1.47	.90
Lies to me.	178	1.85	1.4

Transformational Leadership			
Has a clear understanding of where we are going.	179	5.16	1.50
Has a clear sense of where he/she wants our unit to be in the future.	179	5.32	1.39
Provides us with a compelling vision to work towards.	179	4.80	1.54
Inspires others when he/she discusses our direction for the future.	178	4.67	1.57
Encourages people to see changes as situations full of opportunities.	179	5.06	1.45
Is able to get others to commit to what we need to accomplish in our unit.	178	5.04	1.23
Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	178	4.79	1.57
Stimulates me to re-think some things that I have never questioned before.	178	4.80	1.45
Challenges me to re-examine some of my basic assumptions about my work.	178	4.62	1.38
Considers people's feelings before acting	178	4.53	1.72
Behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of the personal needs of others	178	4.74	1.57
Sees the interests of employees are given due consideration.	178	4.85	1.41

Note: Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from N = 183 in some item responses.

6.6.2 Followers' Emotions as a Result of their Interactions with their Immediate Manager.

The survey further measured followers' emotions as a result of their interactions with their immediate manager. Specifically, respondents were given the following instructions in the survey questionnaire:

Pause and take some time to think about your recent interactions with your immediate manager. Please circle each statement according to which best describes how you felt during these interactions.

The results are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. Study 1: Follower Emotions as a Result of their Interactions with their Immediate Manager

Measurements	N	Mean	SD
Self-conscious emotions (average)			
Shame			
I felt small.	178	5.39	1.31
I want to sink into the floor and disappear.	178	1.90	1.21
I felt humiliated, disgraced.	178	2.10	1.12
I felt like I am a bad person.	177	4.98	1.47
I felt worthless, powerless.	178	2.10	1.34
Guilt			
I felt remorse, regret.	176	2.60	1.55
I felt tension about something I have done.	177	5.31	1.27
I cannot stop thinking about something bad I have done.	176	1.71	1.13
I felt like apologizing, confessing.	176	1.97	1.31
I felt bad about something I have done.	176	4.98	1.21
Pride			
I felt good about myself.	175	1.82	1.26
I felt worthwhile, valuable.	175	2.13	1.33
I felt capable, useful.	175	5.02	1.29
I felt proud.	176	2.03	1.37
I felt pleased about something I have done.	175	2.02	1.31
Positive Affect			
I felt inspired	174	4.59	1.34
I felt alert	174	1.93	1.24
I felt excited	175	4.07	1.55
I felt enthusiastic	176	2.47	1.55
I felt determined	176	4.00	1.47
Negative Affect			
I felt afraid	176	2.76	1.61
I felt upset	176	4.65	1.41
I felt nervous	176	1.81	1.10
I felt scared	175	4.65	1.55
I felt distressed	176	2.37	1.51

Note: Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from N = 183 in some item responses.

6.6.3 Followers' Well-being and Ill-being at Work

The questionnaire also assessed followers' well-being and ill-being at work. These results are presented in Table 6.3. Specifically, respondents were asked the following question about how they feel about their work:

The following statements relate to perceptions about your work. Please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.

Table 6.3 Study 1: Follower Well-being and Ill-being Outcomes

Measurements	N	Mean	SD
Job Satisfaction			
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	183	5.89	.92
In general, I like working here.	183	6.08	.81
All things considered, I am satisfied with my current job.	183	5.73	.94
Engagement			
At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy.	183	4.22	1.24
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	183	4.73	1.13
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	183	5.45	1.14
I am enthusiastic about my job.	183	5.04	1.24
My job inspires me.	183	4.93	1.43
I am proud of the work that I do.	183	5.56	.99
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	183	5.90	.95
I am immersed in my work.	183	5.02	1.26
I get carried away when I'm working.	183	4.55	1.28
Workaholism			
Workaholism - Working Excessively			
I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.	182	4.26	1.66
I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have gone home.	183	4.16	1.53
I stay busy and do many tasks at once.	183	5.14	1.14
I spend more time working than socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities.	183	4.37	1.73
I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the phone.	183	3.82	1.70

Workaholism – Working Compulsively			
It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working. (removed in BIE to improve EFA)	183	2.67	1.52
It's important for me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing.	183	4.25	1.68
I often feel that there's something inside me that drives me to work hard.	183	5.03	1.34
I feel obliged to work hard, even when it's not enjoyable.	183	4.49	1.49
I feel guilty when I take time off work.	183	3.57	1.83
Burnout			
Exhaustion			
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	183	2.57	1.16
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	183	4.18	1.67
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	183	2.70	1.56
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.	183	3.48	1.61
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	183	2.32	1.10
After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	183	2.86	1.53
Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.	183	2.62	1.31
When I work, I usually feel energized.	183	3.12	1.45
Disengagement			
I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.	183	3.44	1.60
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.	183	3.11	1.45
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	183	2.48	1.44
I find my work to be a positive challenge.	183	3.21	1.56
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.	183	4.93	1.62
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	183	2.37	1.06
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.	183	3.07	1.25
I feel more and more engaged in my work.	183	3.04	1.49

Note: Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from N = 183 in some item responses.

6.7 Correlation Tables

Table 6.4 provides correlation coefficients indicative of the relationship among the focal variables in the study. Specifically, statistically significant relationships between constructive and destructive leadership, follower emotions, and all well-being outcomes were found, with the exception of workaholism.

6.8 Scale Items, Descriptives, and Model Fit Statistics

Table 6.5 outlines the measurement model used in Study 1. Independent, mediator and dependent variables are identified along with the measurement scale used to operationalise each variable. Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) described in Chapter 5 Methodology are presented. Model fit statistics are presented along with the optimum number of items used from each scale to operationalise the variables.

Table 6.4 Study 1 : Correlation Matrix

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Abusive Supervision												
2. Transformational Leadership	-.550**											
3. Shame	.761**	-.473**										
4. Guilt	.647**	-.402**	.847**									
5. Pride	-.543**	.563**	-.544**	-.402**								
6. Positive Affect	-.372**	.473**	-.338**	-.181*	.624**							
7. Negative Affect	.622**	-.417**	.727**	.760**	-.431**	-.178*						
8. Job Satisfaction	-.353**	.518**	-.348**	-.237**	.461**	.377**	-.197**					
9. Engagement	-.205**	.509**	-.158*	-.097	.400**	.373**	-.115	.602**				
Workaholism;												
10. Working Compulsively	.348**	-.080	.317**	.265**	-.215**	-.038	.238**	-.142	.113			
11. Working Excessively	.283**	-.112	.276**	.230**	-.220**	-.197**	.244**	-.062	.206**	.445**		
Burnout												
12. Burnout Disengagement	.344**	-.478**	.295**	.220**	-.449**	-.388**	.199**	-.684**	-.745**	.150*	-.022	
13. Burnout Exhaustion	.413**	-.367**	.389**	.387**	-.453**	-.329**	.412**	-.377**	-.390**	.261**	.397**	.425**

*p <.05, **p <.01. Pairwise deletion method was employed to deal with missing data.

Table 6.5 Study 1 : Scales, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD) and Model Fit Statistics

Variables	Scale items operationalised	N	Mean	SD	χ^2	Df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Alpha
Abusive Supervision	15 item Abusive Supervision Scale	177	2.00	1.05	185.80	81	.95	.08	.04	.95
Transformational Leadership	12 item TLI									
Idealised Influence	3 items	179	5.09	1.37	97.68	49	.98	.07	.03	.91
Intellectual Stimulation	3 items	177	4.93	1.31	97.68	49	.98	.07	.03	.91
Inspirational Motivation	3 items	178	4.74	1.34	97.68	49	.98	.07	.03	.90
Individualised Consideration	3 items	178	4.71	1.41	97.68	49	.98	.07	.03	.88
Self Conscious Emotions	15 item SSGS									
Shame	5 items	175	1.89	1.06	4.28	5	1.00	.00	.01	.91
Guilt	5 items	175	2.15	1.13	7.58	5	.99	.05	.02	.90
Pride	5 items	175	5.13	1.01	4.80	4	.99	.03	.02	.85
PANA	10 item Short PANAS				60.63	34	.96	.07	.05	
Positive Affect	5 items	174	4.39	1.03	60.63	34	.96	.07	.05	.74
Negative Affect	5 items	174	2.26	1.13	60.63	34	.96	.07	.05	.86
Job Satisfaction	3 items	183	5.90	.81	0	0	1.00	0	0	.89
Engagement	9 item UWES-9									
Vigor	3 items	183	4.63	1.03	50.78	15	.93	.11	.05	.74
Dedication	3 items	183	5.47	.95	50.78	15	.93	.11	.05	.80
Absorption	2 items	183	3.52	.61	50.78	15	.93	.11	.05	.46
Workaholism	10 item DUWAS									
Working Excessively	5 items	182	4.35	1.07	43.19	25	.95	.06	.05	.71

Working Compulsively	4 items	183	4.33	1.16	43.19	25	.95	.06	.05	.70
Burnout	16 item OLBI								
Exhaustion	5 items	183	3.24	1.02	88.19	53	.93	.06	.06	.74
Disengagement	6 items	183	2.85	.92	88.19	53	.93	.06	.06	.71

Note : Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from N = 183 in some item responses.

6.9 Study 1 : Model Fit Statistics

SEM (using Mplus) was used to test the full hypothesised model (Figure 6.6) measuring the effects of constructive and destructive leadership on employee well-being and ill-being and the mediating effects of employee self-conscious emotions and affect.

Table 6.6 Study 1 : Competeing Models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 1 Full Hypothesised Model	3875.38	2325	.814	.062	.078
Model 2 Constructive Transformational Leadership	2736.24	1426	.769	.073	.129
Model 3 Destructive Abusive Supervision	3603.50	2077	.797	.065	.090
Model 4 Control Variables Trait PANA, Shame Guilt, Pride	5555.24	3053	.751	.069	.092

The overall model fit indices for the full hypothesised model showed an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi2$/df = 3875.38/2325 = 1.67, *p* <.001, CFI = .814, RMSEA = .062, SRMR = .078. These results comply with Hu and Bentler's (1999) *Two Index Presentation Strategy* which recommends a results combination of RMSEA of .06 or lower and a SRMR of .09 or lower. Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008) identify RMSEA as one of the most informative fit indices as it favours parsimony, identifying an optimum model with the least number of parameters. However, Hair et al. (2011) recommend a CFI result >.09 and the model fit does not reach this threshold with a CFI of .814. One of the benefits of using SEM as an analytical approach means that factor analysis, linear regression and mediation models can be tested simultaneously. SEM therefore enables an analysis at the latent variable level and shows specifically where a model is working well and where it is breaking down (Williams et al.

(2009). In Study 1, follower emotions pride, and positive and negative affect were the only hypothesised emotions mediating the relationship between perceived leadership style and follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. Follower shame or guilt did not mediate this relationship as hypothesised, or have a significant correlation with follower well-being or ill-being outcomes. The limitations of these results are discussed in Chapter 7 Discussion.

Competing models were also tested splitting the full hypothesised model according to leadership style and testing a constructive and destructive model of leadership, follower emotions, and well-being at work. However, this in fact yielded a weaker model fit. The model fit statistics for the effects of transformational leadership on follower emotions, and well-being at work were ($\chi 2/df = 2736.243/1426 = 1.92$, $p <.001$, $CFI = .769$, $RMSEA = .073$, $SRMR = .129$) and for the effects of abusive supervision ($\chi 2/df = 3603.50/2077 = 1.73$, $p <.001$, $CFI = .797$, $RMSEA = .065$, $SRMR = .090$). To allow for easier interpretation and visual display of the results, the full hypothesised model is divided into eight sub-models for reporting. First, the findings of four sub-models which show the weighted regression and mediation results for the effects of transformational leadership on all four indicators of well-being and ill-being are presented. Then the findings of four sub-models showing the weighted regression and mediation results of the effects of abusive supervision on the same four indicators of well-being and ill-being are presented.

6.10 Transformational Leadership, Follower Emotions and Well-Being and Ill-being at work.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that perceptions of a constructive leadership style, operationalised as transformational leadership, would positively influence well-being outcomes, i.e., job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively influence ill-being outcomes,

i.e. workaholism and burnout. Results from SEM showed that perceptions of transformational leadership positively and significantly influenced follower job satisfaction (β = .493, *p*=.000) and follower engagement (β = .658, *p*=.000) supporting *Hypothesis 1a* and *1b*. In relation to the follower ill-being outcome workaholism, *Hypothesis 1c* and *1d* were not supported; perceptions of transformational leadership did not influence working excessively (β = .106, *p*=.308) or working compulsively (β = .036, *p*=.721). However, perceptions of transformational leadership negatively and significantly influenced follower burnout dimensions exhaustion (β = -.200, *p* = .027) and disengagement (β = -.449, *p*=.000) providing support for *Hypothesis 1e* and *1f.*

It is important for the reader to note at this point that *hypothesis 2* which proposes destructive abusive supervision is negatively related to follower well-being and positively related to follower ill-being will be discussed in the next section − 6.15 *Abusive supervision, Follower Emotions and Well-being and ill-being at Work.*

Hypothesis 3 proposed that perceptions of transformational leadership, would positively influence follower positive emotions (positive affect, pride), and negatively influence follower negative emotions (negative affect, shame, guilt). Results of SEM showed that transformational leadership positively and significantly influenced follower positive affect (β = .620, *p*.000) and pride (β = .550, *p*=.000), supporting *Hypothesis 3a* and *3g* respectively. However, transformational leadership did not negatively influence follower negative affect (β = -.034, *p* = .668), shame (β = -.037, *p* = .550), or guilt (β = .003, *p* =.969), therefore *hypothesis 3b, 3e, and 3f* were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that follower positive affect and pride would positively influence well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) while negative affect, shame and guilt would negatively influence well-being. *Hypothesis 4a* was not supported, i.e. employee

positive affect (β = .202, *p* =.174) and pride (β = .079, *p* =.678) did not influence employee job satisfaction. *Hypothesis 4b* was partially supported, employee pride positively and significantly influenced engagement (β = .445, *p* = .053), however, employee positive affect (β = .173, *p* =.347) did not influence engagement. In relation to follower negative emotions, employee negative affect (β = .204, *p* =.192), shame (β = -.696, *p* =.283), and guilt (β = .345, *p* =.440), did not negatively influence follower job satisfaction with no support for *Hypothesis 4g*. In addition, there was no support for *hypothesis 4h*, employee negative affect (β = .187, *p* =.0316), shame (β = 1.007, *p* =.189), guilt (β = -.636, *p* =.231) did not negatively influence follower engagement.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that follower positive affect and pride would negatively influence follower ill-being (workaholism, burnout) and follower negative affect, shame and guilt would positively influence follower ill-being. *Hypothesis 4c* was not supported as follower positive affect (β = -.220, *p* =.230) and pride (β = -.022, *p* =.926) did not negatively influence the working excessively dimension of workaholism. *Hypothesis 4d* was partially supported, specifically, pride (β = -.378, *p* =.090) negatively and significantly influenced the working compulsively dimension of workaholism, however, positive affect (β = .198, *p* =.259) did not demonstrate a significant relationship.

In relation to follower negative emotions, neither follower negative affect (β = -.046, *p* =.816), shame (β =.143, *p* =.856), nor guilt (β = .092 *p* =.865) influenced working excessively, therefore *Hypothesis 4i* was not supported. Similarly, follower negative affect (β = -.261, *p* =.158), shame (β = -.145, *p* =.845), and guilt (β = .360, *p* =.482) did not influence working compulsively, thereby providing no support for *Hypothesis 4j*. *Hypothesis 4e* was fully supported as follower pride (β = -.478, *p* =.029) and positive affect (β = -.279, *p* =.093) negatively and significantly influenced the exhaustion dimension of burnout. *Hypothesis 4f*

was partially supported with pride negatively and significantly influencing the disengagement dimension of burnout (β = -.390, *p=.069*), however, follower positive affect (β = -.067, *p* =.693) did not negatively influence disengagement.

In relation to follower negative emotions and burnout, there was partial support for *Hypothesis 4k*, with follower negative affect (β = .398, *p* =.022) positively and significantly influencing exhaustion, however, neither shame (β = -1.131, *p=.131*), nor guilt (β = .652 *p* =.204) influenced work exhaustion. *Hypothesis 4l* was not supported as neither follower negative affect (β = .073, *p* =.674), shame (β = -.386, *p* =.587), nor guilt (β = .277 *p* =.572) influence the disengagement dimension of burnout.

16.10.1. Mediation Effects

*Hypothesis 5a proposed that e*mployee perceptions of transformational leadership would positively influence employee job satisfaction and engagement and negatively influence workaholism and burnout. This relationship will be mediated by employee positive and negative affect, and the self-conscious emotions shame, guilt and pride. The results of the mediation analyses show that follower pride partially mediated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and engagement (β = .445, *p* =.053). Follower positive affect (β = -.279, *p=.093*), negative affect (β =.398, *p=.022*) and pride (β = -.478, *p=.029*) fully mediated the negative relationship between transformational leadership and the burnout dimension exhaustion. Likewise, follower pride fully mediated the negative relationship between transformational leadership and the disengagement dimension of burnout (β = -.390, *p* =.069*)*. In sum, *Hypothesis 5a* was partially supported as the self-conscious emotions shame and guilt did not act as mediators in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower well-being and ill-being outcomes respectively.
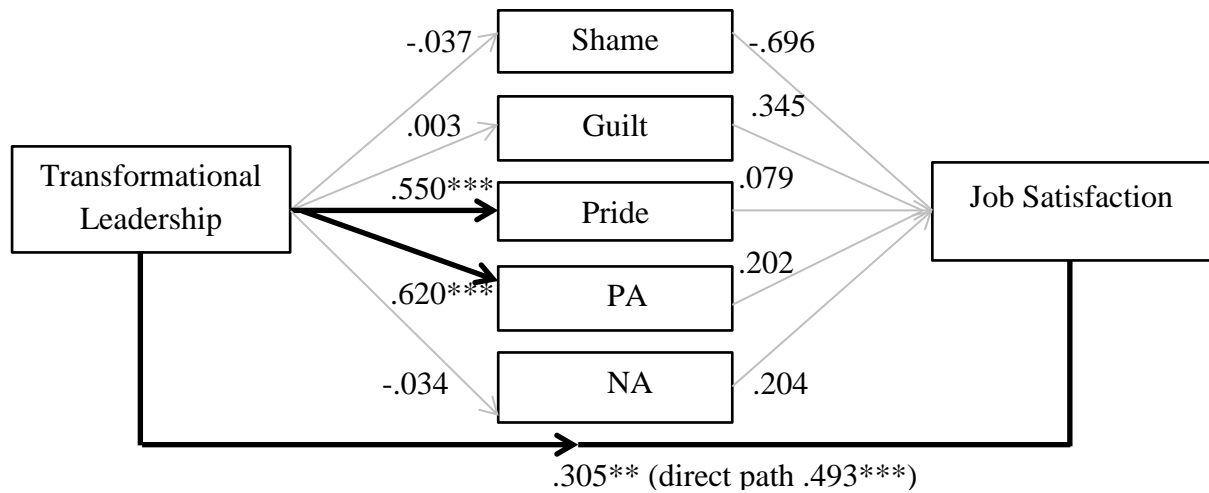
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* <.10

Figure 6.1

Study 1 : Ttransformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Job Satisfaction
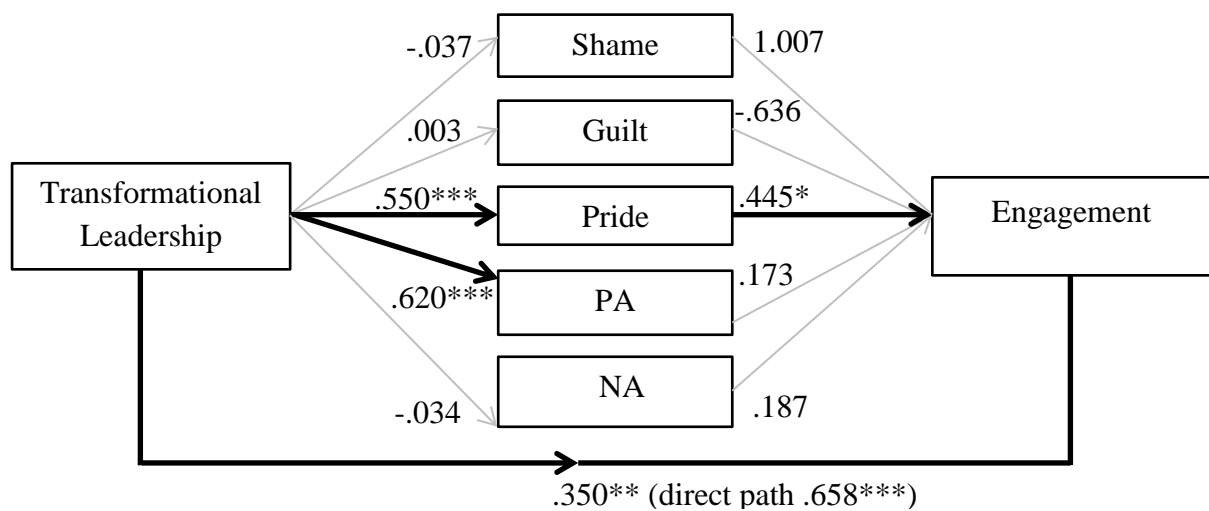
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.2

Study 1 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Engagement

.256 † (direct path .106)

Working Excessively

Shame   -.037

Guilt   .003

Transformational Leadership   .550***   Pride

.620***   PA

NA

.034

.143

.092

-.022

-.220

-.046

-.145

.360

-.378 †

.198

-.261

Working Compulsively

.106 (direct path .036)
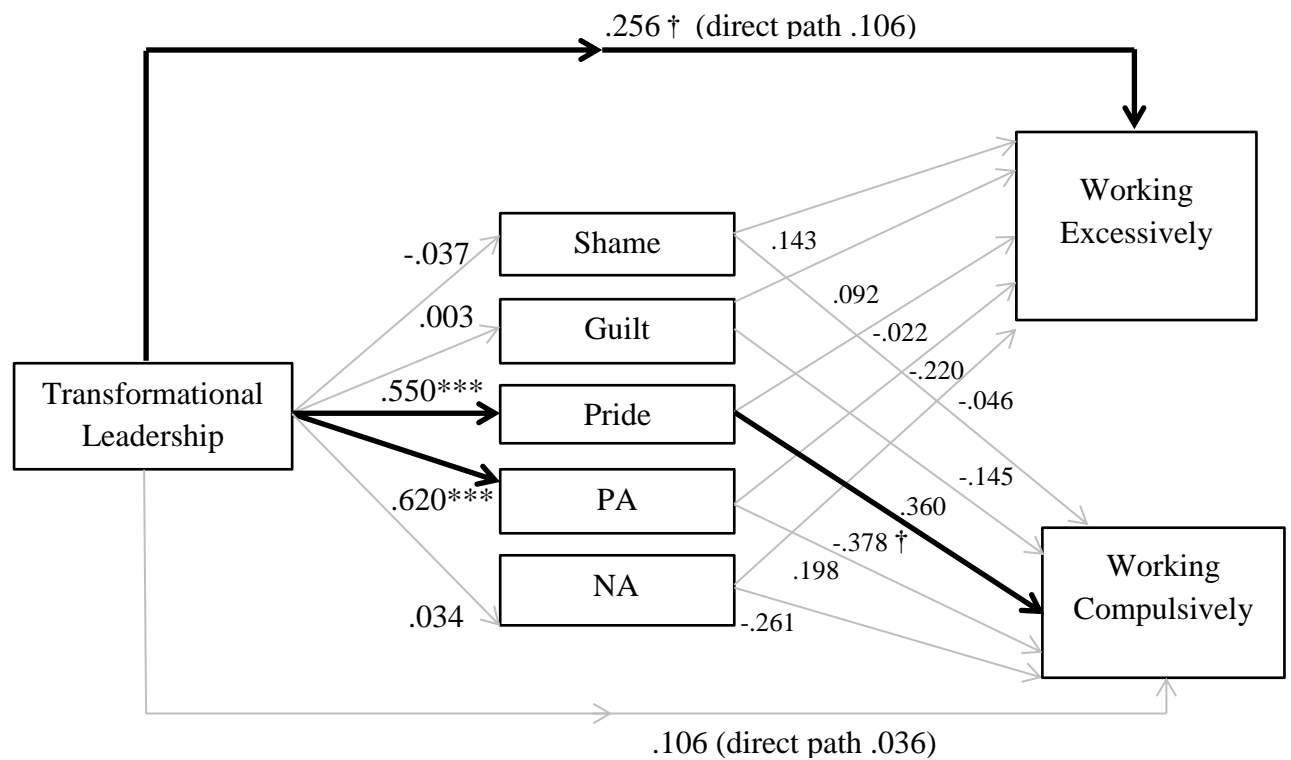
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$

Figure 6.3

Study 1 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Workaholism
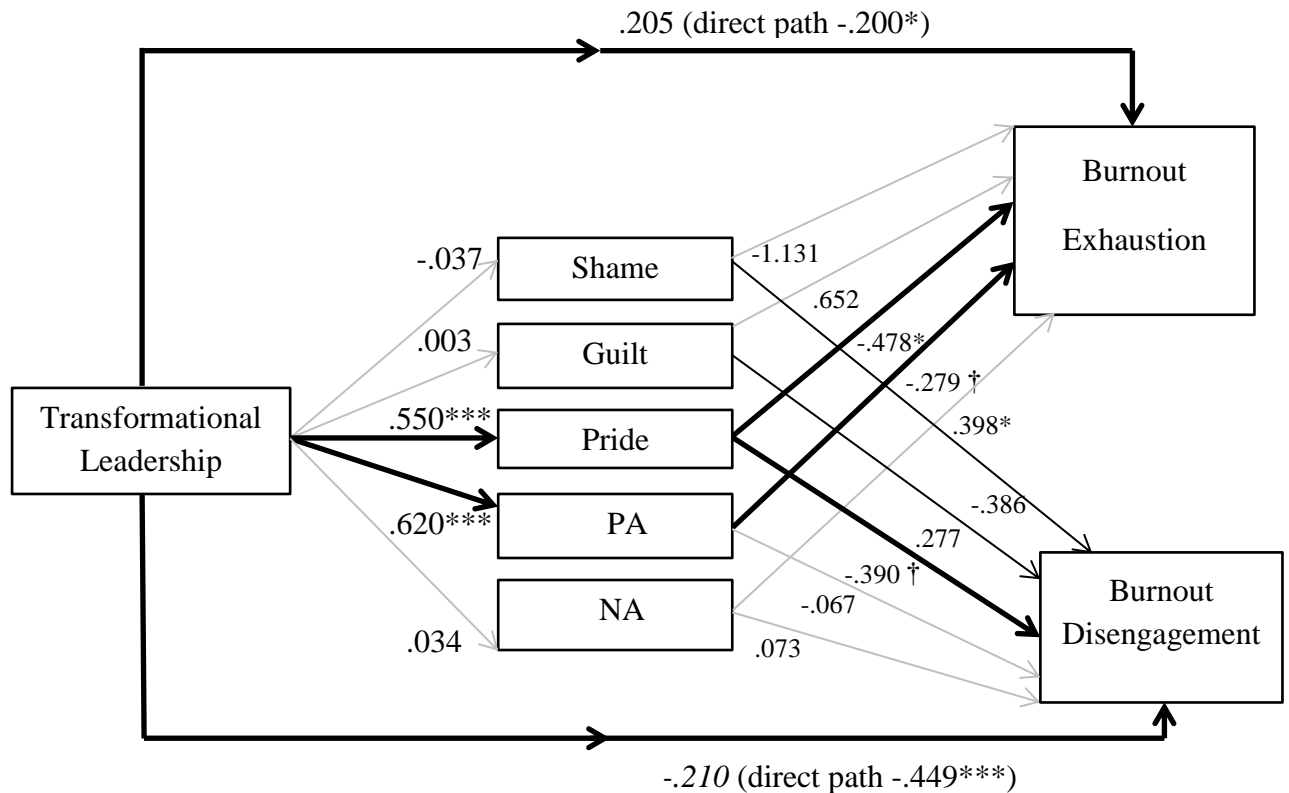
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$

Figure 6.4

Study 1 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Burnout.

6.11 Abusive Supervision, Follower Emotions and Well-being at Work.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that a destructive leadership style, operationalised as abusive supervision, would negatively influence well-being outcomes, i.e. job satisfaction and engagement, and positively influence ill-being outcomes, i.e., workaholism and burnout. In relation to abusive supervision and well-being outcomes, abusive supervision did not influence follower job satisfaction ($\beta = -.111$, $p = .186$) or follower engagement ($\beta = .139$, $p = .162$) therefore *Hypothesis 2a* and *2b* were not supported. However, abusive supervision positively and significantly influenced all dimensions of follower ill-being. Specifically, abusive supervision positively and significantly influenced working excessively ($\beta = .355$, *p*

= .000) and working compulsively (β = .362, p = .000), supporting *Hypothesis 2c and 2d* respectively. Likewise, abusive supervision positively and significantly influenced follower burnout dimensions of exhaustion (β = .363, p = .000) and disengagement (β = .252, p = .007), thus providing support for *Hypothesis 2e* and *2f* respectively.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that employee perceptions of abusive supervision would negatively influence follower positive emotions, and positively influence follower negative emotions. Results of SEM showed that abusive supervision negatively and significantly influenced follower pride (β =-.260, p =.001) supporting *hypothesis 3j*, however, *hypothesis 3c* was not supported as abusive supervision did not significantly influence follower positive affect (β = -.126, p = .120). Abusive supervision did however positively and significantly influence follower negative emotions shame (β = .832, p = .000), guilt (β = .715, p = .000) and negative affect (β = .668, p = .000). Therefore Hypotheses *3h, 3i, and 3d respectively* were supported.

6.11.1 Mediation Effects

Hypothesis 5b proposed employee perceptions of abusive supervision will negatively influence employee job satisfaction and engagement and positively influence workaholism and burnout. This relationship will be mediated by employee positive and negative affect, and the self-conscious emotions shame, guilt and pride. *Hypothesis 5b* was partially supported. There was no compliance with Barron and Kenny's (1986) conditions for mediation between abusive supervision and follower well-being outcomes job satisfaction (β = -111. p = 186) and engagement (β = .139, p = .162) as no significant direct path relationship was found. However, follower pride fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and follower ill-being outcomes of workaholism – working compulsively (β = -.378, p = .090), burnout – exhaustion (β = -.478, p = .029), and burnout – disengagement (β = -.390, p =.069).

Follower negative affect (β = .398, *p=.022*) and positive affect (β = -.279, *p* =.093) also fully

mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and burnout-exhaustion.
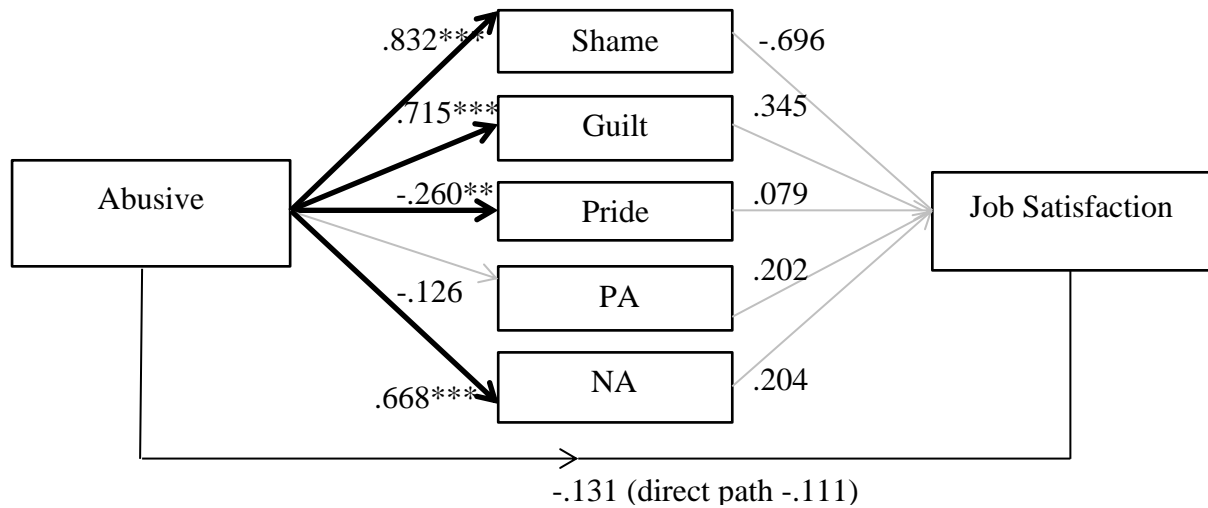
Note : *** *p < .001*, ** *p < .01*, * *p < .05*, † *p < .10*

Figure 6.5

Study 1 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Job Satisfaction
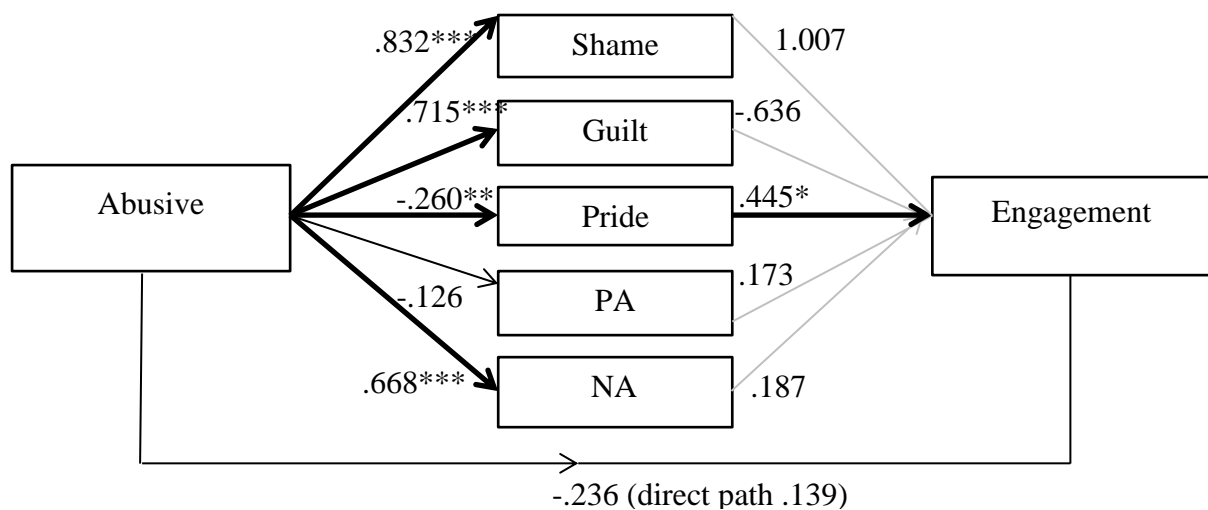
Note : *** *p < .001*, ** *p < .01*, * *p < .05*, † *p < .10*

Figure 6.6

Study 1 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Engagement
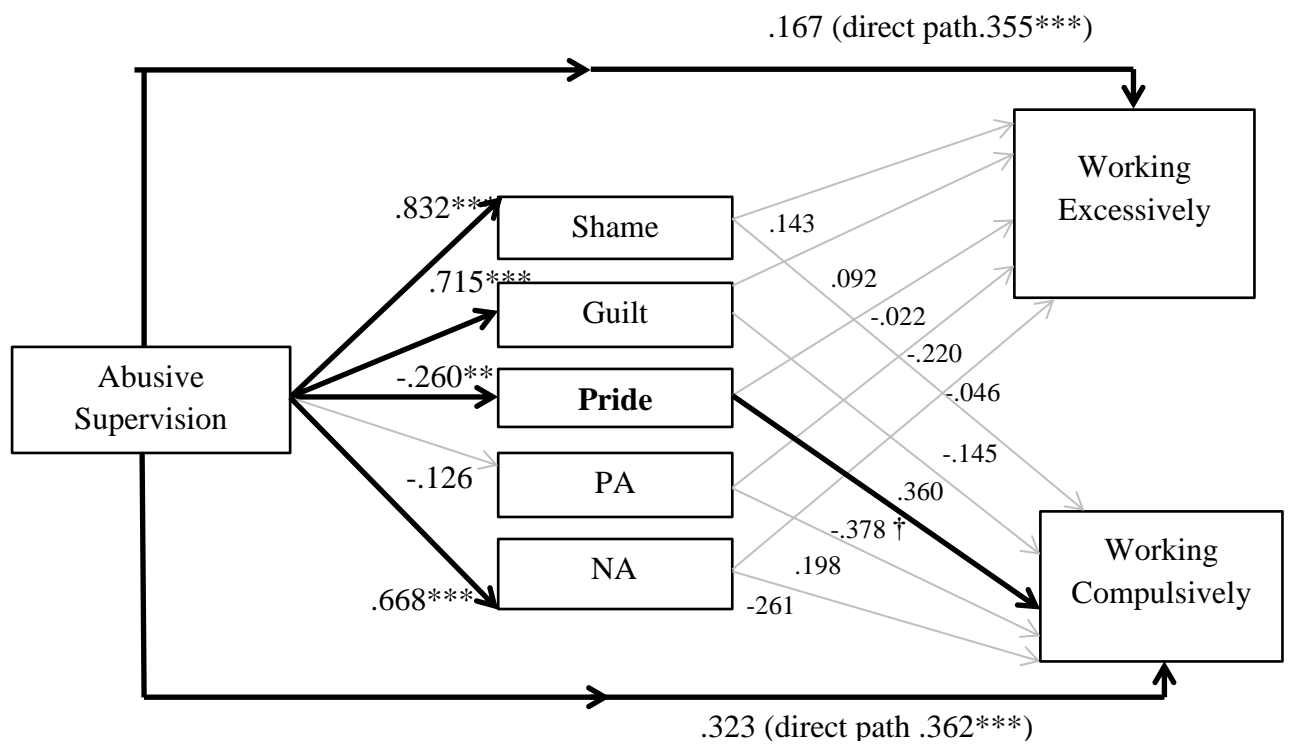
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$

Figure 6.7

Study 1 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Workaholism

.412 (direct path .363***)

.832***

Shame

.715***

Guilt

-.260**

Pride

-.126

Positive Affect

.668***

Negative

-1.131

.652

-.478*

-.279 †

.398*

-.386

-.277

-.390 †

-.067

.073

.214 (direct path .252**)

Burnout
Exhaustion

Burnout
Disengagement

Abusive
Supervision
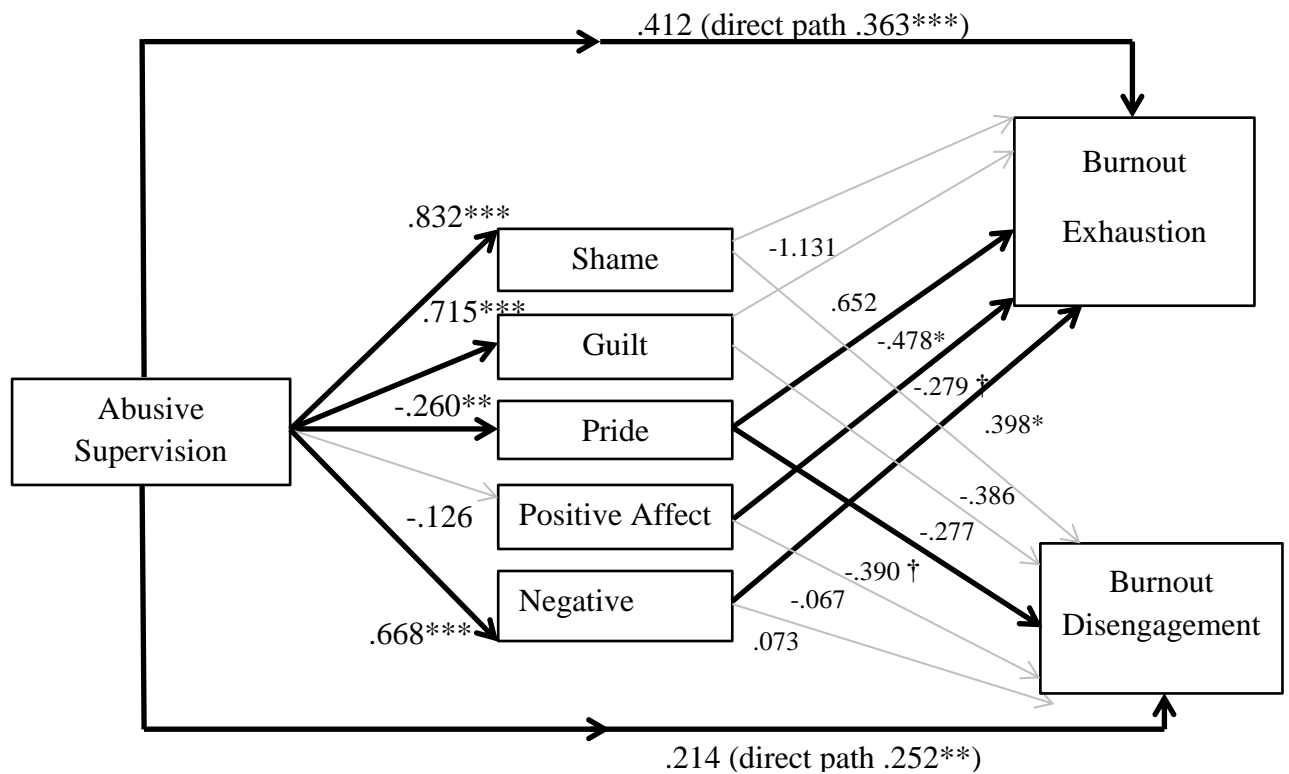
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.8

Study 1 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Burnout

6.12 Study 2 : Dublin Fire Brigade (DFB)

The results for Study 2 DFB are presented as descriptive statistics, regression and
mediation analysis and model fit statistics.

6.13 Sample Representativeness

A survey questionnaire was distributed in paper form to 245 DFB employees across
five fire stations. Of the 245 surveys distributed, 237 participants responded, yielding a 97%

response rate. These 237 employees represent 34% of the 780 fire fighters employed by Dublin City Council, indicating a representative sample.

6.14 Profile of the Respondents

All employees surveyed in Study 2 were emergency responders and included senior officers / managers. None held specialist roles in IT, HR etc. Respondents included 221 male (93%), 9 female (4%), and 7 (3%) respondents did not specify their gender. The age profile of participants ranged from 20-30 years (6 %), 31-40 years (35 %), 41-50 years (36 %), 50-59 years (15 %), 8% of respondents chose not to indicate their age. In terms of education, 35 % of respondents were educated to A-Level or equivalent, 17 % were qualified to Certificate level, 15 % to Bachelor Degree, 4% to Postgraduate Diploma, 22% indicated they had a Paramedic Diploma. A total of 7 % of respondents chose not to indicate their education level. 27 % of respondents had up to ten years' service, 40% had 10-20 years' service, while 30% of respondents had more than 20 years' service. 3% of respondents did not indicate their length of service. A total of 20 % of respondents indicated that they were managers.

6.15 Individual Items Descriptive Analysis

The means and standard deviations for individual items for the study's participants are presented in Tables 6.7 to 6.9. All responses were measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). A score of 5 or above indicated respondents agreed with the item / statement, a score of 3 or below, indicated respondents disagreed. A score of 3 indicated that respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the item / statement presented.

6.15.1 Followers' Perceptions of their Immediate Manager's Leadership Style.

The survey assessed followers' perceptions of their immediate manager's leadership style. Specifically, respondents were instructed to think about their immediate manager's leadership style and to answer a number of statements with regard to their managers. Specifically, the instructions read as follows:

> *The following statements relate to your perceptions of your immediate manager's leadership style. Thinking about this individual, please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.*

The number of responses, mean, and standard deviation (SD) for each item are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 Study 2: Follower Perceptions of their Immediate Manager's Leadership Style

Measurements	N	Mean Score	S.D.
Abusive Supervision			
Ridicules me	227	2.37	1.500
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid	227	2.18	1.489
Gives me the silent treatment.	227	2.19	1.524
Puts me down in front of others.	227	2.19	1.615
Invades my privacy.	227	2.04	1.401
Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.	227	2.21	1.560
Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	227	2.63	1.818
Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	227	2.21	1.545
Breaks promises he/she makes.	227	2.54	1.651
Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason.	227	2.46	1.702
Makes negative comments about me to others.	227	2.32	1.513
Is rude to me.	227	2.25	1.611
Does not allow me to interact with my co-workers.	227	1.90	1.133
Tells me I'm incompetent.	227	1.94	1.311
Lies to me.	227	2.19	1.561
Transformational Leadership			
Has a clear understanding of where we are going.	230	4.61	1.706
Has a clear sense of where he/she wants our unit to be in the future.	230	4.65	1.696
Provides us with a compelling vision to work towards.	230	4.07	1.636
Inspires others when he/she discusses our direction for the future.	230	4.04	1.644

Encourages people to see changes as situations full of opportunities.	230	4.03	1.470
Is able to get others to commit to what we need to accomplish in our unit.	230	4.43	1.511
Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	230	4.06	1.578
Stimulates me to re-think some things that I have never questioned before.	230	4.02	1.573
Challenges me to re-examine some of my basic assumptions about my work.	230	3.79	1.507
Considers people's feelings before acting	230	3.97	1.775
Behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of the personal needs of others	230	4.40	1.752
Sees the interests of employees are given due consideration.	230	4.58	1.710

Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from n = 237 in some item responses.

6.15.2 Followers' Emotions as a Result of their Interactions with their Immediate Manager.

The survey further measured followers' emotions as a result of their interactions with their immediate manager. Specifically, respondents were given the following instructions in the survey questionnaire:

Pause and take some time to think about your recent interactions with your immediate manager. Please circle each statement according to which best describes how you felt during these interactions.

The results are presented in Table 6.8.

6.15.3 Followers' Well-being and Ill-being at Work

The questionnaire also assessed followers' well-being and ill-being at work. These results are presented in Table 6.9. Specifically, respondents were asked the following question about how they feel about their work:

The following statements relate to perceptions about your work. Please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.

Table 6.8 Study 2 : Follower Emotions as a Result of their Interactions with their Immediate Manager

Measurements	N	Mean Score	S.D.
Self-conscious emotions			
Shame			
I felt small.	225	2.28	1.35
I want to sink into the floor and disappear.	225	2.17	1.30
I felt humiliated, disgraced.	225	2.02	1.20
I felt like I am a bad person.	225	2.06	1.28
I felt worthless, powerless.	225	2.12	1.25
Guilt			
I felt remorse, regret.	225	2.19	1.24
I felt tension about something I have done.	225	2.64	1.64
I cannot stop thinking about something bad I have done.	225	2.45	1.58
I felt like apologizing, confessing.	225	2.23	1.35
I felt bad about something I have done.	225	2.21	1.30
Pride			
I felt good about myself.	224	4.92	1.27
I felt worthwhile, valuable.	224	4.73	1.47
I felt capable, useful.	224	5.13	1.31
I felt proud.	224	4.89	1.31
I felt pleased about something I have done.	224	4.89	1.38
Positive Affect			
I felt inspired	223	4.29	1.50
I felt alert	223	4.39	1.53
I felt excited	223	3.86	1.44
I felt enthusiastic	223	4.32	1.43
I felt determined	223	4.54	1.51
Negative Affect			
I felt afraid	223	2.06	1.21
I felt upset	223	2.33	1.47
I felt nervous	223	2.45	1.43
I felt scared	223	1.97	1.21
I felt distressed	223	2.20	1.44

Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from n = 237 in some item responses.

Table 6.9 Study 2 : Follower Well-being and Ill-being

Measurements	N	Mean Score	S.D.
Job Satisfaction			
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	234	5.58	1.40
In general, I like working here.	234	6.01	1.08
All things considered, I am satisfied with my current job.	234	5.56	1.39
Engagement			
At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy.	235	4.02	1.25
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	235	4.60	1.27
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	235	5.59	1.31
I am enthusiastic about my job.	235	5.08	1.46
My job inspires me.	235	5.02	1.47
I am proud of the work that I do.	235	5.39	1.24
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	235	6.38	.94
I am immersed in my work.	235	4.74	1.398
I get carried away when I'm working (item removed in EFA).			
Workaholism			
I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock.	230	3.39	1.64
I find myself continuing work after my co-workers have gone home.	230	3.78	1.75
I stay busy and do many tasks at once.	230	4.75	1.34
I spend more time working than socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities.	230	4.14	1.87
I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the phone.	230	3.70	1.78
It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working.	230	3.10	1.85
It's important for me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing.	230	4.71	1.72
I often feel that there's something inside me that drives me to work hard.	230	5.30	1.24
I feel obliged to work hard, even when it's not enjoyable.	230	5.21	1.41
I feel guilty when I take time off work.	230	3.31	2.01
Burnout			
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	231		
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	231	4.03	1.85
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	231	2.32	1.16
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.	231	4.23	1.79
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	231	3.14	1.50
After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	231	4.13	1.61
Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.	231	2.11	.96
When I work, I usually feel energized.	231	3.42	1.41
I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.	231	2.61	1.27
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way. (item removed in EFA)	231		
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	231	3.97	1.71
I find my work to be a positive challenge.	231	2.49	1.27
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.	231	4.23	1.85
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	231	3.88	1.95

145

This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing. (item removed in EFA)	231		
I feel more and more engaged in my work.	231	3.56	1.43

Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from n = 237 in some item responses.

6.16 Correlation Tables

Table 6.10 provides correlation coefficients among the variables in the study. It indicates a number of statistically significant relationships with correlations between constructive and destructive leadership, follower emotions, and all well-being outcomes, with the exception of workaholism, being statistically significant.

6.17 Scale Items, Descriptives, and Model Fit Statistics

Table 6.11 outlines the measurement model used in Study 2. Independent, mediator and dependent variables are identified along with the measurement scale used to operationalise each variable. Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) described in the previous Chapter 5 - Methodology are presented. Model fit statistics are presented along with the optimum number of items used from each scale to operationalise the variables.

Table 6.10 Study 2 : Correlation Matrix

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Abusive Supervision										
2. Transformational Leadership	-.557**									
3. Shame	.666**	-.445**								
4. Guilt	.565**	-.356**	.856**							
5. Pride	-.447**	.556**	-.535**	-.426**						
6. Positive Affect	-.282**	.510**	-.291**	-.192**	.746**					
7. Negative Affect	.625**	-.369**	.865**	.834**	-.454**	-.184**				
8. Job Satisfaction	-.356**	.424**	-.367**	-.283	.353**	.255**	-.267**			
9. Engagement	-.288**	.447**	-.383**	-.272**	.461**	.364**	-.292**	.682**		
10. Workaholism	.143*	.055	.138*	.150*	.034	.046	.105	-.047	.149*	
11. Burnout	.302**	-.257	.367**	.351**	-.310**	-.180**	.329**	-.537**	-.677**	.202**

*p <.05, **p <.01. Pairwise deletion method was employed to deal with missing data.

Table 6.11 Study 2 : Scales, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD) and Model Fit Statistics

Variables	Scale items operationalised	N	Mean	SD	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Alpha
Abusive Supervision	15 item Abusive Supervision Scale	227	2.24	1.28	408.75	85	.92	.13	.04	.97
Transformational Leadership	12 item TLI									
Idealised Influence	3 items	233	4.44	1.59	134.25	49	.97	.09	.04	.93
Intellectual Stimulation	3 items	234	4.16	1.41	134.25	49	.97	.09	.04	.89
Inspirational Motivation	3 items	233	3.94	1.47	134.25	49	.97	.09	.04	.93
Individualised Consideration	3 items	233	4.31	1.60	134.25	49	.97	.09	.04	.90
Self-conscious Emotions	15 item SSGS									
Shame	5 items SSGS	225	2.13	1.13	20.63	4	.98	.14	.02	.93
Guilt	5 items SSGS	225	2.35	1.10	15.49	5	.97	.09	.03	.82
Pride	5 items SSGS	224	4.91	1.07	15.69	4	.98	.11	.31	.85
PANA	10 item Short PANAS									
Positive Affect	5 items	223	4.28	1.10	121.97	34	.94	.11	.06	.87
Negative Affect	5 items	223	2.20	1.18	121.97	34	.94	.11	.06	.92
Job Satisfaction	3 items Job Satisfaction Scale	234	5.71	1.18	0	0	1.00	0	0	.89

Engagement	9 item UWES-9									
Vigor	3 items	236	4.55	1.13	27.25	15	.99	.06	.03	.81
Dedication	3 items	235	5.68	1.07	27.25	15	.99	.06	.03	.81
Absorption	2 items	236	3.38	0.77	27.25	15	.99	.06	.03	.69
Workaholism	10 item DUWAS									
Working Excessively	5 items	233	3.94	1.11	56.22	19	.91	.09	.06	.68
Working Compulsively	3 items	236	4.62	1.16	56.22	19	.91	.09	.06	.78
Burnout	16 item OLBI									
Exhaustion	5 items	232	3.86	1.06	41.15	19	.95	.07	.06	.76
Disengagement	6 items	235	3.64	1.04	41.15	19	.95	.07	.06	.73

Missing data and listwise deletion reduced the sample from n = 183   in some item responses.

6.18 Study 2 : Model Fit Statistics

The full hypothesised model measuring the effects of constructive and destructuive leadership on employee well-being and ill-being and the mediating effects of employee self-conscious emotions and affect was tested using SEM in MPlus.

Table 6.12 Study 2 : Competeing Models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Model 1 Full Hypothesised Model	3886.87	1994	.853	.063	.066
Model 2 Constructive Transformational Leadership	2601.01	1168	.826	.072	.084
Model 3 Destructive Abusive Supervision	3445.99	1756	.856	.064	.062
Model 4 Control Variables Trait PANA, Shame Guilt, Pride	5112.86	2672	.836	.062	.077

The overall model fit showed an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi2/df = 3886.87/1994 = 1.95$, *p* <.001, CFI = .853, RMSEA = .063, SRMR = .066. These results comply with Hu and Bentler's (1999) *Two Index Presentation Strategy* which recommends a results combination of RMSEA of 0.06 or lower and a SRMR of 0.09 or lower. The CFI falls below the acceptable >.09 threshold as identified by Hair et al. (2011). SEM enables analysis at the latent variable level to show specifically where a model is working well and where it is breaking down (Williams et al. (2009). In Study 2, although follower perceptions of transformational leadership and abusive supervision were significantly related to follower emotions and to follower well-being and ill-being outcomes, none of the hypothesised mediation relationships were supported and this limitation and possible explanations are explored in Chapter 7 Discussion.

Competing models were also tested splitting the full hypothesised model according to leadership style and testing a constructive and destructive model of leadership, follower emotions, and well-being at work. This yielded a weaker model fit for the effects of transformational leadership on follower emotions, and well-being at work were **(χ2/df = 2601.01/1168 = 2.23, p <.001, CFI = .826, RMSEA = .072, SRMR = .084)** and a marginally improved model fit for the effects of abusive supervision **(χ2/df = 3445.99/1756 = 1.96, p <.001, CFI = .856, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .062).**

To allow for a better visual interpretation of the results, the full hypothesised research model is divided into eight sub-models where results are presented firstly to demonstarte the effects of transformational leadership on all four indicators of well-being and ill-being, and this is repeated for the effects of abusive supervision.

6.19 Study 2 : Transformational Leadership, Follower Emotions and Well-being at Work.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that transformational leadership would positively influence well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively influence ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.   Results from SEM show that transformational leadership positively and significantly influenced follower job satisfaction (β = .349, p = .000) and follower engagement (β = .440, p =.001) supporting *Hypothesis 1a*, and *1b*. In relation to the follower ill-being outcome workaholism, *Hypothesis 1c, 1d and 1e* were not supported, transformational leadership did not significantly influence workaholism - working excessively (β = .092, p =.284), workaholism - working compulsively (β = .129, p = .117), or burnout - exhaustion (β = -.006, p = .938). However, transformational leadership negatively

and significantly influenced follower burnout - disengagement (β = -.446, p = .000) providing support for *Hypothesis 1f*.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that employee perceptions of a constructive leadership style, operationalised as transformational leadership, would positively influence follower positive emotions, and negatively influence follower negative emotions. In relation to follower emotions, results of SEM showed that transformational leadership positively and significantly influenced follower positive affect (β = .618, p = .000) and pride (β = .526, p = .000) supporting hypothesis 3a and 3g respectively. However, transformational leadership did not influence follower negative affect (β = -.045, p = .473) shame (β = -.078, p = .194) or guilt (β = -.057, p = .416) therefore *Hypothesis 3b, 3e, 3f* are unsupported.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that follower positive affect and pride would positively influence well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) while negative affect, shame and guilt would negatively influence well-being (burnout, exhaustion). *Hypothesis 4a* was not supported, employee positive affect (β = -.142, p = .527) and pride (β = .260, p = .593) did not influence employee job satisfaction. *Hypothesis 4b* was also unsupported, employee positive affect (β = .284, p = .343) and pride (β = .382, p = .619) did not influence engagement. Similarly, *Hypothesis 4g* was not supported, follower negative emotions, negative affect (β = .558, p = .540), shame (β = -.300, p = .924), and guilt (β = -.261, p = .941) did not negatively influence follower job satisfaction. Likewise, *Hypothesis 4h* was not supported, follower negative emotions, negative affect (β = .081, p = .957), shame (β = -1.886.0, p = .729) or guilt (β = 1.690, p = .782) did not negatively influence follower engagement.

The research proposed that follower positive affect and pride would negatively influence follower ill-being (burnout, exhaustion) and follower negative affect, shame and guilt would positively influence follower ill-being. *Hypothesis 4c* was partially supported, follower positive affect (β = -.555, *p* = .067) negatively and significantly influenced the working excessively dimension of workaholism, however there was no relationship between follower pride and working excessively (β = .690, *p* = .269) *Hypothesis 4d* was not supported, pride (β = .508, *p* = .337) and positive affect (β = -.402, *p* = .139) did not significantly influence the working compulsively dimension of workaholism.

In relation to follower negative emotions, *Hypothesis 4i* is not supported. Follower negative affect (β = -.730, *p* = .526) shame (β = .784, *p* = .843), guilt (β = .326, *p* = .942) did not influence working excessively. Similarly, follower negative affect (β = .195, *p* = .855) shame (β = -.310, *p* = .934), guilt (β = .276, p = .947) did not influence working compulsively, with no support for *Hypothesis 4j*.

The hypothesised relationship between follower positive emotions and burnout were not supported. Follower pride (β = -.853, *p* = .665) and positive affect (β = .208, *p* = .759) did not significantly influence the exhaustion dimension of employee burnout, *Hypothesis 4e* is unsupported. Similarly, follower pride (β = -.559, *p* = .697) and positive affect (β = .623, *p* = .228) did not significantly influence disengagement therefore *Hypothesis 4f* is unsupported.

In relation to follower negative emotions and burnout, *Hypothesis 4k* was unsupported, follower negative affect (β = -1.407, *p* = .715), shame (β = -4.341, *p* = .755) or guilt (β = 5.299, *p* = .735) did not significantly influence work exhaustion. *Hypothesis 4l* was also unsupported, follower negative affect (β = 1.439, *p* = .626) shame (β = 3.020, *p* = .773), or guilt (β = -3.987, *p* = .737) did not influence the disengagement dimension of burnout.

6.19.1 Mediation Effects

Hypothesis 5a proposed that follower emotions would mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and the negative relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being (workaholism, burnout). Using Barron & Kenny's (1986) recommended steps for mediation, *Hypothesis 5a* was unsupported, follower pride and positive affect did not mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and the well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement. Despite a statistically significant indirect relationship between transformational leadership and positive affect (β = .618, *p* = .000), and positive affect and working excessively (β = -.555, *p* =.067), there was no direct path relationship between transformational leadership and working excessively, therefore mediation is not supported (Barron & Kenny, 1986). Follower negative affect, shame and guilt, had no mediating effect between transformational leadership and follower well-being or ill-being outcomes.
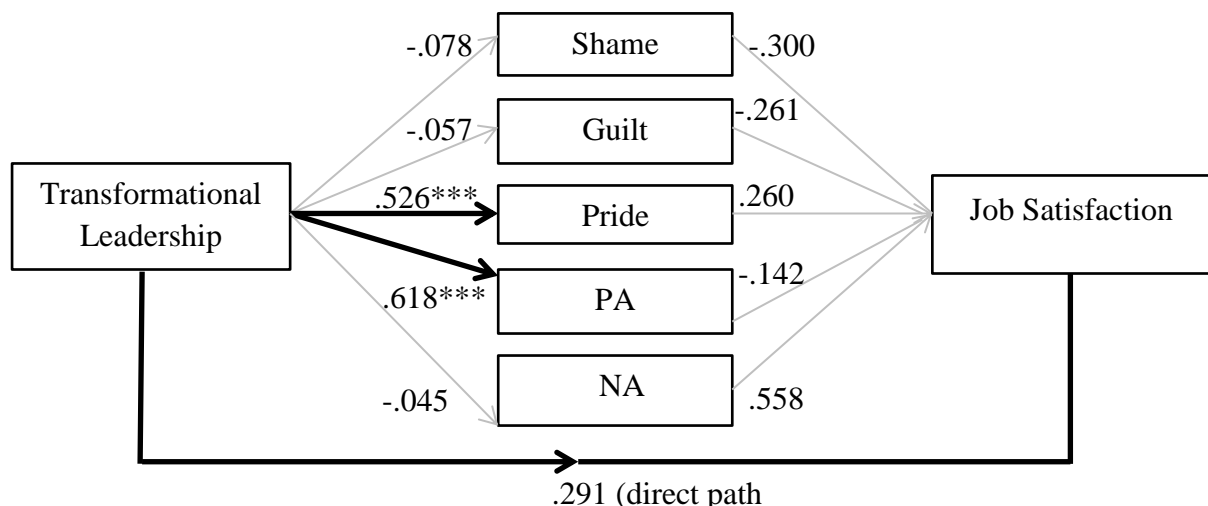
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.9

Study 2 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Job Satisfaction
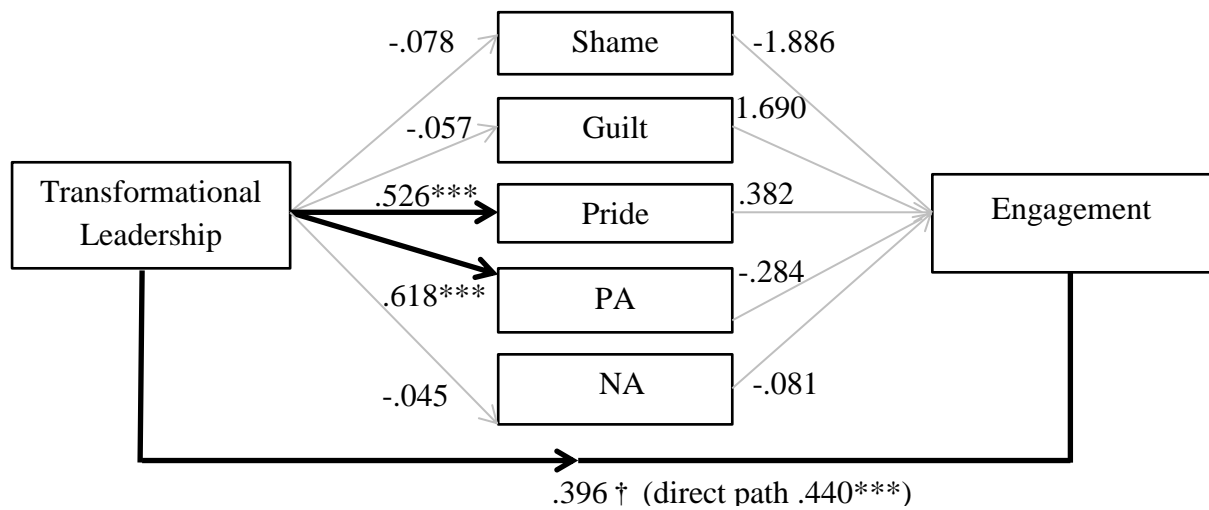
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.10
Study 2 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Engagement
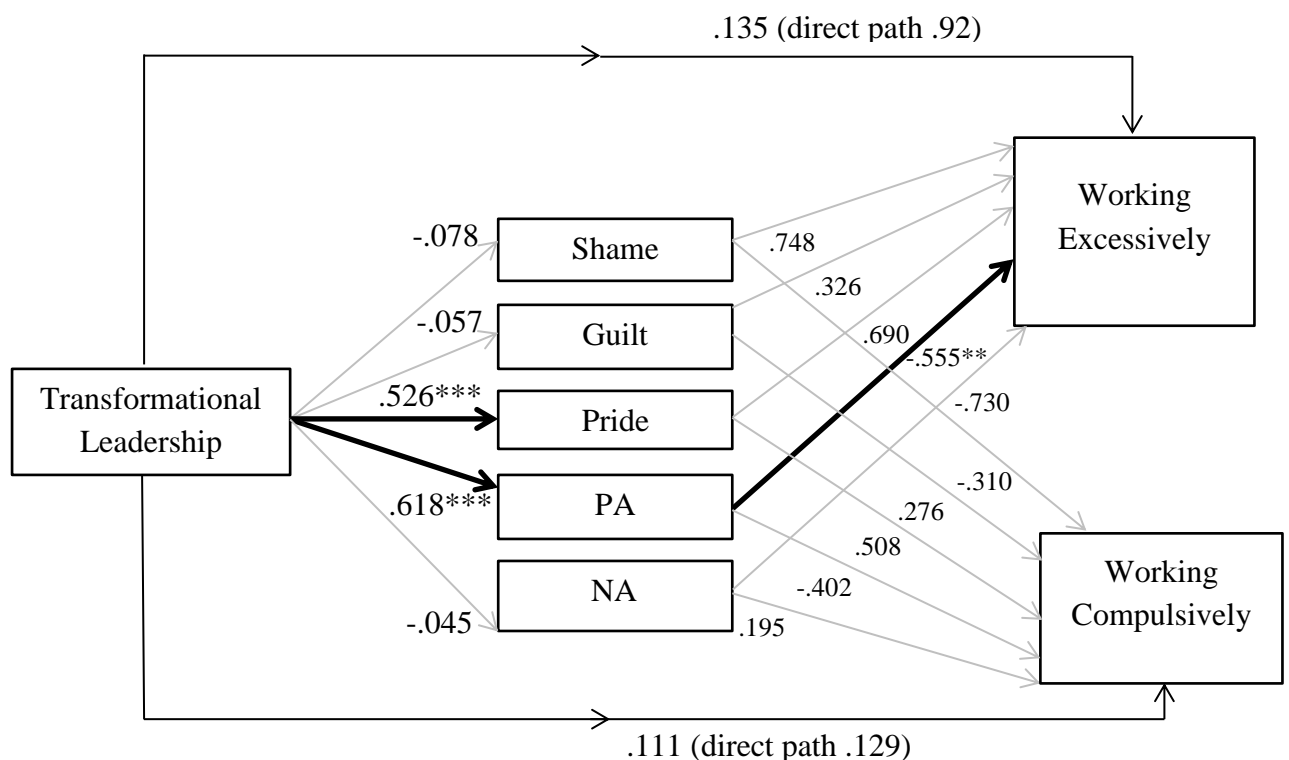
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.11
Study 2 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Workaholism
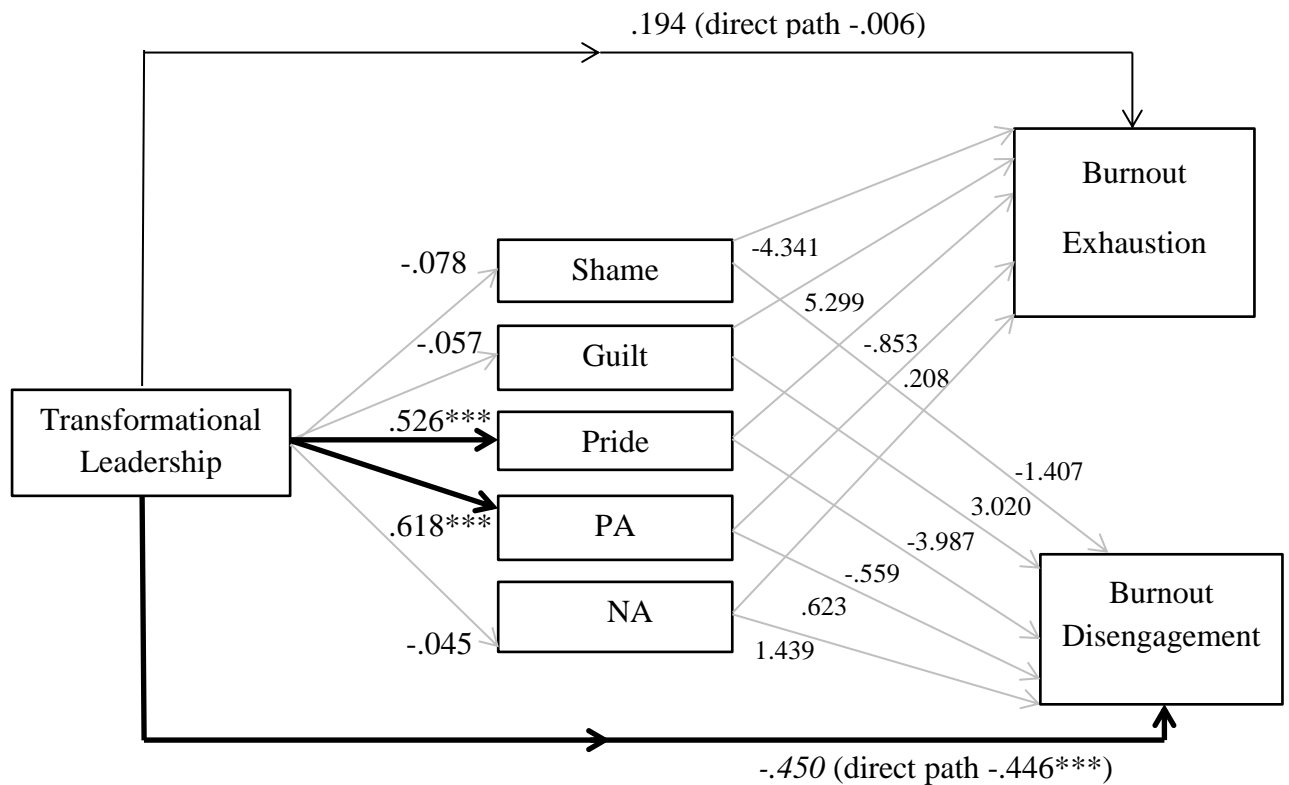
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$

Figure 6.12

Study 2 : Transformational Leadership, Employee Emotions and Burnout

6.20 Abusive Supervision, Follower Emotions and Well-being at work.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that abusive supervision would negatively influence follower well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement, and positively influence follower ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout. Results from SEM show that abusive supervision negatively and significantly influenced follower job satisfaction ($\beta = -.212$, $p = .004$) and follower engagement ($\beta = -1.28$, $p = .081$) supporting *Hypothesis 2a* and *2b*. In relation to the follower ill-being outcome workaholism, *Hypothesis 2c* was supported, abusive supervision positively and significantly influenced working excessively ($\beta = .226$, $p = .009$), however,

156

Hypothesis 2d was not supported, abusive supervision did not influence working compulsively (β = .065, *p* = .435)   Abusive supervision negatively and significantly influenced follower burnout dimension exhaustion (β = .261, *p* = .001) supporting *Hypothesis 2e,* however, there was no support for *Hypothesis 2f,* abusive supervision did not influence follower disengagement (β = .126, *p* = .109).

Hypothesis 3 proposed that employee perceptions of abusive supervision would negatively influence follower positive emotions, and positively influence follower negative emotions. In relation to follower positive emotions, results of SEM show that *Hypothesis 3c* is unsupported, abusive supervision does not significantly influence follower positive affect (β = -.003, *p* = .964), however, *Hypothesis 3j* is supported, abusive supervision negatively and significantly influenced follower pride (β = -.204, *p* = <.002). In relation to follower negative emotions, abusive supervision positively and significantly influenced follower negative affect (β = .658, *p* =.000) shame (β = .673, *p* =.000) or guilt (β = .634, *p* = .000) therefore *Hypothesis 3d, 3h, 3i* are supported.

6.20.1 Mediation Effects

Hypothesis 5b proposed that follower emotions would mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and employee well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and the positive relationship between abusive supervision and ill-being (workaholism, burnout). In keeping with Barron & Kenny's (1986) recommended steps for mediation, *Hypothesis 5b* was unsupported in Study 2, there were no mediation effects detected between follower positive or negative emotions and well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) or ill-being (workaholism, burnout) outcomes at work.
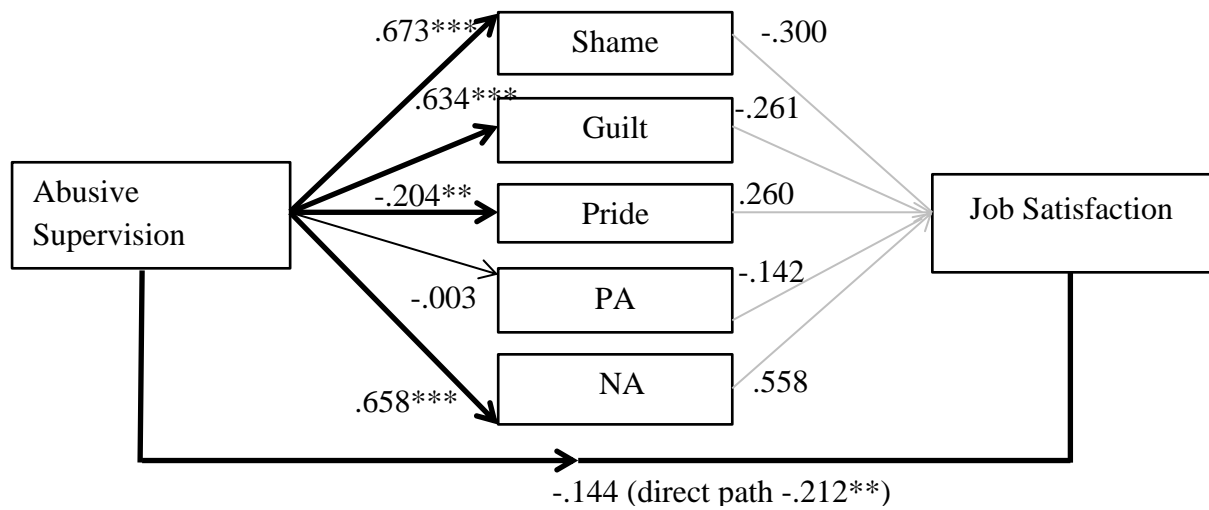
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.13

Study 2 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Job Satisfaction
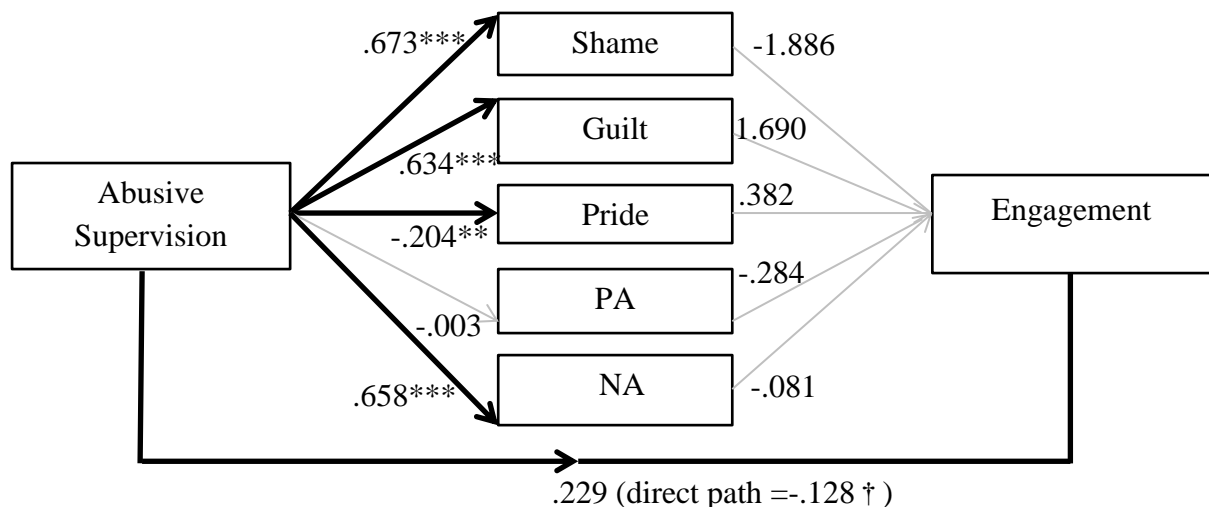
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.14

Study 2 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Engagement

.194 (direct path .226**)

.673***

.634***

-.204**

-.003

.658***

Abusive Supervision

Shame

Guilt

Pride

PA

NA

Working Excessively

Working Compulsively

.748

.326

.690

-.555 †

-.730

-.310

.276

.508

-.402

.195

.078 (direct path .065)

Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10
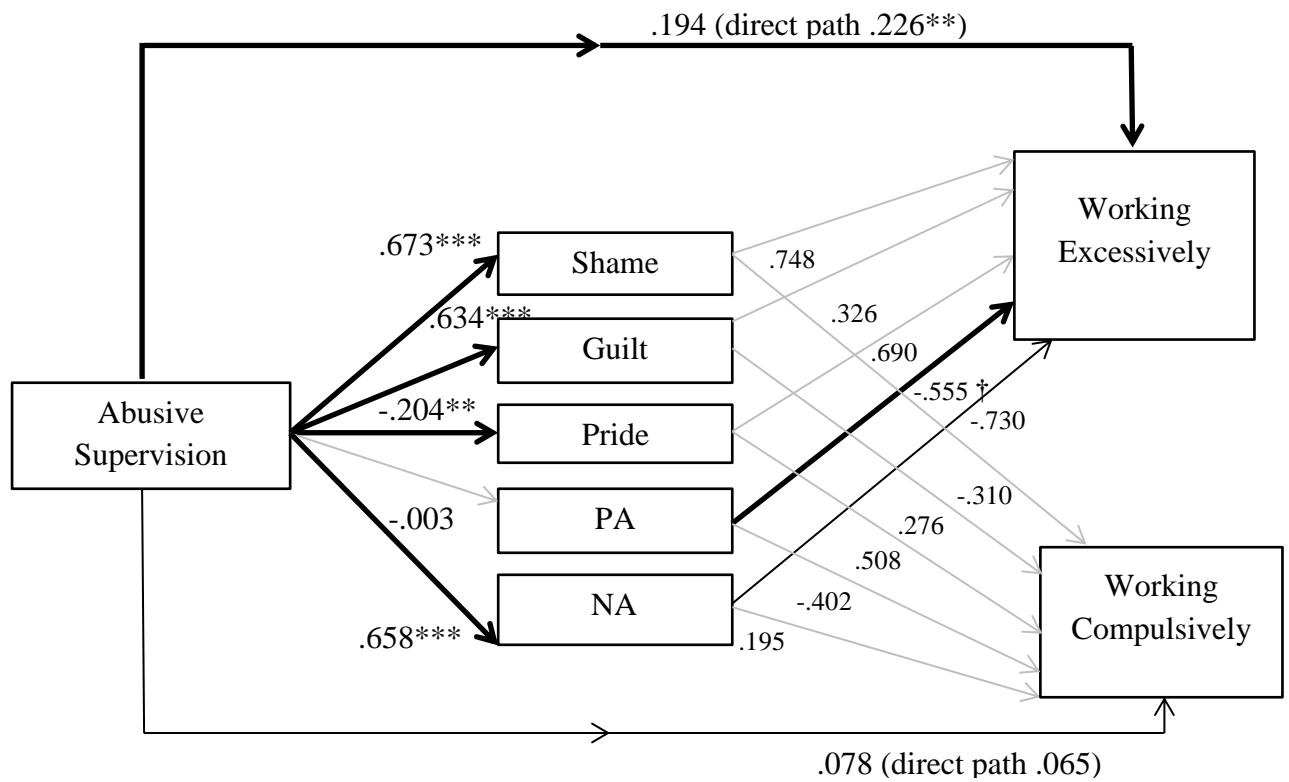
Figure 6.15

Study 2 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Workaholism

.570 (direct path .261**)

Burnout Exhaustion

.673*** Shame

-4.341

5.299

.634*** Guilt

-.853

Abusive Supervision

-.204** Pride

.208

-1.407

-.003 PA

3.020

-3.987

NA

-.559

.623

.658*** 1.439

Burnout Disengagement

-*.442* (direct path .126)
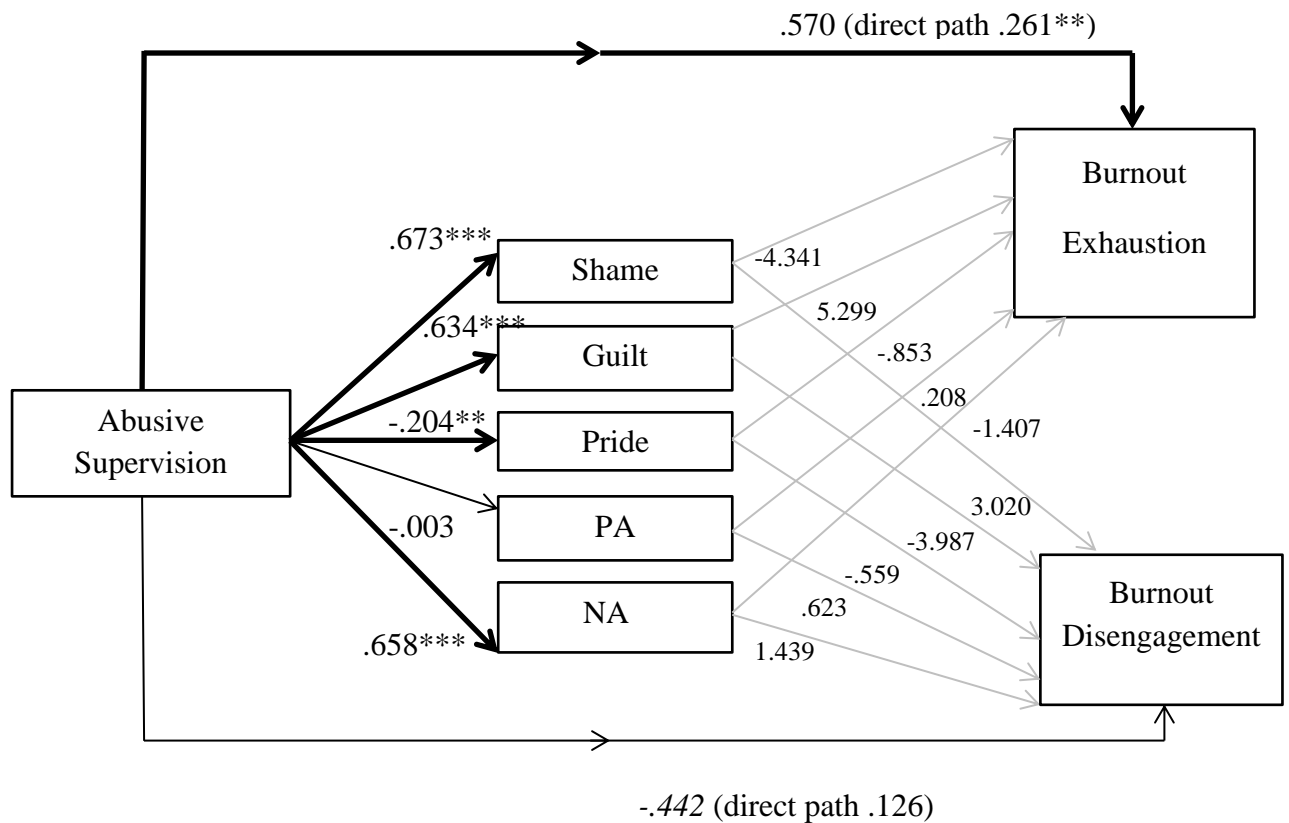
Note : *** *p* < .001, ** *p* < .01, * *p* < .05, † *p* < .10

Figure 6.16

Study 2 : Abusive Supervision, Employee Emotions and Burnout

Summary

The aim of this chapter was to present how the hypotheses were tested by processing and analysing the data using SEM (Muthen & Muthen, 2008). Interpretation and implications of the findings are discussed in Chapter 7 – Discussion.

CHAPTER SEVEN
DISCUSSION

7.0 Introduction

The present research proposed and tested a comprehensive model of work related well-being which measured (a) the impact of perceived constructive and destructive leadership on employee well-being and ill-being and (b) the mediating influence of follower emotions. To date, research focusing on the relationship between leadership and employee well-being has been dominated by a focus on the influence of constructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). This has given rise to a number of calls in the literature for research to explore alternative models of leadership to help understand 'when, how, and what kinds of leadership behaviours influence engagement' (Bakker et al., 2011, p.14). Using this question as a framework, the research findings which were detailed in the previous chapter (see *Chapter Six Analysis*) are discussed as follows. First, the results are presented to show *what* types of leadership behaviours influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. Second, *how* leaders influence follower emotions and a discussion of the findings pertaining to the tests for mediation are presented. Third, *when* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being and are the results consistent across both studies. The research findings are then reflected upon in light of existing theory and empirical evidence and the specific contributions of the research are discussed.

7.1 *What* Types of Leadership Behaviours Influence Follower Well-being and Ill-being Outcomes.

In a direct response to a call for future research to examine whether effective and ineffective leadership behaviours are predictive of employee well-being and whether these

161

leadership behaviours have the same consequences (Wu and Hu 2009), the findings from this study demonstrate how diverse leadership behaviours influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The findings shed important light on how perceptions of transformational leadership and abusive supervision, as indicators of constructive and destructive leadership respectively, influence both positive and negative indicators of well-being at work in both studies. Table 7.0 summarises the supported and unsupported hypothesised relationships between leadership and follower well-being and ill-being in Study 1 and Study 2.

Table 7.0 *What* Types of Leadership Styles Influence Follower Well-being and Ill-being Outcomes

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of transformational leadership and employee well-being and ill-being.	Study 1 BIE	Study 2 DFB
Hypothesis 1a: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to employee job satisfaction.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 1b: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to employee engagement.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 1c: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee workaholism-working excessively.	X	X
Hypothesis 1d: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee workaholism-working compulsively.	X	X
Hypothesis 1e: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee burnout - exhaustion.	✓	X
Hypothesis 1f: Employee perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee burnout - disengagement.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of abusive supervision and employee well-being and ill-being.	**Study 1 BIE**	**Study 2 DFB**
Hypothesis 2a: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee job satisfaction.	X	✓
Hypothesis 2b: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee engagement.	X	✓

Hypothesis 2c: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee workaholism - working excessively.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 2d: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee workaholism -working compulsively.	✓	X
Hypothesis 2e: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee burnout - exhaustion.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 2f: Employee perceptions of abusive supervision will be positively related to employee disengagement.	✓	X

7.1.1 Perceived Transformational Leadership and Follower Well-being

Similar results were found in both studies regarding the relationship between transformational leadership and follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement). The findings in both studies are consistent with previous research that has found transformational leadership to be positively and significantly related to employee well-being (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007; Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010; Nielsen, Yarker, Brenner, Randall, & Borg, 2008; Yagil, 2006), specifically, engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012) and job satisfaction (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Results from both studies showed that, as predicted followers' perceptions of transformational leadership are positively and significantly related to the well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively related to the disengagement dimension of follower ill-being outcome burnout. These findings are consistent with transformational leadership theory where the leader is described as having the potential to uplift the morale, motivation and morals of his/her followers (Bass, 1999). Employees who perceive transformational leadership are said to experience intellectual stimulation, meaningful and challenging work and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999;

Podsakoff et al., 1990). The transformational leader therefore acts as a job resource by supporting follower needs through development and coaching (Bass, 1999; Skakon et al., 2010), and thus enabling followers to work with vigor, dedication, and absorption.

7.1.2. Perceived Transformational Leadership and Follower Ill-being

In relation to follower ill-being, follower perceptions of transformational leadership in Study 1 and Study 2 did not predict either dimensions of follower workaholism, working excessively or working compulsively. These findings can be understood with reference to previous studies (e.g. Schaufeli, 2011; van Beek et al., 2012; van Den Broeck et al., 2011), which examined the motivation driving each dimension of workaholism (working excessively and working compulsively). These studies suggest that working excessively, the behavioural component of workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008), arises out of autonomous motivation where the individual perceives the reason to act or behave as coming from within. This issue is raised elsewhere in the literature review (*Chapter Four* - transformational leadership and workaholism) where it is proposed that transformational leaders could potentially influence workaholism if the follower over-identified with their leader and worked excessively hard to meet standards which the leader had set in order to avoid disappointing them (Avanzi et al., 2012). However, the findings from the present studies do not suggest that this is the case. Follower perceptions of transformational leadership are not negatively related to workaholism through individualised consideration or positively related to workaholism through an over-identification with the leader in either study. The working compulsively dimension of workaholism was assumed by van Beek et al. (2012) and van Den Broeck et al. (2011) to arise out of introjected regulation – an externally controlled motivation in which individuals rigidly adopt external standards of self-worth and social approval without fully identifying with them in order to avoid negative feedback and gain supervisor approval.

Individuals feel that they must comply with standards that are set externally to satisfy feelings of self-worth and self-esteem. This would suggest that transformational leaders who demonstrate idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999) do not create an environment that encourages workaholism in their followers (Burke et al., 2006) therefore this study proposed a negative relationship. However, an alternative view is that workaholism manifests from an innate inner drive or internal compulsion, and not because of external factors (Oates, 1971; Scottl, Moore, & Miceli, 1997). This suggests that workaholism is not malleable or open to the external influences of the leader. However, results discussed below outlining the positive influence of abusive supervision on workaholism in both studies would contradict this explanation.

Follower perceptions of transformational leadership were negatively and significantly related to both dimensions of follower burnout, disengagement and exhaustion in Study 1, and the disengagement dimension of burnout only, in Study 2. Follower perceptions of transformational leadership were not negatively related to the exhaustion dimension of burnout in emergency responders in Study 2 and this can perhaps be understood in terms of their work demands. The work of an emergency responder is both physically and emotionally demanding. An essential requirement for the role of emergency responder requires that they must be physically fit to meet the physical demands of their role and recruitment assessment centres measure physical fitness, handgrip and leg strength. This job requirement would imply that regardless of leadership style, the role of emergency responder is physically exhausting. This perhaps accounts for the 62% of emergency responders surveyed who indicated they were experiencing burnout in Study 2, compared to 21% of Japanese multi-national office based workers surveyed who indicated they were experiencing burnout in Study 1. Although the transformational leader may not be able to reduce the physical work

demands in the emergency responders' work environment, they are still likely to be able to influence the emergency responder's emotional job demands by providing individualised consideration and inspirational motivation. However, this research used the OLBI to measure follower burnout and scale items measuring physical and emotional exhaustion are combined. Future research into burnout in work environments which have high physical demands, should measure emotional and physical exhaustion separately. Overall, the research findings in relation to follower perceptions of a transformational leadership style and follower well-being and ill-being are consistent with findings by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) who found that the well-being outcome engagement is predicted by job resources (performance feedback, social support) and the ill-being outcome burnout is predicted not only by job demands (workload, emotional demands) but also by a lack of job resources.

7.1.3 Perceived Abusive Supervision and Follower Well-being

The negative relationship hypothesised between abusive supervision and follower well-being outcomes (satisfaction, engagement) was supported in Study 2 only. As hypothesised, engagement and job satisfaction levels were lower when perceived abusive supervision was higher amongst the emergency responders. In study 1, the Japanese multinational firm, follower perceptions of abusive supervision did not negatively influence follower job satisfaction and engagement. The work of Schaufeli et al., (2009) could provide a cultural explanation for these findings. In a study involving 3, 311 Japanese workers, they identify a culture in which work and social relationships are strongly hierarchical requiring employees to respect their senior superiors. They also suggest that the social harmony element of Japanese culture plays a key role to the extent that individual's well-being is secondary to the well-being of the group (Iwata, Roberts, & Kawakami, 1995; Schaufeli, 2009). Although this study took place in the European section of a Japanese multi-national

firm, and only 3% of respondents were Japanese, the organisation chart presented in *Chapter Four* (Figure 4.0) shows a strongly hierarchical organisation. Similarly, the pilot study and site visit to the European Headquarters in Manchester took place during an annual training and communications workshop for staff. At this event, the Brother Global Charter, Values and Code of Conduct were communicated to participants demonstrating the influence of a Japanese corporate strategy and values to create a shared Brother culture for European sites. Organisation culture was not measured in this study, however, if a Japanese culture of social harmony prevails, it is possible that despite a perception of abusive supervision, employees would continue to work with vigor, dedication and absorption and be satisfied in their job for the greater good. This may provide an explanation for the findings that follower perceptions of abusive supervision did not negatively influence follower job satisfaction or engagement in Study 1 Japanese multi-national firm, despite similar levels for follower perceptions of abusive supervision across both studies - 8% in Study 1 and 11% Study 2. However, more research is needed to measure the influence of organisation culture on the negative effects of abusive supervision on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes.

7.1.4 Perceived Abusive Supervision and Follower Ill-being

The research findings regarding the link between perceptions of abusive supervision and follower ill-being are similar across both studies and consistent with previous research which found that abusive supervision is related to negative indicators of employee ill-being such as depression, anxiety and burnout (e.g. Demerouti et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Tepper, 2000). In relation to the ill-being outcome workaholism, abusive supervision was found to positively predict the 'working excessively' dimension of workaholism in both Study 1 and Study 2 and the 'working compulsively' dimension only in Study 2. The work of Van Beek et al. (2012) provides an explanatory framework for these findings. They found that

workaholics work excessively and compulsively as a result of introjected regulation (controlled extrinsic motivation where individuals act to avoid criticism or to receive reward). This is consistent with the work of Tepper (2000) and Zhang, Kwan, Zhang and Wu (2012) who claim that employees experiencing an abusive supervisor who gives them the silent treatment or tells them that they are incompetent, may work excessively hard to please this supervisor to avoid negative feedback in the future.

Consistent with previous research, the findings show the positive influence of abusive supervision on employee burnout. Specifically, the research found that abusive supervision was positively and significantly related to the exhaustion dimension of burnout in both studies, and the disengagement dimension of burnout in Study 1 only. Demerouti and Bakker (2008) found that 'burnout is a psychological syndrome that may emerge when employees are exposed to a stressful working environment, with high job demands and low resources' (p. 1). Tepper (2000) also reported that employees who experience abusive supervision also experience poor resources and supervisory support. For example, the abusive supervisor may tell employees their thoughts and feelings are stupid, or may not give credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort (Tepper, 2000). The results of this study are therefore consistent with the perspective that abusive supervisors may represent a job demand, positively influencing follower burnout. However, abusive supervision did not predict the disengagement dimension of burnout in Study 2. It is important to view these results in relation to the structure of an emergency response organisation which is typically hierarchical and militaristic (Archer, et al., 1999; Jiang et al., 2004). These employees are faced with a daily stressful working environment characterised by crisis, danger and sometimes tragedy. They are trained to follow strict protocols and to work to specific standards and protocols in every situation. It is possible this training and conditioning buffers the negative effects of abusive supervision on

disengagement. It may be that these workers are not in a position to become disengaged as operationalised by the OLBI (Demerouti, 2003) – to 'think less at work and do my job almost mechanically' or 'find new and interesting aspects in my work' as they must follow strict procedures and work protocols. More research is required to measure the influence of abusive supervision on follower burnout specifically in a hierarchical and militaristic work environment.

The findings in Study 2 showed the emergency responders did not become disengaged as a result of perceived abusive supervision, although, their job satisfaction and engagement levels were influenced by their perceptions of an abusive leader. This is an interesting finding which contributes to the debate regarding the discriminant validity of engagement and burnout (Bakker et al., 2012; Cole et al., 2012; Salanova et al., 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2008). Cole et al. (2012) question the distinctiveness of burnout and engagement as independent and unique constructs, while Schaufeli and Bakker (2010), and Demerouti, Mostert, and Bakker (2010) claim burnout and engagement should be conceptualised and measured as independent, distinct psychological states that are negatively correlated. The findings from Study 2 contribute to this debate regarding the discriminant validity of engagement and burnout as results show that perceptions of abusive supervision have differential effects on engagement than burnout.

The results of *Hypotheses 1* and *2* regarding the influence of perceived constructive and destructive leadership on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes are largely consistent with a study by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) who found that engagement was exclusively influenced by available job resources (performance feedback, social support) while burnout was influenced by job demands (workload, emotional demands) but also by a lack of job resources. These findings establish the important role of constructive leadership

to positively influence follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and negatively influence follower ill-being (burnout-disengagement), and destructive leadership in positively influencing ill-being (working excessively, burnout-exhaustion). The findings identify the leader as both a job demand and a job resource with diverse well-being and ill-being outcomes.

Transformational leadership is positively related to follower job satisfaction and engagement (Study 1 & Study 2)

Transformational Leadership is negatively related to follower burnout dimension disengagement (Study 1 & Study 2)

Transformational Leadership is negatively related to follower burnout dimension exhaustion (Study 1)

Abusive supervision is negatively related to follower job satisfaction and engagement (Study 2)

Abusive supervision is positively related to follower workaholism dimension working excessively (Study 1 & Study 2) and working compulsively (Study 1)

Abusive supervision is positively related to burnout dimension exhaustion (Study 1 & Study 2) and disengagement (Study 1)

7.2 *How* do Leaders Influence Follower Well-being and Ill-being at Work

The influence of perceived constructive and destructive leadership on follower positive and negative emotions are consistent across both studies. The findings are consistent with Lawler's (2001) Affect Theory of Social Exchange which predicts that emotions arising from social exchange generate positive or negative feelings which in turn can be internally rewarding (feelings of pleasantness) or punishing (feelings of unpleasantness). Leadership behaviours can be construed as affective events with research by Bono et al., (2007) and Dasborough (2006) showing that leaders are a source of employee positive and negative emotions at work. Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) predicts that events in the workplace generate positive and negative emotional reactions (Basch & Fisher, 1998; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Frijda 1993). The findings in Study 1 and Study 2 are consistent with this work and hypotheses are summarised in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 : Leadership and Follower Emotions

Hypothesis 3 : Leadership and follower emotions - positive and negative affect, shame, guilt, and pride.	Study 1 BIE	Study 2 DFB
Hypothesis 3a : Transformational leadership will be positively related to employee positive affect.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3b : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee negative affect.	X	X
Hypothesis 3e : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee shame.	X	X
Hypothesis 3f : Transformational leadership will be negatively related to employee guilt.	X	X
Hypothesis 3g : Transformational Leadership will be positively related to employee pride.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3c : Abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee positive affect.	X	X

Hypothesis 3d : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee negative affect.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3h : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee shame.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3i : Abusive supervision will be positively related to employee guilt.	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3j : Abusive supervision will be negatively related to employee pride.	✓	✓

Follower perceptions of transformational leadership were positively and significantly related to follower positive emotions pride and follower positive affect, indicated by the emotions inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic and determined. Perceived transformational leadership behaviours including providing stimulation, feedback and attending to follower needs, leads to positive emotions among followers, i.e. they feel inspired, stimulated, enthusiastic, proud, worthwhile and valuable. However, perceptions of transformational leadership were not negatively related to follower negative emotions shame or guilt, and the transformational leader did not negatively influence negative affect indicated by emotions such as afraid, upset, scared, nervous and distressed in Study 1 or in Study 2.

Perceived abusive supervision was however, found to have a greater effect influencing both positive and negative follower emotions in Study 1 and Study 2. In both studies, perceptions of abusive supervision were positively and significantly related to follower negative emotions shame, guilt, and negative affect. This suggests that an abusive supervisor who engages in behaviours such as ridiculing, blaming and expressing anger will elicit emotional reactions such as fear, nervousness, distress, humiliation and disgrace. It is not surprising that the leader who engages in behaviours towards employees that include reminding them of past mistakes and failures, or making negative comments about the

172

employee to others (Tepper, 2000) is bound to elicit negative emotional reactions such as shame, wanting to hide and disappear, and guilt, making the employee feel tension about something they have done. Perceptions of abusive supervision was also found to be negatively and significantly related to follower pride in both studies, reducing follower feelings of worth, value and usefulness (Marschall, Saftner, & Tangney, 1994). This finding addresses calls in the literature to go beyond measuring positive and negative affective states only and to measure discrete emotions (Ashkanasay & Humphrey, 2011; Gooty et al., 2009). The results of this study show the benefit of this approach, the findings show that abusive supervision was not significantly related to general positive affect but a negative and significant relationship was found with the positive discrete self-conscious emotion pride. Thus helping us to understand which particular positive emotions abusive supervisors can influence.

Transformational leadership is positively related to follower positive affect and pride (Study 1 & Study 2).

Abusive supervision is negatively related follower pride (Study 1 & Study 2).

Abusive supervision is positively related to follower negative affect, shame and guilt (Study 1 & Study 2).

173

7.3 *When* do Leaders Influence Follower Well-being and Ill-being through the Pathways of Follower Emotions

Emotions involve a reaction that includes a cognitive and motivational interaction (Briner & Kiefer, 2009) resulting in 'simply feeling good or bad, energized or enervated' (Russell, 2003, p. 144). Kuppens et al. (2013, p. 917) state that 'affective experiences involve at least two properties: valence (ranging from feeling pleasant to unpleasant) and arousal (ranging from feeling quiet to active)'. Hypotheses 4(a-l) were informed by this research which supported the proposal that follower positive and negative emotions would influence follower activation levels – job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism and burnout. However, the research found no common results in Study 1 or Study 2 to indicate a predictive relationship between follower emotions and follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The findings from Study 1 did reflect this valence and arousal interplay with the emotions pride, positive affect and negative affect influencing follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. However, in Study 2, follower positive affect was the only significant emotion predicting the working excessively dimension of workaholism. The summary of supported hypotheses can be found in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2 Follower Positive and Negative Emotions and their Well-being and Ill-being at Work

Hypothesis 4 : Follower positive and negative emotions and their well-being and ill-being at work.	Study 1 BIE	Study 2 DFB
Hypothesis 4a : Employee positive affect and pride will be positively related to employee job satisfaction.	X	X
Hypothesis 4b: Employee positive affect and pride will be positively related employee engagement.	✓ (pride only)	X

Hypothesis 4c: Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to working excessively.	X	✓ (positive affect only)
Hypothesis 4d: Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to working compulsively.	✓ (pride only)	X
Hypothesis 4e: Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to employee exhaustion.	✓	X
Hypothesis 4f: Employee positive affect and pride will be negatively related to employee disengagement.	✓ (pride only)	X
Hypothesis 4g: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee job satisfaction.	X	X
Hypothesis 4h: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee engagement.	X	X
Hypothesis 4i: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee working excessively.	X	X
Hypothesis 4j: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee working compulsively.	X	X
Hypothesis 4k : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be positively related to employee exhaustion.	✓ (negative affect only)	X
Hypothesis 4l : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt, will be negatively related to employee disengagement.	X	X

In Study 1, the findings show that follower pride and negative affect were the only significant emotions to influence follower well-being (pride with engagement) and ill-being indicators (pride with workaholism-working compulsively), (pride with burnout-disengagement, exhaustion), (negative affect with burnout-exhaustion). In Study 2, positive affect was the only significant emotion to influence the working excessively dimension of workaholism. For clarity, Figure 7.0 and Figure 7.1. identify which follower emotions were related to follower well-being and ill-being at work in Study 1 and Study 2.
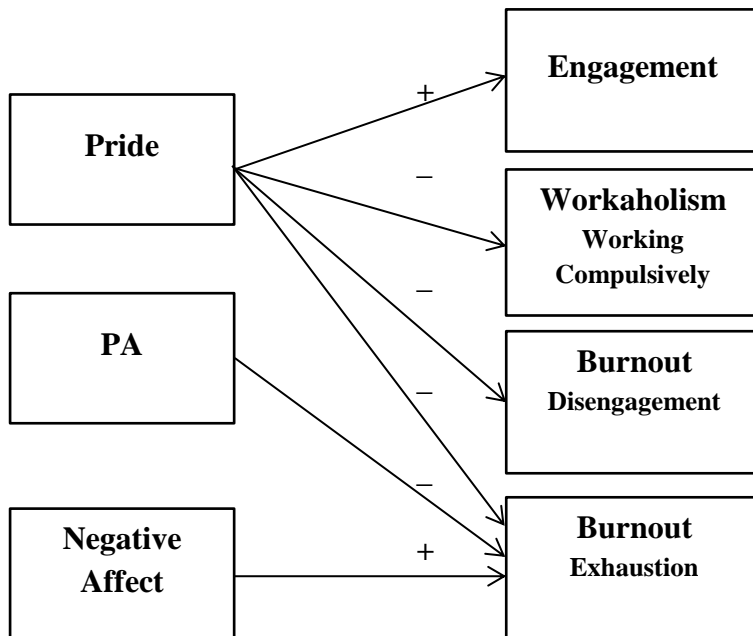
Figure 7.0 Study 1 : Supported Hypotheses - Follower Emotions, Wellbeing and Ill-being.
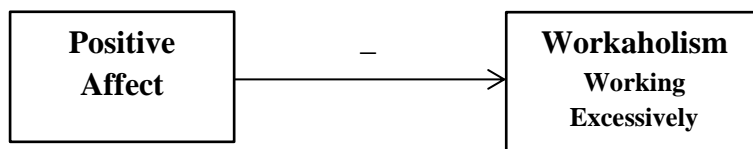
Figure 7.1 Study 2 : Supported Hypotheses - Follower Emotions, Wellbeing and Ill-being.

7.3.1 Follower Positive Affect, Pride and Well-being and Ill-being outcomes

In Study 1, follower pride was positively and significantly related to engagement and this is consistent with the Bakker et al. (2012) taxonomy of well-being where engagement is indicated by positive emotions such as feeling happy, pleased, energised, enthusiastic and excited, emotions that are in keeping with engaged employees who work with vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002a). Follower pride was also negatively and significantly related to the working compulsively dimension of workaholism indicated by reduced enjoyment of work coupled with a compulsion to keep working (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Higher levels of pride, indicated by feeling pleased, were understandably found to be related with lower levels of working compulsively. This finding is consistent with the taxonomy of well-being where workaholism is indicated by the negative emotions of anger and agitation (Bakker et al., 2012) and also with findings that show workaholics do not experience joy in their work (Shimazu, et al., 2013).

In Study 1, follower positive affect and pride were negatively related to the exhaustion dimension of burnout, and follower pride only was related to the disengagement dimension of burnout. The exhaustion dimension of burnout is indicated by feelings of being emotionally and physically exhausted and being unable to cope with one's workload (Demerouti et al., 2003). It is understandable then that followers who were high in pride (feeling pleased, valuable, worthwhile, useful) and positive affect (feeling inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic and determined), would experience reduced burnout as described here. Likewise, followers who were high in pride, feeling inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic and determined were related to reduced burnout and feelings of apathy, detachment and disinterest in work (Demerouti et al., 2012). These findings are also in keeping with the taxonomy of well-being (Bakker et al., 2012) where burned out employees experience

negative emotions such as sadness, dejection and fatigue, emotions which are in stark contrast to a positive affective state (feeling inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic and determined) and pride (feeling pleased, valuable, worthwhile, useful).

Most notably, in Study 2, follower positive affect was the only emotion found to influence a follower ill-being outcome. Follower positive affect was negatively and significantly related to the 'working excessively' dimension of workaholism. This finding shows that followers who were high in positive affect, indicated by the follower feeling inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic and determined, were related to lower levels of working excessively. This is consistent with the taxonomy of employee subjective well-being (Bakker et al., 2012) which places workaholism in the unpleasant quadrant and is indicated by emotions such as feeling agitated, hostile, irritated, tense and angry, emotions which are in stark contrast to those demonstrated by an individual in a positive affective state. No other emotions tested had a significant influence on follower well-being or ill-being outcomes in Study 2, the emergency responders. A possible explanation for this is discussed above where emergency responders face stressful situations daily and are trained to follow strict protocols and work standards and to approach their work dispassionately and objectively. It is also important to note here that this sample is 93% male and 4% female (3% of respondents did not specify their gender). Grandey (2000) noted gender differences in expressing emotion in the workplace and Tamres Janicki and Helgeson (2002) found that men are more likely to engage in emotion regulation and suppressing emotions than women. However, further research is recommended in this work environment to measure the influence of a strict militaristic setting and the influence of gender, on the relationship between emotion and subjective well-being and ill-being at work.

7.3.2 Follower Negative Affect, Shame and Guilt, and Well-being and Ill-being Outcomes

Follower negative self-conscious emotions of shame and guilt did not predict follower well-being or ill-being outcomes in Study 1 or Study 2. Shame and guilt were expected to influence follower well-being and ill-being on the basis that these emotions result from failure to meet internalised social standards such as morality or competence (Orth et al., 2010; Tangney, 1999; Tracy & Robins, 2004). It was expected that shame, described as a debilitating emotion that paralyses the self through negative self-scrutiny and results in a need to withdraw and hide (Tangney, 1996), would predict the disengagement dimension of burnout, however, this was not the case. No other study to date has investigated this relationship between shame and burnout, so there are no comparative studies with which to review this finding. The levels of burnout (exhaustion 21%, disengagement 20%) in Study 1, and in Study 2 (exhaustion 62%, disengagement 52%) show that burnout is experienced by employees in both organisations. However, shame did not influence this ill-being indicator. Likewise it was proposed that guilt, described as negative self-evaluative behaviour, would drive the follower to reassess their actions and to work compulsively to make amends, but this hypothesis was not supported. Although Killinger (2006) and Van Beek et al. (2012) propose the link between the self-conscious emotion guilt and workaholism stating 'workaholic employees work hard because they *must* do so: not working evokes distress and negative emotions such as irritability, anxiety, shame, and guilt' (Van Beek, 2012, p.35), this hypothesis has yet to be empirically tested.

Overall findings in relation to follower emotions and well-being at work show that pride is the most significant emotion influencing three indicators of well-being, namely engagement, workaholism (working compulsively), and burnout (disengagement) in Study 1.

This study also showed that follower perceptions of both a transformational leadership style and abusive supervision were related to follower pride in both studies, establishing the important role of the leader in influencing follower emotions and well-being and ill-being outcomes.

Follower PANA predicted the two indicators of ill-being, workaholism and burnout. Follower positive affect was negatively and significantly related to the working excessively dimension of workaholism in Study 2. While negative affect was positively and significantly related to the exhaustion dimension of burnout in Study 1. These findings are consistent with the emotions identified by Bakker et al. (2012) in the taxonomy of employee well-being which indicates a range of positive and negative emotions felt by individuals in each state of well-being and ill-being.

> **Follower pride is positively related to engagement (Study 1).**
>
> **Follower pride is negatively related to workaholism - working compulsively and to burnout – disengagement and exhaustion (Study 1).**
>
> **Follower negative affect is positively related to burnout - exhaustion (Study 1).**
>
> **Follower positive affect is negatively related to workaholism - working excessively (Study 2)**

7.4 The Mediating Effects of Follower Emotions

The mediating role of follower emotions in the relationship between perceived leadership style and follower well-being and ill-being outcomes was found in Study 1 only. A summary of hypothesised mediation results are displayed in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 Hypothesised Mediation Results

Mediation Hypotheses	Study 1 BIE	Study 2 DFB
Hypothesis 5a: Employee positive affect and pride will mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.	✓ (pride & engagement only)	X
Hypothesis 5b: Employee positive affect and pride, will mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.	X	
Hypothesis 5c: Employee positive affect and pride, will mediate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.	✓ (pride and burnout, positive affect and burnout exhaustion only)	X
Hypothesis 5d: Employee positive affect and pride, will mediate the positive relationship between abusive supervision and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.	✓ (pride and working compulsively and burnout)	X
Hypothesis 5e: Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the positive relationship between transformational leadership and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.	X	X
Hypothesis 5f : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and well-being outcomes job satisfaction and engagement.	X	X
Hypothesis 5g : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout.	X	X
Hypothesis 5h : Employee negative affect, shame and guilt will mediate the positive relationship between abusive supervision and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout	✓ (negative affect and burnout exhaustion only)	X

Figure 7.2 and 7.3 depict supported mediated relationships from the overall hypothesised research model (Figure 4.0) in Study 1. Figure 7.2 depicts the supported mediated relationships between constructive transformational leadership, follower emotions and well-being and ill-being at work. Figure 7.3 depicts the supported mediated relationships between destructive abusive supervision, follower emotions and well-being and ill-being at work.
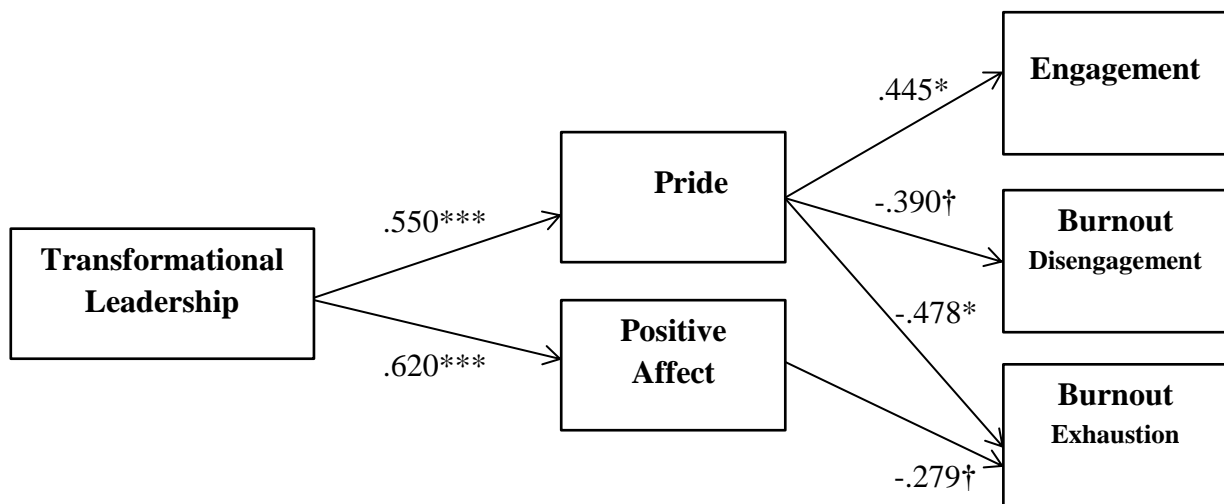
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, †$p < .10$

Figure 7.2

Study 1 : Supported Mediated Relationships - Perceived Constructive Transformational Leadership, Follower Emotions and Well-being and Ill-being at Work.
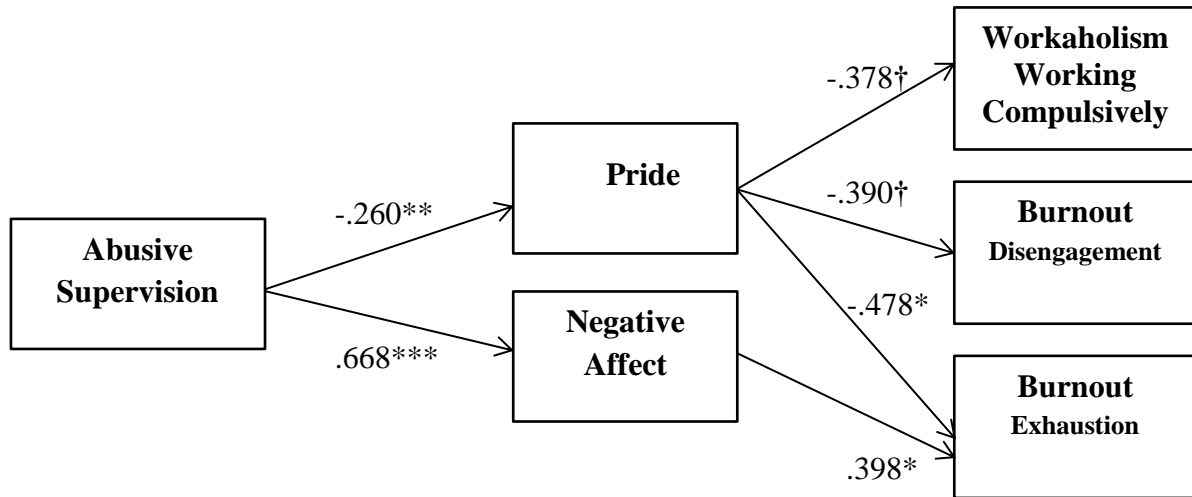
Note : *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, †$p < .10$

Figure 7.3 Study 1 : Supported Mediated Relationships - Perceived Abusive Supervision, Follower Emotions and Well-being and Ill-being at Work.

In Study 1, the analyses revealed follower pride and positive affect as significant mediators in the relationship between followers' perceptions of Transformational Leadership and well-being and ill-being outcomes respectively.

The self-conscious emotion pride partially mediated the positive relationship between perceived transformational leadership and engagement such that follower perceptions of transformational leadership were related to higher levels of follower pride which were related to higher levels of follower engagement. Follower pride fully mediated the negative relationship between perceived transformational leadership and burnout (exhaustion and disengagement) such that follower perceptions of transformational leadership were related to higher levels of follower pride which were related to lower levels of burnout.

Follower positive affect fully mediated the negative relationship between perceived transformational leadership and burnout – exhaustion such that perceptions of transformational leadership were related to higher levels of positive affect which was related to lower levels of burnout - exhaustion.

In Study 1, the analyses revealed follower pride and negative affect as significant mediators in the relationship between followers' perceptions of abusive supervision with well-being and ill-being outcomes respectively.

Follower pride fully mediated the positive relationship between abusive supervision and two indicators of ill-being workaholism (working compulsively) and burnout (exhaustion and disengagement). Follower perceptions of abusive supervision were related to lower levels of pride which were associated with lower levels of working compulsively, disengagement, and exhaustion. While follower negative affect fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and follower exhaustion such that followers' perceptions of abusive supervision were positively related to higher levels of negative affect which were related to higher levels of burnout – exhaustion.

These findings suggest that pride and PANA act as emotional pathways through which constructive and destructive leaders influence follower well-being (engagement) and ill-being (workaholism – compulsively), burnout (exhaustion and disengagement) in the workplace. The findings also identify the constructive leader as a job resource supporting follower well-being and the destructive leader as a hindrance demand influencing follower ill-being.

Follower pride partially mediates the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower engagement (Study 1).

Follower pride fully mediates the negative relationship between abusive supervision and the working compulsively dimension of workaholism (Study 1)

Follower pride fully mediates the negative relationship between transformational leadership and both dimensions of burnout – exhaustion and disengagement (Study 1).

Follower pride fully mediates the positive relationship between abusive supervision and both dimensions of burnout – exhaustion and disengagement (Study 1).

Follower positive affect fully mediates the negative relationship between transformational leadership and burnout – exhaustion (Study 1).

Follower negative affect fully mediates the positive relationship between abusive supervision and burnout – exhaustion (Study 1).

7.5 Research Contributions

The aim of the research was to measure the influence of experienced transformational leadership and abusive supervision on positive and negative follower well-being (i.e. *job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout*) and to identify the emotional pathways through which leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being indicators. The research

aimed to answer the following research question - *What*, *how* and *when* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes at work. By doing so, the research findings make three distinct contributions to the leadership and well-being literatures.

Firstly, the author is not aware of any other study which has tested the influence of perceived constructive and destructive leadership on follower well-being and ill-being indicators simultaneously. In doing so, the study investigates *what* types of leadership influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The research findings address calls in the literature to further explore the role of the abusive leader in follower well-being and engagement (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011; Christian et al., 2011; Wu & Hu, 2009) and to explore the influence of alternative models of leadership on follower well-being indicators. The findings address calls by Wu & Hu (2009) to examine whether effective and ineffective leadership behaviours are predictive of employee well-being and have the same consequences. The research confirms the important role of the leader in influencing follower positive and negative well-being and ill-being indicators. The findings extend the leadership and well-being literatures by establishing the leader as either a job resource or a job demand (Demerouti, 2001) with diverse well-being and ill-being outcomes. The research makes a specific contribution to the workaholism literature and the debate that workaholism results from an innate inner drive and compulsion to work and is therefore not malleable or open to influence by extrinsic factors such as the leader. Although follower perceptions of transformational leadership was not related to follower workaholism, follower perceptions of abusive supervision were found to positively and significantly influence workaholism in Study 1 and Study 2, suggesting workaholism is malleable and open to external influence.

Secondly, the research responds to calls for future leadership research to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand *how* leaders and leadership are related to emotional constructs (Dasborough et al., 2009; Hiller et al., 2011). Gooty et al., (2010) specifically called for research to examine the influence of transformational leadership on followers' affective experience and work outcomes. The influence of constructive and destructive leaders on follower positive and negative emotions are consistent across both studies and establish the important role of the leader in influencing follower emotional states at work. Follower perceptions of transformational leadership positively and significantly predicts follower positive emotions of pride and positive affect in both studies, but does not negatively influence follower negative emotions in either study. However, abusive supervision is found to have a wider reaching effect, influencing both positive and negative follower emotions. The findings show that perceptions of abusive supervision are positively and significantly related to follower shame, guilt and negative affect, and negatively related to follower pride in both studies. The findings address calls in the literature to go beyond measuring positive and negative affective states only and to measure discrete emotions (Ashkanasay & Humphrey, 2011; Gooty et al., 2009). The results of this study showed the benefit of this approach, as the findings showed that abusive supervision was not significantly related to general positive affect and therefore could lead to the assumption that perceptions of abusive supervision do not negatively influence follower positive emotions. However, a negative and significant relationship was found between perceptions of abusive supervision and followers' positive discrete self-conscious emotion pride. Thus helping us to understand which particular positive emotions perceived abusive supervision can negatively influence. Therefore the research also responds to calls in the literature to identify the pathways through which leadership influences follower well-being and ill-being outcomes (Hansbrough et al.,

187

2015; Skakon et al., 2010) and a call from Bakker and Oerlemans (2011, p.22) for research to provide 'a better understanding of how organizations can enable SWB' (subjective well-being).

This brings us to the third contribution addressing the question, *when* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being at work? The research findings show that follower perceptions of a constructive and destructive leadership style had consistently the same relationship with follower positive and negative emotions in both studies. Perceptions of constructive and destructive leadership also had broadly similar relationships with follower well-being and ill-being outcomes in both studies. However, the mediating effects of follower emotions hypothesised as the emotional pathways through which perceived constructive and destructive leadership influences well-being and ill-being indicators was found only in Study 1 (Japanese multi-national firm). Study 1 findings showed that pride was the most significant emotion influencing three indicators of well-being, namely engagement, workaholism (working compulsively), and burnout (disengagement). The overall findings also showed that pride was the only emotion measured in the research that was influenced by perceived constructive and destructive leadership in both studies. The findings in Study 1 extend the leadership and well-being literatures by establishing positive and negative affect, and in particular, the self-conscious emotion pride, as emotional pathways through which leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. However, these mediating effects were not supported in Study 2.

The findings in both studies establish the important role of the leader in follower well-being and ill-being indicators and identify the important role of the leader in influencing follower positive and negative emotions at work. The findings in Study 1 only, establish the role of follower pride and PANA in mediating the relationship between follower perceptions

of constructive and destructive leadership and follower well-being and ill-being at work. The research therefore complies with Whetten's (1989) definition of a theoretical contribution, the research measurement, design and hypotheses are grounded in theory and empirically tested findings contribute to the leadership and well-being literatures extending our understanding of the leadership and follower well-being process.

7.6 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although the research identifies specific emotional pathways through which diverse leadership styles influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes, a number of limitations to the study should be noted. First, the study is cross-sectional and so firm conclusions about the causal order of the focal variables cannot be drawn in the absence of longitudinal data. The possibility that levels of well-being and ill-being influence perceptions of abusive supervision or transformational leadership cannot be ruled out. It is therefore recommended that future studies consider how abusive supervision and transformational leadership influences well-being over time. Future studies should consider the use of a daily diary study to avoid the limitations caused by cross-sectional data which also include the risk of common method variance. To reduce the risk of common method variance and to identify the causal order of the relationship between variables, Podsakoff et al. (2012) recommend that predictor measures are obtained from a different source than the criterion variables. Therefore further research measurement and design should consider leader-follower dyads where leaders rate their leadership style and a number of followers rate the same leader and criterion variables (emotional reactions to their leader and state of well-being and ill-being).

Second, using self-report measures to rate emotional experiences long after they have occurred have been called into question by Briner and Kiefer (2009). However, self-report measures that capture employee perceptions of their work environment and work experience are a better indicator of within person attitude, behaviour and well-being than third party observations or management reports (Boxall & Mackay, 2014; Wood & De Menezes, 2011; Warr et al., 2014). Podsakoff et al., (2012) identify self-report measures as creating those conditions which may lead to Common Method Bias (CMB), a measurement error which can either inflate or deflate the observed relationships between constructs. Although a number of procedural and statistical recommendations to reduce the risk of CMB were adapted in this study (see section 5.15 for discussion) and no evidence of common method bias was found when a Harman One Factor test was conducted, the recommendations outlined by Podsakoff et al., (2012) for self-report measures should be included in future research measurement and design. Alternatively, the use of different data collection methods in future research such as diary studies as recommended by Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) to capture 'in the moment' emotional reactions to work and the work environment, could reduce the risk of CMB caused by self-report measures.

Third, limitations exist in relation to the strength of some results reported which exceed the standard recommended thresholds of a 5% level of significance ($p < .001$, $p < .01$, $p < .05$) (MacKinnon et al., 2002). This study reported results with p-values which exceeded the recommended threshold of $p < .05$ by reporting values below .10 ($p < .10$). However, it was decided to report these p-values in light of the current discussion regarding a publishing bias that favours only positive results (Goodchild van Hilten, 2015; Ioannidis et al., 2014) and also to sign-post the inclusion or exclusion of variables in future research.

There are also limitations posed by the SEM results and model fit indices. Using the Williams et al., (2009) recommended values of CFI >.90, RMSEA <.08 and SRMR <.06, the model fit indices in Study 1 (CFI .814, RMSEA .062, SRMR .078) and Study 2 (CFI .853, RMSEA .063, SRMR .066) fall short of these recommended values. However, the model fit indices in both studies comply with Hu and Bentler's (1999) Two Index Presentation Strategy which recommends a combination of RMSEA of .06 or lower and a SRMR of .09 or lower. The RMSEA has been identified as one of the most informative fit indices as it favours parsimony and identifies an optimum model with the least number of parameters. The RMSEA results in both studies comply with both the William's et al., (2009) and Hu and Bentler (1999) thresholds.

Fourth, although the influence of follower perceptions of a constructive and destructive leadership style on their emotions and well-being were broadly similar across both studies (see 7.1 above), a key limitation of the study is that the hypothesised mediated relationship between perceived leadership style and follower well-being through the pathways of follower emotions is supported in Study 1 only, limiting the generalisability of the results. However, it is important to note that the findings shed important light on how perceptions of transformational leadership and abusive supervision, influence both positive and negative follower emotions and indicators of well-being and ill-being at work in both studies.

Fifth, this research found that follower perceptions of abusive supervision were not negatively related to follower job satisfaction or engagement in the Japanese multi-national firm. More research is needed to measure the influence of national and organisation culture on the negative effects of abusive supervision and follower well-being and ill-being

191

outcomes. This research should measure if abusive supervision is acceptable within certain cultural settings with no negative effects on well-being or ill-being outcomes.

Sixth, further research is recommended to measure the effects of emotional labour and emotion regulation in a hierarchical militaristic organisation (Archer, 1999; Jiang et al., 2004) that requires employees to follow strict protocols and work to specific standards regardless of events. Of the five emotions tested in the emergency responders sample, only one emotion, follower positive affect, was found to negatively influence follower ill-being (working excessively). This research should also include a gender dimension to measure if there are gender differences in emotion regulation and if and how employees in a militaristic work environment supress emotions at work.

Finally, further research is needed to investigate why supervisors are abusive; is it due to individual personality traits or the result of cascading high job demands and low resources from their supervisors? This research should also measure if abusive supervisors are aware of the negative influence of abusive supervisory behaviours on follower well-being and ill-being outcomes.

Despite the limitations of this study, the research contributes to the leadership and well-being literatures by providing evidence of the relationship between perceived leadership style and follower emotions, and between leadership style and follower well-being and ill-being at work. The research findings also have implications for practice as organisations need to engage in preventative and retroactive initiatives to ensure their leaders have a positive influence on follower emotions and well-being at work.

7.7 Implications for Practice

Employee well-being is a fundamental issue for organisations. Evidence indicates that levels of work engagement have performance implications that are linked to individual and team performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), client satisfaction (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005), financial returns (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009) and proactive work behaviours (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009; Ilies et al., 2006; Miner & Glomb, 2010). In contrast, employee ill-being, in particular burnout, has been linked to employee absence (Peterson et al., 2008) and absence duration (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Given these potentially conflicting outcomes, it is of critical importance for organisations to understand the antecedents of, and conditions under which, employee well-being can be achieved and ill-being reduced or even prevented. This research presents evidence to show that follower perceptions of a constructive and destructive leadership style predicts well-being and ill-being outcomes and that the emotions pride, positive and negative affect (PANA), represent emotional pathways through which constructive and destructive leaders influence follower well-being (engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout). The findings establish the important role of the leader in influencing follower emotions and well-being and ill-being in the workplace with practical implications for organisations and their managers. The following recommendations consider the moral and legal implications for employers to provide employees with a safe place to work. Specific HR practices are also identified to address abusive supervisory behaviours and to enhance transformational leadership behaviours to influence follower well-being and ill-being in the workplace.

7.8 Moral and Legal Implications

The research showed that 8% of employees in Study 1 and 11% in Study 2 perceived their manager to have an abusive supervision style. The findings in both studies show that when abusive supervision is present in the workplace, it has far reaching effects, influencing both positive and negative follower emotions and well-being and ill-being indicators. In terms of actual costs, researchers in the United States estimate the negative impact of abusive supervision on employees to be \$23.8 billion as a result of absenteeism, reduced job satisfaction, and intention to quit (Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006). However, organisations also have an ethical and legal obligation to provide a safe place to work which discourages abusive supervision and supports employee well-being (LaVan & Martin, 2008). Both organisations surveyed in this study are bound by national and European health and safety legislation. In Ireland, the Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Acts 2005 and 2010, require employers to prevent any improper conduct or behaviour likely to put the safety, health and welfare of employees at risk with similar legislation in the UK (Health and Safety at Work Act 1974) and Europe (Article 153 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union). Through communications and training, organisations should ensure that all managers and supervisors are aware of these obligations and ensure that managers are aware of the influence their leadership style can have on their followers' emotions and well-being and ill-being at work (Bowen, 2014). In providing a safe place to work, leaders and managers should be trained to identify the emotional and behavioural indicators of workaholism and burnout for their own well-being and the well-being of their employees (Bowen, 2014). This view is echoed by Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) who state that 'management of emotions in organizations must now be seen as an important tool in every manager's kit' (p.18).

7.9 Enhancing Well-being through HR Policy and Practice

Organisations are responsible for the behaviours of their managers and therefore need to enhance transformational leadership and address abusive supervision. There is an opportunity for organisations through competency based recruitment, selection and promotion, to attract, retain, and reward positive leadership behaviours such as those demonstrated by transformational leaders. Transformational and abusive supervisory behaviours can also be identified and measured through performance management, particularly through the use of 360 degree feedback where followers have the opportunity to rate their leader's style and behaviours. Once identified, transformational leadership behaviours can be acknowledged and rewarded, while abusive supervision can be addressed through coaching, training and development, or as a last resort, disciplinary procedures. A number of authors have identified the importance of leadership training and development as an occupational health intervention to reduce negative leadership behaviour as a stressor (McKee & Kelloway,2009; Mullen & Kelloway, 2009; Nyberg et al., 2009) and to develop transformational leadership behaviours as a resource (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Kelloway et al., 2000). Bakker, Demrouti and Euwema (2005) specifically identify the importance of goal setting for creating challenge demands for followers that result in positive well-being outcomes through opportunities for growth and learning. Bakker et al., (2005) also identify the importance of supervisory feedback in reducing follower burnout through uncertainty.

7.10 Communicating Organisation Support for Employee Well-being

Finally, organisations can demonstrate their commitment to employee well-being through HR policies such as a code of conduct for managers and employees, and policies for

the prevention of bullying and harassment and the promotion of health and safety at work. Organisational policies and procedures communicate the message that employee well-being is a collaborative effort that is the responsibility of the organisation, its managers and employees. There is an obligation for all employees to treat eachother with respect and dignity in the workplace. However, policies can only influence and guide behaviours if all employees know of their existence and how they can be accessed and utilised. The onus is therefore on the organisation to ensure all employees are aware of HR policies which protect them in the workplace, that employees understand the processess and procedures for making a claim of bullying and harrassment, and that employees know how to access employee assistance programmes for support.

Overall these recommendations support the importance of recruiting, developing, measuring and rewarding / acknowledging positive leadership behaviours to enhance employee well-being and reduce employee ill-being in the workplace.

Table 7.4 Summary Recommendations

HR Intervention	Proposed Outcome
HR Policy	
Health and Safety Policy Code of Conduct Policy Respect and Dignity in the Workplace Policy HR Policy training for managers to ensure understanding and implementation	▪ to communicate the legislative requirement for organisations to provide a safe place to work and outline every employee's responsibility to treat each other with respect and dignity to create a safe and respectful working environment.
HR Practice	
Competency based recruitment, selection and promotion procedures	▪ to attract, measure, retain and reward positive leadership behaviours such as those demonstrated by transformational leaders.
Performance management and development for leaders	▪ transformational leadership behaviours can be acknowledged and rewarded; ▪ abusive supervisory behaviours can be identified and addressed through training, development, coaching, or disciplinary

	procedures as a last resort.
Performance management and development for followers	▪ to set goals to create challenge demands for followers that result in engagement and positive well-being outcomes through opportunities for growth and learning; ▪ to give follower feedback and reduce follower burnout through uncertainty.
Leadership training and development.	▪ to develop transformational leadership behaviours as a resource, enabling challenge demands for followers; ▪ to reduce negative leadership behaviours and hindrance demands for followers through personal awareness and development, coaching and training for leaders.

Summary

The findings in both studies identified the important role of the leader in influencing follower positive and negative emotions at work and also in influencing follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The mediation effects of follower emotions in the relationship between perceived constructive and destructive leadership and follower well-being and ill-being indicators was supported in Study 1 only. However, the research shows that leaders influence follower emotions and their well-being and ill-being at work, with implications for theory and practice discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT
CONCLUSION

8.0 Conclusion

The aim of the research was to measure the influence of experienced transformational leadership and abusive supervision on positive and negative follower well-being (i.e. *job satisfaction, engagement, workaholism, burnout*) and to identify the emotional pathways through which leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes. The research aimed to answer the following research question - *What*, *how* and *when* do leaders influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes at work. By doing so the research findings make three distinct contributions to the leadership and well-being literatures. Firstly, the research identifies the role of diverse leadership styles in influencing follower positive and negative well-being and ill-being outcomes, addressing calls in the literature to explore alternative models of leadership to help understand 'when, how, and what kinds of leadership behaviours influence engagement' (Bakker, Albrecht & Leiter, 2011, p.14; Wu & Hu, 2009). Secondly, the research responds to calls for future leadership research to broaden the measurement criteria to enable us to understand how leaders and leadership are related to follower emotional constructs (Dasborough et al., 2009; Hiller et al., 2011) and calls to identify the pathways through which leadership influences follower well-being and ill-being outcomes (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015; Skakon et al., 2010). Thirdly, the research identified that in two diverse organisation sectors, leaders influenced follower emotions and their well-being and ill-being outcomes at work. However, the mediation effects of follower emotions in the relationship between perceived leadership style and follower well-being and ill-being was supported in Study 1 only.

Based on Leadership and Affective Events Theory, the research conceptualised a comprehensive model of subjective well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout) at work and measured the influence of follower perceptions of constructive and destructive leadership on their well-being and ill-being through the pathways of follower emotion. To test the proposed research model, a survey questionnaire was completed by 183 workers from a Japanese multi-national firm, and 237 Irish emergency responders. The research investigated *what* type of leadership style influences follower well-being and ill-being outcomes and measured the relationship between follower perceptions of constructive and destructive leadership and follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) and ill-being (workaholism, burnout) at work. Results of this study show that follower perceptions of a transformational leadership style is positively related to follower job satisfaction and engagement, and negatively related to follower burnout in both studies. Conversely, follower perceptions of abusive supervision is negatively related to follower job satisfaction and engagement, however this hypothesis was only supported in Study 2 (emergency responders). However, the positive relationship between follower perceptions of abusive supervision and ill-being outcomes workaholism and burnout were broadly consistent across both studies. The research also investigated *how* follower perceptions of a constructive or destructive leadership style influences follower positive and negative emotions at work.

The findings identify the leader as positively or negatively influencing follower positive and negative emotions across both studies. The important role of pride, positive affect (inspired, alert, excited, enthusiastic, determined) and negative effect (afraid, upset, scared, nervous, distressed) were established as a significant mediator in the relationship between follower perceptions of leadership style and well-being and ill-being outcomes, but only in Study 1, the Japanese multi-national firm. Follower emotions had no mediation effect between

199

follower perceptions of leadership style and well-being and ill-being indicators in the emergency responders sample in Study 2. The inconsistent findings for the mediating effects of follower emotions between perceived leadership style and well-being and ill-being outcomes, highlights a need for further research into the effects of emotional labour and supressing emotions at work in different work environments.

The final question, ***when*** do follower perceptions of constructive or destructive leadership styles influence follower well-being and ill-being outcomes through follower emotions? Follower perceptions of a transformational leadership style had broadly the same effects on follower emotions and well-being and ill-being outcomes across both studies. Follower perceptions of abusive supervision had the same influence on follower positive and negative emotions and follower ill-being outcomes in both studies. However, follower perceptions of abusive supervision did not have the same relationship with follower well-being (job satisfaction, engagement) in both studies. This study shows that in two diverse work sectors, follower perceptions of a constructive or destructive leadership style had consistently the same relationship with follower positive and negative emotions, thus showing the important role of the leader in follower emotions at work. The findings present the transformational leader as a job resource, uplifting and supporting their followers and the abusive leader as hindrance demand placing emotional demands on followers.

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Appendix A Research Proposal to Study 2 Organisation

DCU PhD RESEARCH EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT & WELL-BEING AT WORK

Researcher Profile

Ashley O'Donoghue joined the DCU Business School LINK Research Centre in 2011 as the DCU Brother International Scholar. She is conducting PhD research in the area of employee engagement and well-being under the supervision of Dr. Edel Conway and Dr. Janine Bosak. LINK, the Leadership, Innovation and Knowledge (LINK) Research Centre is a university designated research centre (UDRC) at Dublin City University Business School. Ashley is a graduate of the DCU Business School and holds a Master's Degree in Human Resource Strategies. She has a number of years industry experience spending much of her early career with Aer Lingus where she held the role of Learning and Development Manager. Ashley has also worked as a management consultant and as a lecturer at the National College of Ireland. She is a Chartered member of the Institute of Personnel and Development.

Research question

What are the factors influencing employee engagement and well-being at work?

Research aim

The research will explore the factors influencing employee engagement and well-being at work. The role of both leader and employee will be explored, as research shows that 'leaders play an influential role in how employees experience their work' (Tuckey et al, 2012) and that employees themselves impact their experience of work (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

Research Design / Methodology

- A survey questionnaire has been designed which takes approximately 15 minutes for employees to complete. Individual survey responses are strictly confidential and will be electronically stored by the DCU Business School LINK Research Centre under password protection. A research report will be presented to your organization which will include a profile of employee well-being and engagement levels.

- The research questionnaire is designed using empirically tested reliable measures and research responses will be analysed using leading edge statistical analysis tools (SPSS, MPLUS).

<u>Organisation and practical implications</u>

The research will inform organisational understanding of the role of the leader and the employee in engagement and well-being at work. The research will have organisation implications for recruitment and selection, performance management, rewards, and training and development.

PhD Research Schedule

✓ **Year 1: SEP 2011-AUG 2012**
 	
Literature Review
 	
  - Defining employee well-being and engagement
  - Identifying potential factors influencing employee well-being and work engagement
  - Attend seminars & conferences to identify current thinking in employee well-being & engagement
  - Complete literature review of employee well-being and engagement (approx. 15,000 words)

✓ **Year 2 : SEP 2012 – AUG 2013**
 	
Research Methodology & Survey Design
 	
  - Data collection and survey design : identify reliable and valid measures with a good fit
  - Structure survey questionnaire in-line with good practice
  - Attend seminars and conferences to identify current thinking in research measurement & design

Year 3 : JUN 2013 – DEC 2014
 	
Data Collection & Analysis
 	
  - Data collection : distribute the survey questionnaire
  - Data analysis : using the statistical tools SPSS and MPLUS
  - Identify the research findings and recommendations
  - Complete and submit the PhD research thesis
  - Complete and submit the organisation research report

Ashley O'Donoghue

DCU PhD Research – Employee Engagement & Well-being at Work

- The aim of the research is to explore the impact of leadership style on employee engagement at work, as previous research shows that leaders play an influential role in how employees experience their work.

- Employee engagement is an important business issue. Research shows that engaged employees demonstrate high levels of energy, concentration and dedication to their work, and that engagement leads to improved individual and team performance.

- Participation in this PhD research is strictly confidential and the organisation will not be named. The organisation will be referred to as a 'local government organisation' in my PhD thesis and in any academic papers which may be published in academic journals. Individual responses are also strictly confidential, all participant responses will come directly to me at DCU and not to the organisation. Only aggregated results will be reported in my PhD thesis, no individual responses will be communicated.

- Participants will be made aware that this is academic research in pursuit of a PhD and that there is no obligation for them to take part, and that there is no obligation for the organisation to respond to the research findings.

- One other organisation will take part in the research, a multi-national organisation. It is important for my research findings for a local government / public sector organisation to also take part in the research as this will mean that my research findings can be tested in different work sectors. Participating organisations will not be compared, as this is not the research aim. The aim of the research is to measure if leadership style can impact employee engagement at work.

- A survey questionnaire has been designed using reliable measures and takes approximately 15 minutes for employees to complete. This is a good opportunity to avail of expert statistical analysis and organisational research free of charge from the DCU Business School expertise.

- The research will inform our understanding of the role of the leader in employee engagement and inform leadership recruitment, training & performance management.

Appendix B Survey Participant Invitation Letter Study 1

Date

To whom it may concern,

In commemoration of Brother's 50th anniversary in Europe, Brother International Europe, in conjunction with Dublin City University Ireland, is conducting a research survey to capture your experience of work and wellbeing. The research will commence at your site in June 2013 and the findings from a number of Brother International Europe sites will be documented in my DCU PhD thesis and presented as a report to the organisation.

Confidentiality:

This is a strictly confidential survey and your participation is entirely voluntary. Your response to the survey will go directly to me and not to your organisation. While a report of the overall findings will be provided to your organisation, only aggregate results will be reported. *Under no circumstances will your individual responses be made available to anyone.* The data will be stored electronically in DCU and will be protected by secure passwords known only to me the researcher.

Instructions

The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. You will be presented with a number of statements and asked to circle the number that most closely corresponds to your opinion.

Thank you in advance for your participation, your time and effort are greatly appreciated. If you have any queries regarding the study please do not hesitate to email me at ashley.odonoghue26@mail.dcu.ie or contact me at the address below.

Yours faithfully,
Ashley O'Donoghue.
Leadership, Innovation and Knowledge (LInK) Research Centre,
Dublin City University, Dublin 9.

Appendix C DCU Research Ethics Committee Notification

Research Ethics Committee: Notification Form for Low-Risk Projects and Undergraduate Dissertations

DCU Research Ethics Committee has introduced a procedure for notification to the committee of

1. low-risk social research projects, in which personal information that is deemed not sensitive is being collected by interview, questionnaire, or other means

2. dissertations on undergraduate programmes in all disciplines.

The committee requires researchers to concisely answer the following questions within this form (before the project starts):

<table>
<tr><td>

Project Title:

Are employee perceptions of their leader related to their wellbeing at work?

Applicant Name and E-mail:

Ashley O'Donoghue

Ashley.odonoghue26@mail.dcu.ie

If a student applicant, please provide the following:

Level of Study (Undergrad/Taught MSc/Research MSc/Phd): **Phd**

Supervisor Name and E-mail: Dr Janine Bosak: janine.bosak@dcu.ie

Dr Edel Conway edel.conway@dcu.ie

</td></tr>
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Questions:

</td></tr>
<tr><td>

1. Provide a lay description of the proposed research:

This research will investigate the relationship between the employee's perception of their leader and their wellbeing at work. Employee wellbeing is defined as having four dimensions

</td></tr>
</table>

spanning well to unwell, namely, Job Satisfaction, Work Engagement, Workaholism and Burnout.

From the literature, the employee's perception of their leader has been identified as being significantly related to their wellbeing at work. This research proposes that this relationship is mediated by the employee's job demands, the level of support they receive from their manager (job resources) and their core-self evaluation (personal resource). These constructs form the basis of the survey instrument listed below.

2. Detail your proposed methodology:

This research will take place in the Japanese multi-national firm Brother International, across a number of European sites. Access to Brother International employees has been formally granted as the organisation is sponsoring this PhD research through the Business School LInK research centre (Dr. Edel Conway, Dr. Janine Bosak). The research will be cross-sectional and will consist of a quantitative survey distributed to employees and their managers. The approximate number of employees in this sample is 300.

Employees will be given the option to complete the survey by pen and paper or on-line. The survey will measure key constructs identified in the hypothesesed relationships using validated and tested measures (Leadership style, Perceived supervisor support, Job Demands-Resources, core-self evaluation, Job Satisfaction, Work Engagement, Workaholism and Burnout.

The survey will also collect biographical data which will include gender, work location and length of service.

3. Detail the means by which potential participants will be recruited:

This PhD research / scholarship is supported by the Japanese multi-national firm, Brother International. Access to participants has been agreed with Brother management and their HR Department. All access to participants, scheduling and numbers will be organised through Brother Human Resources department. It has been agreed that I will conduct a number of scheduled site visits facilitated by management where employees will be given the opportunity to complete the survey questionnaires during working hours using a pen and paper or online version.

4. How will the anonymity of the participants be respected?

Confidentiality will be assured and all participations are advised that their participation is voluntary and not required by management or by HR. They will also be assured that their participation and survey responses will remain confidential through the use of a coded numbering system rather than just using names for identification.

5. What risks are researchers or participants being exposed to, if any?

There are limited risks associated with this research. However it is recognised that respondents may have concerns that if they provide honest responses within the questionnaire that these may be used against them in a management appraisal situation. As mentioned above, great care will be taken to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the individual survey data.

6. Have approval/s have been sought or secured from other sources? Yes

If Yes, give details:

Approval for access to the company has been granted by Sean Sheehan, MD Brother Ireland, Geoff Lockton, Senior Director Brother International Europe, Joanne Dixon HR Manager Brother International Europe.

7. Please confirm that the following forms are attached to this document:

Informed Consent Form   Yes

Appendix D DCU Research Ethics Committee Approval

Ms. Ashley O'Donoghue

DCU Business School

6th July 2012

REC Reference: DCUREC/2012/130

Proposal Title: Employee perceptions of their leader related to their wellbeing at work?

Applicants: Ms. Ashley O'Donoghue, Dr. Janine Bosak, Dr. Edel Conway

Dear Ashley

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal. Materials used to recruit participants should note that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee. Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Donal O'Mathuna

Chairperson DCU Research Ethics Committee

YOUR VIEWS

EMPLOYEE *of*

ENGAGEMENT & WELL-BEING AT WORK

Dear Participant,

Thank you for taking part in this employee engagement and well-being at work survey which is being conducted as part of my PhD with Dublin City University Business School. The aim of the survey is to capture your experience at work, consequently, the following questions will ask about your work demands, your interactions with your manager and about how you feel when you are working.

Confidentiality:
The survey is ***anonymous and strictly confidential***, and your participation is entirely voluntary. Your survey response will go directly to me and not to your organisation. Only aggregate results will be reported in my PhD thesis and under no circumstances will your individual responses be made available to anyone. The data will be stored electronically in DCU and will be protected by secure passwords known only to me. If you wish, a summary report of the research findings can be made available to you.

Instructions:
The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Please select the response that most closely corresponds to your opinion or experience.

A good response rate is critical to the success of this survey and my PhD research, and your time and effort are greatly appreciated. Thank you in advance for your participation and if you have any queries regarding the study please do not hesitate to email me at ashley.odonoghue26@mail.dcu.ie or contact me at the address below.

Yours faithfully,
Ashley O'Donoghue.
Leadership, Innovation and Knowledge (LInK) Research Centre,
Dublin City University Business School, Dublin 9 (Tel: 01 7008894).

ABOUT YOUR WORK

The following statements relate to perceptions about your work. Please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
All in all, I am satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In general, I like working here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All things considered, I am satisfied with my current job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I always find new and interesting aspects in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It happens more often that I talk about my work in a negative way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past to relax and feel better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find my work to be a positive challenge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Usually, I can manage my volume of work well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel more and more engaged in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I work, I usually feel energized	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job inspires me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel happy when I am working intensely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud of the work that I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am immersed in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I get carried away when I'm working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find myself continuing to work after my co-workers have finished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I stay busy and do many tasks at once	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spend more time working than socializing with friends, on hobbies, or on leisure activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find myself doing two or three things at one time such as eating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
lunch and writing a memo, while talking on the phone							
It is hard for me to relax when I'm not working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It's important for me to work hard even when I do not enjoy what I'm doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel that there's something inside me that drives me to work hard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel obliged to work hard, even when it's not enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel guilty when I take time off work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2 **ABOUT YOUR MANAGER**

The following statements relate to your perceptions of you immediate manager. Thinking about this individual, please circle the response that corresponds most closely to your opinion.

My immediate manager.........	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Has a clear understanding of where we are going	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Has a clear sense of where they want our unit to be in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Provides us with a compelling vision to work towards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Inspires others when they discuss our direction for the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Encourages people to see changes as situations full of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Is able to get others to commit to what we need to accomplish in our	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My immediate manager.........	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
unit							
Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stimulates me to re-think some things that I have never questioned before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Challenges me to re-examine some of my basic assumptions about my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Considers people's feelings before acting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of the personal needs of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sees that the interests of employees are given due consideration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ridicules me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gives me the silent treatment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Puts me down in front of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Invades my privacy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Blames me to save their embarrassment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Breaks promises that they make	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Expresses anger at me when they are mad for another reason	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Makes negative comments about me to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My immediate manager.........	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Is rude to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Does not allow me to interact with my co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tells me I'm incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lies to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3 INTERACTING WITH YOUR IMMEDIATE MANAGER

Pause and take some time to think about your recent interactions with your immediate manager. Please circle each statement according to which best describes **how you felt during these interactions.**

During my interactions with my immediate manager.......	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I felt good about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt like I wanted to sink into the floor and disappear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt remorse, regret	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt worthwhile, valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt small	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt tension about something I had done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt capable, useful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt like I was a bad person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could not stop thinking about something bad I had done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

During my interactions with my immediate manager.......	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I felt proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt humiliated, disgraced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt like apologizing, confessing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt pleased about something I had done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt worthless, powerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt bad about something that I had done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
During my interactions with my immediate manager.......	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I felt scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

YOUR GENERAL DISPOSITION

Note : The previous section was concerned with how you felt during your interactions with your immediate manager. This section is concerned with you and your general disposition.

The following statements may or may not describe how you generally feel. Please circle the response that corresponds most closely to **the extent that you generally feel this way.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes I feel depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I try, I generally succeed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I complete tasks successfully	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, I am satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am filled with doubts about my competence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I determine what will happen in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not feel in control of my success in my career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am capable of coping with most of my problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There are times when things look bleak and hopeless to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel good about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel bad about something I have done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel worthless, powerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel pleased about something I have done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like apologizing, confessing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel humiliated, disgraced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I am a bad person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I cannot stop thinking about something bad I have done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel capable, useful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel tension about something I have done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel small	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I want to sink into the floor and disappear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel remorse, regret	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel worthwhile, valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I feel scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 4 **BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

Please complete the following section which requests some biographical information. Please note that these details are for the purpose of identifying overall demographic trends.

No individual results will be seen by anyone but me, the researcher.

Gender: Male ❑ Female ❑ **Age:** Years

_____

Nationality _____ **What is your first language?**

_____

From the following list, please specify which education qualifications you hold.

ON **Education** Leaving Cert or equivalent ❑ Certificate ❑ Bachelor

Level : Masters Degree ❑ Doctoral Degree ❑ Vocational /
ining ❑

Other ❑ (please specify)

_____

Are you a manager? Yes ❑ No ❑ **If yes, how many employees report to you directly?** _____

Specify your management level : Junior ❑ Middle ❑ Senior ❑
Other / specific _____

How many complete years of service do you have with the organisation :
Years_____

This study is interested in identifying how your job demands and work environment impact on your general well-being.

On average, how many work days did you miss in the past 12 months due to personal illness? (please give best estimate) _____days.

How many separate cases of illness did you have in the last 12 months? (please give best estimate) number of cases _____.

On average, how long was each case of illness _____ days.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey. If you have any further comments please feel free to include them here.

_____