

ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS ON EMPLOYEES'
JOB RESOURCES AND
JOB PERFORMANCE: A MULTILEVEL APPROACH

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to seek a better understanding of the role of organizational contexts in influencing employees' job resources and work outcomes. The study was firstly conducted, by using a cross sectional (N= 256 individuals, 44 organizations) and a longitudinal multilevel survey (N= 134 individuals, 28 organizations) in Malaysia, followed by another cross sectional study (N=500, 65 organizations). The findings pointed to the importance of organizational contexts (i.e. organizational climates, organizational culture, and organizational leadership) in the providence of some types of job resources (i.e. personal development, role clarity, work meaningfulness, and performance feedback) to the employees' work outcomes (personal initiative, job performance, and sleeping problems). The findings also highlighted the different types of job resource functions as significant mediators to employees' outcomes, which includes job engagement, personal initiative, burnout, health problems, and job performance. The study presented at least three contributions to work psychology. Firstly, different types of organizational contexts resulted in different types of job resources. Secondly, organizational contexts played an important role in increasing employees' job performance, with job resources as mediators to organizational contexts and job engagement. Thirdly, that it was important to ensure that the organizational contexts are aligned so that the organizational systems become clear for employees to be productive at work. It is hoped that the findings from this research will be of use to higher management within organizations who seek to create employees who are productive and contented so that they are beneficial to organizations.

Abstrak

Tujuan kajian ini dijalankan adalah untuk memahami dengan lebih mendalam tentang peranan yang dimainkan oleh konteks organisasi dalam mempengaruhi sumber tugas dan hasil kerja kakitangan. Kajian ini telah dijalankan terlebih dahulu, dengan menggunakan kaedah kajian soal selidik keratan lintang (N= 256 kakitangan, 44 organisasi) dan berperingkat secara jangka panjang (N= 134 kakitangan, 28 organisasi) di Malaysia, diikuti dengan satu lagi kaedah kajian soal selidik keratan lintang (N=500, 65 organisasi). Hasil kajian menunjukkan kepentingan konteks organisasi (seperti iklim organisasi, budaya organisasi, dan kepimpinan organisasi) dalam mengadakan sumber tugas (seperti peningkatan sahsiah diri, kejelasan peranan yang dimainkan, merasakan kerja yang dilakukan adalah bermakna, dan maklum balas tentang prestasi) kepada hasil kerja kakitangan (seperti inisiatif sendiri, prestasi kerja, dan masalah tidur). Hasil kajian juga menekankan fungsi jenis-jenis sumber tugas yang berbeza sebagai mediator yang ketara dalam mempengaruhi hasil kerja kakitangan, keterlibatan kerja, tahap inisiatif sendiri, burnout, masalah kesihatan dan prestasi kerja. Hasil kajian ini mengemukakan sekurang-kurangnya tiga sumbangan kepada bidang psikologi pekerjaan. Pertama, kajian menunjukkan bahawa konteks organisasi menghasilkan beberapa jenis perbezaan dalam sumber tugas kakitangan. Kedua, konteks organisasi memainkan peranan yang penting dalam meningkatkan prestasi kerja kakitangan dengan sumber tugas sebagai mediator kepada konteks organisasi dan keterlibatan kerja. Ketiga, kajian ini juga menunjukkan kepentingan konteks organisasi yang perlu diselarikan agar sistem organisasi lebih jelas untuk para pekerja organisasi bekerja dengan lebih produktif. Penemuan daripada kajian ini diharapkan berguna kepada pihak pengurusan atasan dalam sesebuah

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List of Symbols and Abbreviations

COR	-	Conservation of resource theory
CVF	-	Competing Values Framework
DISC	-	Demand-induced strain compensation
EL	-	Empowering leadership
ENG	-	Engagement
ERI	-	Effort-reward imbalance
HC	-	Hierarchical culture
JDC	-	Job demand-control
JD-R	-	Job demand-resource model
JP	-	Job performance
JR	-	Job resource/job resources
LMX	-	Leader-member exchange
MW	-	Meaningfulness of work
OC	-	Organizational commitment
PD	-	Personal development
PI	-	Personal initiative
PSC	-	Psychosocial safety climate
SDT	-	Self-determination theory
SET	-	Social exchange theory
TC	-	Team climate

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

General Introduction

1.1 Research overview

With the need for organizational effectiveness and employee's motivation becoming more salience in modern organizations, scholars and practitioners have been urged to review human resource policies so that they are more employee friendly and supportive. One of the focuses is on how to improve employees' motivation and job performance by providing appropriate organizational support. Among the suggestions is the enhancement of job resources in organizations (van den Heuvel, Demerouti, & Peeters, 2015; Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2016).

The concept of job resources has become one of the interesting topics in the field of work psychology since the introduction of the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The term 'job resources' includes any aspect of work that is able to provide support to employees in order for them to complete their tasks effectively (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Scholars argue that job resources are able to enhance some positive aspects of the job, including engagement, performance, and commitment (Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Idris, Dollard, & Tuckey, 2015; Schaufeli, Bakker, & van Rhenen, 2009; Xanthoupoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). Whereas the lack of job resources in an organization will lead to employees' dissatisfaction, poor organizational commitment, and low job performance.

Although job resources have been extensively discussed in the literature, it remains silent on what are the antecedents to job resources. In the context of the current study, the research attempts to explore possible precursors to job resources and

their relationship with individual and organizational outcomes. Derived from the assumption that the working environment is created by external forces and organizational contexts (John, 2010; Sauter & Murphy, 2004), the research investigates how job resources are influenced by several of these organizational contexts. The researcher tested several possible organizational context variables that include organizational climate (i.e. psychosocial safety climate, team climate, management trust climate), organizational culture (i.e. hierarchical culture), and leadership (i.e. transformational leadership, transactional leadership, empowering leadership) as antecedents to job resources. For the purpose of the current thesis, the research utilized several job resource variables, namely personal development, work meaningfulness, role clarity, and performance feedback. In addition, the study also examines the linkage process between organizational, contextual and job resources on employees' outcomes. Several outcome variables such as job engagement, job performance, personal initiative, burnout, and sleeping problems were used in the study.

1.2 The thesis structure

This thesis is divided into three parts, consisting of several chapters. In part one (Chapters 3 and 4), the thesis focuses on the psychosocial safety climate and its relationship to employees' outcomes. In Chapter 3, the thesis distinguishes a differences effect of the psychosocial safety climate and team climate on job resource and work outcomes. In Chapter 4, the research highlights the role of the psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to employees' personal initiative, particularly through job resources (e.g., personal development)

Part two of the thesis (Chapters 5, 6, and 7) highlights the role of organizational culture and transformational leadership. Specifically, these chapters reported the

interaction between hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership on work meaningfulness and job performance (Chapter 5). In Chapter 6, the research compares hierarchical organizational culture with empowering leadership as antecedents to job resources (e.g., work meaningfulness) and job performance. In chapter 7, the study looks at the role of both transformational leadership and transactional leadership in providing supervisory coaching and feedback as job resources which result in job satisfaction and a reduced turnover intention.

Finally, part three (Chapter 7) looks at the investigation of the management trust climate in allowing employees' personal development on job engagement and job performance. In addition, it also looks at how job engagement relates to burnout and sleeping problems.

The thesis structure and chapters are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the chapters

Chapter	Title	Remarks
1	Introduction	
2	Literature Review	
3	Psychosocial Safety Climate versus Team Climate: The Distinctiveness between the Two Organizational Climate Constructs	Paper under 2 nd review in Lee, M.C.C. & Idris, M.A., <i>Personnel Review</i>
4	The Effects of Psychosocial Safety Climate on Employees' Job Engagement and Personal Initiative: A Longitudinal Multilevel Study	Paper under review: Lee, M.C.C., Idris, M.A., & Winefield, A.H., <i>International Journal of Human Resource Management</i>
5	How does Transformational Leadership Affect Job Performance in a Hierarchical Organizational Culture?	Paper under review in Lee, M.C.C., Idris, M.A., Panatik, S.A., & Muhamad, H., <i>Asian Journal of Social Psychology</i>
6	The Linkages between Hierarchical Culture and Empowering Leadership on Employees' Job Engagement: Work Meaningfulness as a Mediator.	Paper under 2 nd review in Lee, M.C.C., Idris, M.A., & Delfabbro, P., <i>International Journal of Stress Management</i>

7	Effect of Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Job Resources	Paper under review in Lee, M.C.C., & Idris, M.A., <i>Human Resource Development Quarterly</i>
8	The Effects of Management Trust Climate on Individuals' Well-Being through Job Resource: A Cross-Sectional Multilevel Approach.	Paper under review in Lee, M.C.C., Idris, M.A., Panatik, S.A.A.R. & Winefield, A.H., <i>Asian Academy of Management Journal</i>
9	Conclusion	

1.3 Introduction

There are emerging concerns on the health and work productivity of employees around the globe as both scenarios seem to be opposite of each other (Bloom & Canning, 2000). This is brought to attention as increasing health problems have led to a decrease in individual and organizational performance. Globally, it has also been stated that health-related productivity costs are significantly higher than medical and pharmacy costs, with a ratio of 2.3 to 1. In the US alone, health-related productivity costs \$150 billion in 2004 (Hemp, 2004). Those data indicate the seriousness of looking at the issues related to productivity and health (Loeppke, Taitel, Haufle, Parry, Kessler, & Jinnett, 2009). Data from the US also reported that 69 million employees were accounted for due to illness in 2003 (Collins, 2003), and this values approximately 407 million days of lost time. Globally, health and productivity costs have also increased 22% within 2 years from 2003-2005 (Towers Watson, 2012). This scenario does not only feature in well-developed countries, but is becoming more alarming in developing countries as well.

In Asian regions, where most countries are transforming into high income nations, striving for employee productivity becomes a major concern. However, such focus also causes employees' health problems. There are several reports that indicated

that working conditions in Asian regions have worsened, with employees needing to work longer hours than expected (see Liu, Dow, Fu, Akin, & Lance, 2008). Recent reports suggest that Asian employees are now suffering with high burnout, depression, cardiovascular disease and in extreme cases, employees even commit suicide due to work-related stress (Tsui, 2008).

In the context of the current study, the research focuses on work conditions in Malaysia, as Malaysia is one of the most competitive countries in the world, ranked 18th in the world (The Global Competitiveness Report, 2015-2016). Although Malaysia is considered as one of the successful emerging economies, it is not without problems. For example, other reports have categorized Malaysia as one of the worst countries to work in due to the lack of commitment in improving employees' rights (The International Trade Union Confederation, 2014). There is also a low number of union memberships in Malaysia (Levine, 1997), and in some industries such as the manufacturing industry, there are no unions to protect employees at all (International Labour Organization, 1990).

Although the situation in Malaysia is not considered as bad as some other countries such as China and Japan where *karoshi* (suicide due to work) is a common phenomenon (Ke, 2012; Kuwahara et al., 2014), it seems that Malaysian employees also face low work support from employers (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010) and high rates of burnout and depression (Biding & Nordin, 2014; Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2012). Malaysian employees are also reported as lacking motivation at work (Ismail & Ahmed, 2015; Islam & Ismail, 2008). These situations suggest the importance of job resources in the workplace, and provides some background knowledge as to why this topic needs to be investigated.

1.3.1 Statement of problem

In order to make work better for employees, several theories have been introduced to explain how conducive job conditions can improve employees' well-being and job performance. Although using different terminology, overall, the models have indicated the importance of job resources in improving employees' job performance by looking from an individual level.

Despite job resources playing an important role in enhancing employees' motivation and job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), most of the Malaysian psychological research does not place much focus on the positive aspects of work, but are mainly interested in the negative aspects of work (i.e. Manshor, Fontaine, & Choy, 2003). Even in the Western context, there are critiques that stated psychological researchers have dedicated too much research on mental illness, rather than mental well-ness (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). In other words, as indicated in Bakker and Schaufeli (2008), psychological research intensively highlighted "Four D's"—damage, disease, disorder, and dysfunction—which made aspects of work focus more on problems, rather than solutions. Thus, by using job resources as a central theme, the present study in Malaysia is crucial, not only to fill the gaps in an Eastern context, but to also resolve some important aspects in psychological research.

Among the earlier explanations on the functions of job resources on employees' motivation and job outcomes is the two-factor model (Herzberg, 1966). The model focuses on two types of job conditions which includes job autonomy and skill development. They are believed to improve employees' well-being and motivation. Herzberg (1966) explained that the working environment should provide minimal basic necessities which are called "hygiene factors". These factors, such as job security, will not increase employees' job satisfaction but will result in job

dissatisfaction if there is a lack of them. The second factor, which is called “motivation factors”, such as opportunities for personal growth, are factors which will lead to higher job satisfaction when they are provided in the workplace.

One decade after the introduction of the two-factor model, Hackman and Oldman (1976) proposed a job characteristic model which emphasized the five characteristics of work which leads to higher job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, and higher internal motivation. These factors were skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy. While job design theory (Hertzberg, 1966) acknowledged the importance of motivational factors in improving employees’ performance. The job characteristic model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) emphasized two types of motivational factors, namely extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is motivation which is derived from the external environment that revolves around reward and punishment, whereas intrinsic motivation is motivation which is derived from individuals fulfilling psychological needs such as competency and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

While both theories described above emphasize motivational factors, there are other lines of research that focus on the job characteristic model and its relation to employees’ well-being. The job demand-control (JDC) model (Karasek, 1979) was among the first job characteristic models that was proposed in literature which took into consideration negative aspects of the job. It consists of two types of job features, namely job demands and job control. While job demands relate to negative aspects of employees’ well-being, namely strain, job control is believed to moderate the relationship between job demands and strain. Although the JDC model was gaining popularity, it was not without limitations. One of the limitations was due to the lack of applicability of the model, as job control is not the only job resources feature in the

workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Later, Karasek and Theorell (1990) improved the JDC model by adding a few other support variables such as co-workers and supervisors into the new model, namely the job demand-control-support (JDC-S) model.

Due to limitations of both the JDC and JDC-S model, a new job stress model was introduced, called the demand-induced strain compensation (DISC; De Jonge & Dormann, 2003). The DISC model introduced a multidimensional concept of job demands and job resources, addressing the emotional, cognitive, and physical. More specifically, job resources were categorized into emotional resources, cognitive resources, and physical resources, whereas job demands were divided into emotional demands, cognitive demands, and physical demands. Although the DISC model seems more comprehensive, not all occupations have a combination of all three emotional, cognitive, and physical aspects of resources and demands. For example, an academician in university may suffer more cognitive demands than physical demands, while labor workers may experience more physical demands than cognitive demands.

Because of the limitations of the JDC, JDCS and DISC model, the job demand-resource model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) was introduced in recent years. This model is more flexible compared to other models. It is due to the general definition around the concept of “job demands” and “job resources”. Job resources, as defined in the JD-R model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) is “any physical, psychological, social or organizational of the job that are functional and beneficial in achieving work goals, reduce job demand, or any which that is associated with the physiological or psychological cost to it, in addition to stimulating individual growth, learning and development” (p. 296). On the other hand, job demands are defined as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained

physical and/or psychological (i.e., cognitive or emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (p. 296).

The main proposition of the JD-R model can be explained by two parallel processes, namely health erosion and motivational pathways. While job demands react as a threat to employees’ burnout and depression, job resources are expected to enhance employees’ engagement (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006).

However, although all of these theories described above convincingly attract attention to the positive aspects of the working environment, especially by putting forward the function of job resources as the key mechanism to employees’ motivation and job performance, but the question as to what is the precursor to job resources remains. Most of these theories mainly focus on individual, rather than organizational contexts. In other words, ‘what is cause of the cause’, the phrase used by Dollard and Karasek (2012) seems to have been neglected.

Three main domains – organizational climate, leadership, and organizational culture – were selected as possible precursors to job resources. More specifically, the study investigated the function of three important climate constructs, namely psychosocial safety climate, team climate, and management trust as possible antecedents to job resources. For the leadership domain, the study used transformational and empowering leadership as possible organizational contextual variables to job resources. Finally, hierarchical culture is used as part of the organizational contextual variables that influence job resources in the working environment.

Regarding job resources, as it is not possible to include all types of job resources as they are too broad and plentiful (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), only a few job-resource variables were selected. These include personal development, role clarity,

performance feedback, and work meaningfulness. The definition of and rationale on why these variables were selected are described in each respective chapter.

1.3.2 Overview of conceptual framework

The study tested an integrative model on how organizational contextual variables (organizational climate, leadership, and organizational culture) precede job resources, more specifically, how organizational contextual factors influence employees' outcomes through job resources. The research was conceptualized by using this approach, derived from the notion that job conditions are created by organizational and external contexts. This is in line with a previous study by Dollard and Bakker (2010) that used psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to job resources, and also a study by Tuckey, Bakker, and Dollard (2012) that included empowering leadership as an antecedent to job demands. Although external factors such as globalization may also precede working environment in the providence of job resources (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2011; Sauter & Murphy, 2003), this factor was omitted due to methodological limitations, as an appropriate approach is needed to measure external factors.

There are several rationales for including organizational factors into the research concept. Firstly, as previously discussed, all of the job characteristic models, such as JCM, JDC, JDC-S, DISC, and JD-R, fail to highlight what is the precursor to job resources. These models only explain how and why job resources contribute to positive employees' and organizational outcomes. It is important to highlight that job resources do not emerge without any organizational contextual antecedents. Johns (2010) argues that job conditions are mainly created by management or organizational initiative. In other words, although job resources are important in boosting employees'

motivation and job performance, the fact is that job resources themselves must derive from the priorities of the upper streams in the organization (Dollard & Karasek, 2012).

Secondly, practitioners have also questioned the impact of job resources in the workplace if job resources lie on employees (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). While employees may prefer tasks according to their likes and dislikes, if they are not supported by management, it only leads to failure rather than success. For example, it is known that higher job autonomy leads to higher job performance. However, employees won't be able to create their own job autonomy if the superior or the organization does not allow them to do so.

There is rationale for why only a few organizational contexts were chosen. First, organizational climate is one of the most important organizational factors that is discussed in literature (Kuenzi & Schminke, 2009). It has always been assumed to be an important phenomenon in organizations. Although not all organizational climates have been treated as antecedents to the job environment, recently scholars have argued that they also represent management action to create job conditions (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Dollard & Karasek, 2012). In the context of the current research, the study treats psychosocial safety climate (PSC), team climate, and management trust climate as antecedents to job resources.

PSC is a specific aspect of organizational climate in which it 'is expected to precede working conditions' (Dollard & Bakker, 2010, p.580). So far research supports the idea on how high PSC indirectly increases job resources. This is found in several cross sectional and longitudinal studies (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Hall, Dollard, & Coward, 2011; Idris, Dollard, & Tuckey, 2015). Even by using a new approach, for example by using a diary study, Yulita, Idris, and Dollard (in review) and Garrick et al. (2014) discovered that PSC at the organizational level is able to

reduce some psychological symptoms, such as fatigue and burnout, and enhance some positives in the work environment.

Team climate is regarded as an important factor that boosts team functioning (Anderson & West, 1994; Figl & Saunders, 2011). Having a high team climate acknowledges the strength of the team as well as the cohesiveness of the team, as not only does it focus on the relationship between team members, but it also synergizes working behaviors as a whole. Most studies have reported that having a high level of support helped reduce perceived job demands and increase job resources. Indirectly, a high team climate also leads to lower job demands and higher job resources.

A trust climate has been found to be an important aspect that influences some job characteristics. Schaubroeck, Lam, and Peng (2011) discovered that when there is a high level of trust within the group, employees feel they have more autonomy in decision making and are provided with a safe environment where they can feel safe to voice out their opinions. This indicates how team climate is actually another important organizational climate construct that boosts employees' job resources.

Secondly, transformational, transactional, and empowering leadership were chosen rather than other leadership styles as the three leadership styles represent three important domains that been reported in literature. Leadership also has been found as a "core" persuasion process in the working environment. For example, some meta-analyses by Judge and Piccolo (2004); Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996); and Yildirim and Birinci (2013) discovered the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower performance. In another study by Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson, both transformational and transactional leadership affected employees' job performance positively. These findings suggest the role leadership may play in employees' work behaviour. Although the studies do not directly use the

term “job resources”, they indicate that as a form of leadership style, transformational leaders often interact more frequently with employees (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sias, 2005) and are able to negotiate on employees’ job scope and job performance (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010; Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006).

Similarly, empowering leadership often relates to employees’ freedom, authority, and autonomy (Pearce & Sims, 2002; Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010) as part of the leadership style in order to motivate employees to be more proactive in their work. As empowering leaders are found to lead to higher task completion and higher achievement among employees (Chebat & Kollias, 2000), empowering leaders have been found to provide more psychological empowerment to their employees (Spreitzer, 1995), it reflects how empowering leaders actually act as an important element in organizations that provide more job resources to their employees.

Thirdly, in relation to organizational culture as an organizational context, hierarchical organizational culture consists of consistency, predictability, and functions through a chain of command (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Most management that practices this culture exerts control on their employees through power and position (Panatik, 2012). The more management has a final say in every decision, the more it is not encouraged for employees to voice out or to provide opinions that are different from them (Summereder, Streicher, & Batinic, 2014). Moreover, employees are often seen as the property of the organization and are required to do tasks required by the organization without their opinions being taken into consideration (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Hierarchical organizational culture can often be found among Asian countries, which are mostly collectivistic societies (Realo, Allik, & Vadi, 1997). These countries have high regard for positions and status. Malaysia, which emphasizes

respect, authority, and harmony, also has been identified as one of the countries which practices hierarchical organizational culture (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010).

As described above, it suggests that all of these factors play a significant organizational role that precede job resources. This is consistent with a recent trend in organizational research that shifted into a new paradigm of research by using a multi-level approach (Bliese & Jex, 1999; Mathieu & Taylor, 2007) that consistently argues that phenomenon at the individual level is actually derived from organizational contexts.

Overall, the research model is illustrated in Figure 1.1 below:

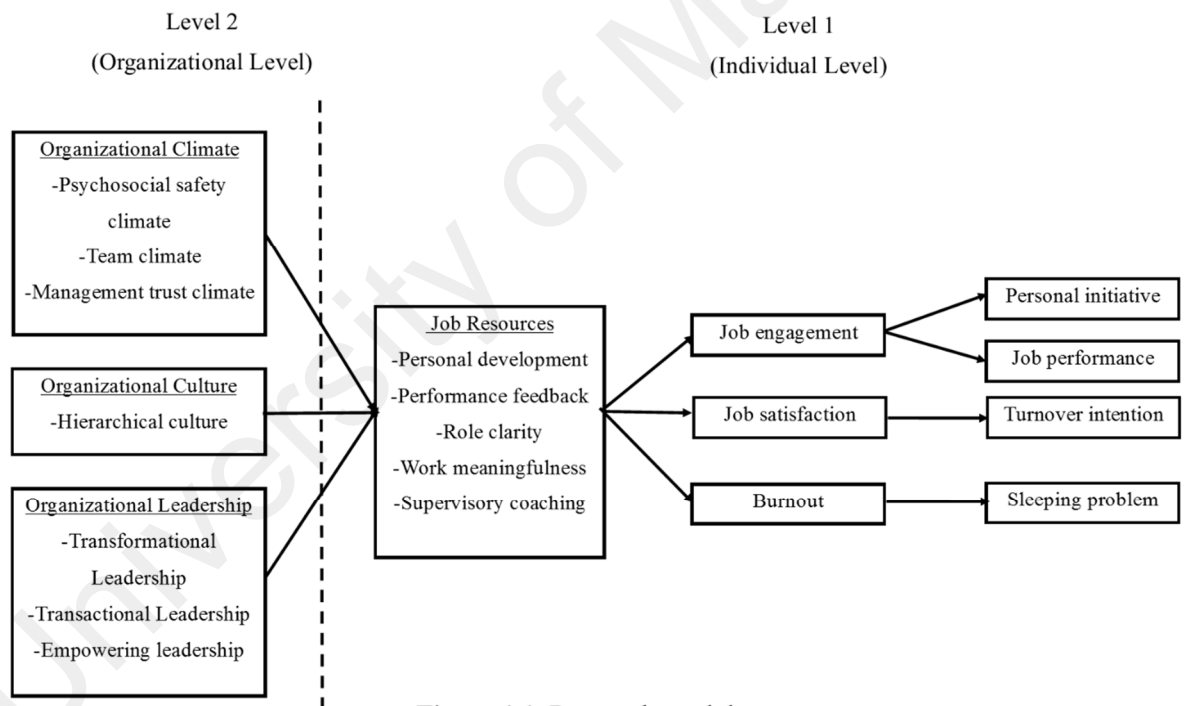


Figure 1.1. Research model

1.4 Outcomes of job resources

There are several outcomes of job resources, mainly positive work outcomes such as personal initiative, job engagement, job satisfaction, and job performance. However, the basic assumption, especially from the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), is that job resources are able to enhance job engagement and reduce burnout.

1.4.1 Job engagement and burnout

Job engagement and burnout are among of most discussed outcomes for job resources. Job engagement is defined as “a positive fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigor, dedication and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Vigor is referred to as having a high level of energy while working; dedication is an employee’s sense of his/her significance; and absorption is being focused in one’s work while working (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). While job engagement contains positive feelings toward work, burnout is defined as “a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job” (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 397). Overall, burnout is measured by using three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, increased cynicism, and reduced personal self-efficacy (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006).

Several scholars claim that burnout and engagement are on two opposite poles (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker (2007). In other words, employees who are high in job engagement are more likely to have low burnout, and vice versa. Engagement is experienced in conditions where there are high job resources, while burnout is experienced in conditions where there are high job demands and low job resources. Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Hofmann (2011) discovered that job demand showed a negative relationship to engagement, while job

resources showed a negative relationship to burnout. Job demands, such as heavy workload, time constraints, and emotional demands trigger burnout (Alarcon, 2011). In contrast, job resources such as job control, social support, personal development, and performance feedback had a positive relationship with job engagement (Bakker, 2011; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). The effort-recovery model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) highlighted that working requires a high level of effort at the cost of physiological, behavioral and subjective levels. In situations where employees are not able to recover, it would lead to low well-being and health impairments such as exhaustion (Ursin, & Erikson, 2004).

Interestingly, from another perspective, researchers have also found that job demands and job resources interact with each other. Hakanen, Bakker, and Demerouti (2005) argue that job resources are useful to boost engagement when job demands are high. Another study also showed a combination of high job resources and low job demands predicted low burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Rhenen, 2009).

In the present study, as the main focus is job resources, rather than job demands, most of the discussion in the thesis highlighted job engagement as an outcome, but not burnout (except in Chapter 5).

1.5 The specificity of job resources

Job resources is a broad concept, and several positive aspects of work can be considered as job resources. In their review, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) has listed 31 job resource variables that have been used in literature. Given the wide selection of job resource variables, some studies, especially those who are using Structural Equation Modelling analysis, tend to measure several variables and cluster them under job resources as a single concept (e.g. Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Using job resources as a singular noun will perhaps limit opportunities

to address the speciality, function, and origins of each job resource. In the present study, we only emphasize several kinds of job resources, as discussed below.

1.5.1 Personal development

Personal development refers to one's opportunities to develop one's skills and abilities. Personal development has been suggested as a tool to increase employees' physical and mental health (Parker, 2014). Akkermans, Schaufeli, Brenninkmeijer, and Blonk (2013) discovered that when employees had access to personal development, their work competencies increased, which led to higher job engagement and job performance.

Similarly, this finding is traced back through the support provided by the organization (Idris, Dollard, & Tuckey, 2015). The benefit of personal development isn't only limited to the individual and his/her aspects of the job. The individual will also have opportunities to engage in other areas of work (Fuller & Unwin, 2004). A couple of ways personal development can happen is through performance feedback and when organizations are willing to put resources (i.e. trainings, workshops) to build up their employees (Beausaert, Segers, & Gijssels, 2011). For employees to feel valued and cherished requires organizations to understand each employee's weaknesses and how they may help their employees to become better over time (Garvey & Williamson, 2002).

1.5.2 Role clarity

While in today's world where one's job description is constantly changing and may not be clear, employees are still being entrusted with responsibilities based on the tasks given (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004). One requires role clarity in order to carry out their tasks successfully (Bray & Brawley, 2002; Lee & Peccei, 2007). This places important responsibility on the organization as the

organization defines the roles played by employees at different times (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2011). Hence, when speaking about job performance, the organization plays a role in ensuring employees are clear about the roles they play in the workplace (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). Role clarity has been shown to lead to higher organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior (Steers, 1977; Yadav & Rangnekar, 2014). A study by Mukherjee and Malhorta (2006) on call centre workers found workers who had higher role clarity had higher organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and service quality. Role clarity is also shown to be a buffer to high job demands and psychological strain (Bliese & Castro, 2000). Whereas the absence of role clarity leads to higher levels of stress and strains, lower levels of productivity, and higher absenteeism (Zhou, Martinez, Ferreira, & Rodriguez, 2016).

1.5.3 Performance feedback

More importantly, employees are constantly finding ways to improve themselves. In order to do so, performance feedback then becomes an important element in the workplace (Steelman & Rutkowski, 2004). This also aligns with employees being valued and appreciated by the organization. As such, the organization communicates about their performance and finds ways to improve their employees (Bauer & Green, 1998). Synder and Morris (1984) found that performance feedback that contained high levels of communication and information exchange led to higher revenue for the organization and an overall organizational performance. Neves and Eisenberger (2012) and Oldham and Cumming (1996) also found performance feedback with high levels of supervisory support showed higher levels of employees' creative performance. Performance feedback allows higher access to information on behaviors which are acceptable to the organization. As such, the

employees know what is expected from the organization and what they can do to achieve its objectives. Performance feedback not only allows the employee to perform better at work, but it also allows team members to communicate effectively and achieve their goals faster (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). While past studies have showed that performance feedback has benefitted organizations more, a study by Aguinis, Gottfredson, and Joo (2012) stated that strength-based feedback increased employees' motivation and job engagement. This highlights that feedback may benefit both employees and organizations.

1.5.4 Work meaningfulness

Work meaningfulness is a fundamental human need (Yeoman, 2014). This is especially important for employees from the younger generation, who find that a job doesn't only constitute working but also reflects their values and identity (Hirschi, 2012). It is proposed that positive organizations (i.e. positive in organizational climate, organizational culture, and organizational leadership) assist employees to find meaning in their workplace through constant engagement and communication with employers (Jiang & Probst, 2014). Work meaningfulness derives from procedural justice, job crafting, and other types of job resources (Saks, 2006; Wrzesniewski, Lobuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). Between psychological safety, work meaningfulness, and psychological availability, work meaningfulness has shown to have the largest affect on job engagement (Kahn, 1990; May, Glison, & Harter, 2004). It also showed that it led to higher levels of job satisfaction, lower intentions to quit, higher organizational citizenship behavior, and higher organizational commitment. The presence of work meaningfulness also leads to higher job commitment and organizational commitment (Saks, 2006).

1.5.5 Supervisory coaching

Supervisory coaching is defined as a day to day process where a supportive leader helps the employees to recognize opportunities to improve work performance (Ellinger, 2013; Fournies, 1987). Such practice is often associated with a safe environment where employees are allowed to make mistakes in the process of learning, where there is trust between the leaders and the employees (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014). Hence, it has been stated as job resources in several literatures (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Oerlemans, Demerouti, Slot, & Ali, 2011; Bakker, ten Brummelhuis, Prins, Heijden, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As adults prefer to learn to collaboration and being autonomous, it is suggested that this type of job resource may be effective in improving employees' outcomes (Gordon, 2004). Literature has stated that supervisory coaching resulted in higher individual self-efficacy, commitment, performance, team performance, organizational performance, and better customer satisfaction (Ebmeier & Nicklaus, 1999; Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003; Pousa & Mathieu, 2014; Rogers, 2000).

1.6 Aims of the study

The overall goal of the research is to understand how organizational contexts (e.g. organizational climates, organizational leadership, and organizational culture) affect employees' job resources (i.e. personal development, performance feedback, role clarity, and work meaningfulness), engagement, burnout, and work outcomes (i.e. personal initiative, job performance, sleeping problems). The study utilizes a multi-level approach whereby organizational contexts will be placed as organizational level influence, while employees' internal processes and work outcomes are placed on an individual level.

In general, the key questions for the research are:

1. How do specific organizational factors relate to specific job resources? (See Chapter 3 to Chapter 8).
2. Does the job resources-engagement relationship exist within the Malaysian context? (See Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 8).
3. Do organizational factors affect work outcomes through job resources? (See Chapter 3 to Chapter 8).

The research aims to:

1. Examine the distinctiveness of team climate and psychosocial safety climate as positive climates for role clarity and performance feedback.
2. Investigate psychosocial safety climate in relation to personal development (as a job resource) and engagement on personal initiative.
3. Investigate the effectiveness of transformational leadership in a hierarchical culture on employees' performance feedback.
4. Investigate the influences of hierarchical organizational culture and empowering leadership on employees' work meaningfulness.
5. Examine the influences of management trust climate on employees' personal development and work outcomes.
6. Discover the relationships between all types of job resources (i.e. personal development, role clarity, performance feedback, and work meaningfulness) and job engagement.
7. Discover the relationships between job engagement and work outcomes and well-being (i.e. job performance, personal initiative, burnout, and sleeping problem).
8. Explore the role of job resources (i.e. personal development, role clarity, performance feedback, and work meaningfulness) as mediators between

organizational contexts (i.e. psychosocial safety climate, team climate, management trust climate, hierarchical organizational culture, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and empowering leadership) and work outcomes (i.e. job engagement, burnout, personal initiative, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job performance).

9. Explore the role of job engagement as a mediator between job resources (i.e. personal development, role clarity, performance feedback, work meaningfulness, and supervisory coaching) and work outcomes and well-being (i.e. job performance, personal initiative, turnover intention, burnout, sleeping problems, and job satisfaction).

1.7 Significance of the study

1.7.1 Understanding from the perspective of developing countries: The Malaysian context

Most literature on working conditions revolves around the Western context and perspectives (Sadhra, Beach, Aw, & Sheikh-Ahmed, 2001). The creation of inventories measuring organizational contexts such as transformational leadership, psychosocial safety climate, and organizational culture was derived from the Western context (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Cooke & Lafferty, 1995; Dollard & Bakker, 2010). Those concepts were mostly derived from the context of their culture and the people. Since cultural differences matter when investigating human behavior, the applicability of Western tools and terminologies may not be suitable in the Eastern context (Chen & Francesco, 2000; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). For example, while Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman (1999) found attributes of transformational leadership to be universally endorsed, Dorfman et al. (1997) found that leadership characteristics contain both universal characteristics and culturally

specific characteristics. This concludes the need to do more studies on organizational contexts.

Countries such as Malaysia place high control over their employees and do not leave much space for employees to display their skills and talents in the workplace (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In this situation, not many studies have placed focus on the Asian context. Literature in the Asian context shows that there is a lack of research conducted from an organizational context, and most studies rely on individual factors (Begley, Lee, Fang, & Li, 2002; Chow, 2002; Park, Monnot, Jacob, & Wagner, 2011; Wong, Wong, Hui, & Law, 2001). One notifiable study which investigated organizational contexts on employees in relation to job characteristics within the Malaysian population was investigated by Idris, Dollard, and Tuckey (2015), and Idris, Dollard, and Winefield (2011). Since collectivistic beliefs are a part of Asian employee culture, organizational contexts would play a significant influence on employees' behavior and job outcomes (Chen, Tsui, & Farh, 2002; Huff & Kelley, 2003; Lowe, 2005).

There have been an increasing number of studies looking at organizational culture through Malaysia's lens over the past few years. While Wee (2013) acknowledged the importance of looking at Malaysian culture in a more detailed manner, most studies explored organizational culture in relation to organizational changes, innovation, creativity, job performance and financial performance within the Malaysian context (Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003; Rashid, Sambasivan, & Rahman, 2004; Seen, Singh, & Jayasingam, 2012; Yusoff, 2011; Zakersalehi, Maroofiyan, & Asmawi, 2011). Unfortunately, the studies didn't manage to display a mechanism on how employees' performance may derive from organizational contexts. Most studies in this area are Western dominated (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005;

Luthans, Normal, & Avolio, 2008; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Hence, more studies within the Asian context are needed to enrich the organizational contexts and job resources literature through the inclusion of Eastern perspectives.

Since the study takes into consideration the Malaysian context, it also includes contexts which are synonymous to Malaysian culture, i.e. hierarchical organizational culture, in understanding Malaysian phenomenon. While it has Malaysian elements in the study, the study also used concepts and theories which have been derived from the West to see if those concepts are applicable in Eastern countries as well. Given the wide variation of how organizational factors can be termed, the study included both Western and Eastern perspectives by looking at the 3 lenses of organizational factors (i.e. organizational climate, organizational culture, and leadership styles) (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Nieminen, Biermeier-Hanson, & Denison, 2013).

1.7.2 Methodological gap

1.7.2.1 Multilevel analysis

Multilevel analysis is considered a new approach in work psychology. It acknowledges the presence of the group level rather than just the individual level in affecting employees' outcomes. In other words, it considers the effect of the upper level on individuals (Bliese & Jex, 2002). Since it is considered as a new approach in literature, it is still rarely applied among scholars, but has shown promising application in the literature. Multilevel analysis begins through considering that social contexts affect individuals. Within the organizational context, the contexts include organizational leadership, organizational climate, and organizational culture

(Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). They are seen as upper level as they command a top-down influence on the employees (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Schwartz, 1999).

The rationale arises when investigating work design, social contexts play a role in affecting employees rather than just the individual affecting himself/herself. Using a top-down approach, since the social context (i.e. organizational contexts) sets the environment in which the employees are in, that influences job characteristics. However, Howell, Breivik, and Wilcox (2007) added that studies on organizational contexts, while they are latent (i.e. not seen yet visible and influential to the outcome of the lower level), it requires consideration of higher level analysis. Theoretically, when group level variables are formed through the agreed perception of the group members which states the commonly acknowledged atmosphere and environment they are in, they become objective hence measurable for analysis purposes.

Previous studies involving organizational contexts such as leadership, climate, and culture have used individual analysis (see Cox, Pearce, & Sims, 2005; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008; Wilderom, van den Berg, & Wiersma, 2012). Some suggestions, for example, Kiewitz, Hochwarter, Ferris, and Castro (2002) recommended the use of multilevel analysis in investigating organizational contexts as it is more reliable. Although a growing number of publications are acknowledging the need to use multilevel analysis when investigating organizational contexts (see Dragoni, 2005, Carter, Armenakis, Feild, & Mossholder, 2013; Zohar & Luria, 2010), it remains small in comparison with individual analysis. One of which is a study by Tuckey, Bakker, and Dollard (2012) which found support for the idea that empowering leadership is an upper level construct and how it affected employees' job characteristics (i.e. job demands and job resources) and job engagement.

Methodologists such as Mathieu, Aguinis, Culpepper, and Chen (2012) recommended that a multilevel approach should be adopted if the study looks at organizational contexts. While JD-R assumes that job characteristics may increase or decrease employees' well-being and performance, this is not always correct. For example, Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Hoffmann (2011) argue that job demands vary by industries, whereas working environment (i.e. organizational context) remains the most consistent in the provision of job resources, regardless of the industries employees are in. Hence, the focus of the study is to investigate the relationships between organizational contexts and on some individual and work outcomes, particularly via job resources.

Multilevel modelling is one of the solutions used to avoid statistical errors as it is able to take into account a combination of influences from the same level as well as from the higher level. The higher levels, which are also called contextual or analytical variables, are nested together from the lower level of individuals. This analysis can be done through conceptualization and allows us to view matters using analytical implications (Mathieu, Aguinis, Culpepper, & Chen, 2012; Snijders & Bosker, 2012). Theories such as contingency theories, organizational fit theories, and person-environment fit theories are all beneficial in using a HLM approach (Grizzle, Zablah, Brown, Mowen, & Lee, 2009; Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch, 2009).

With the presence of multilevel analysis, it allows for the consideration of organizational contexts which are latent and distance to be made objective and be able to be investigated (Burke & Signal, 2010). It also allows for the integration of examining job resources in relation to organizational contexts (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). Taken all into consideration, in relation to distal organizational contexts and

proximal job characteristics, multilevel approach provides a wider lens in understanding employees' work outcomes (Dextras-Gauthier, Marchand, & Haines, 2012).

1.7.2.2 Overcoming common method variance issues

Common method variances are one of the major issues in social sciences and psychological research (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This problem appears particularly when the research relies on a self-reported questionnaire and uses cross-sectional data collection. In general, most social sciences research in Malaysia relies on a cross-sectional approach. Scholars and methodologists urged researchers to improve their research strategy by using a longitudinal approach (Aguinis & Edwards, 2014). Since some psychological phenomenon sometimes need a longer period to make an effect (Zapf & Dormann, 2000), the current study attempts to employ a longitudinal approach with a one-year gap to provide a solution on some methodological and statistical errors due to common methods variance.

1.7.2.3 Mediation analyses

Studies have shown how job resources lead to higher job performance (i.e. Hochwarter, Laird, & Brouer, 2008). While looking at job resources may assist in understanding organizational behaviour, it has its limits. It does not show the processes within the individual, neither does it assist in understanding the whole story. In studies where organizational contexts are studied, most of them relied on direct outcomes effects. For example, a study by Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin (1994) showed how organizational politics and support predicted work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. However, it fails to show a clearer picture on the processes in between (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007).

Recent literature has only begun to look at the processes from organizational contexts to work outcomes. For example, Idris, Dollard, and Tuckey (2015) examined how organizational management may increase employees' job performance through the providence of learning opportunities. This shows the importance of looking at the relationships between the variables in order to have a clearer picture of the situation.

Mediation process is a way to understand the mechanism behind how an issue works, in addition to looking at causal processes in between (von Eye, Mun, & Mair, 2009; Shrout, 2011). While engagement and burnout have been treated as outcomes for job resources and job demands (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010), these variables have also acted as mediators in the relationship between job resources and work outcomes (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2003; Nahrgang, Morgeson, Hoffman, & Kozlowski, 2011). Previous literature has started to integrate mediation analyses in their analyses when conducting studies involving organizational contexts (i.e. Wheeler, Harris, & Sablinski, 2012; Yuan, Li, & Tetrick, 2015).

Hence, by having the current approach in understanding the mechanism of job resources, the study also adds on with the inclusion of organizational contexts, through acknowledging the roles they play in affecting employees' outcomes, especially through job resources and job engagement (see Boudrias et al., 2011). More importantly, the study utilized the specificity of job resources to make a clear picture between tested variables. This is because different job resources have shown to exhibit different roles and functions (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Since the research also takes into consideration the mediation process, it is only worthy to investigate pathways organizational contexts may provide.

1.8 Overview of data collection process

To achieve the research aims and objectives, the research utilized a two-wave longitudinal survey with a 12 months' gap. Although there are some time gap recommendations such as 6 weeks (Liu & Fu, 2011; Westman, Bakker, Roziner, & Sonnentag, 2011), 3 months (Wang et al., 2011), 6 months (Panatik et al., 2011), and even a 2 years' gap (Xie et al., 2008), but in the context of the current study the data was collected using a one-year gap, which is considered as "not too long" and "not too short" (Dormann & Van de Ven, 2014). Using a one-year gap is appropriate since the study is concerned with measurements on some organizational contexts that may need a longer period of time to observe the effects on the employees. In addition, Dorman and Van de Van (2014) suggested that in organizational research, using a longer gap time is more adequate in detecting changes which may occur from the starting point of evaluation.

At Time 1, from the 60 private organization approached¹, 256 participants from 44 organizations agreed to participate (62% response rate). Only one team was selected from each organization. It was followed by data collection at Time 2 a year later. From the original 44 organizations that were approached, only 134 from 28 organizations returned the questionnaire (52.3% response rate). However, at Time 2, there were also new participants who had responded to the survey who had not previously participated at T1 (N = 157). Details about participants are indicated in each respective chapter.

Following the collection of first data set, another data set was collected to do another round of study on organizational contexts on work outcomes (N individual= 500; N organization= 65)², to support previous findings and to investigate its relation

¹ Teams and organizations are used interchangeably as only one team is picked per organization.

² Teams and organizations are also used interchangeably here as only one team is picked per organization.

with new job resources and other variables such as supervisory coaching and job satisfaction. Overall, the data collection process as is illustrated in Figure 1.2 below.

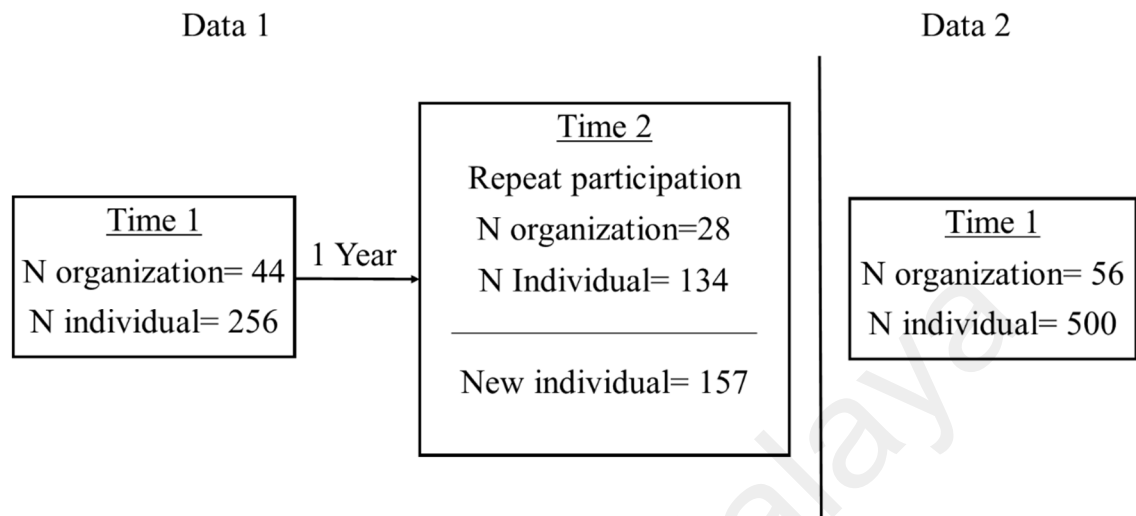


Figure 1.2. Data collection process

1.9 Conclusion

Existing literature indicates the importance of job characteristics on employees' outcomes and also organizational effectiveness. Previous research on job characteristics made limited contribution to the literature, since it left out factors being played on the upper level and also its effect on employees' behavioral outcomes. In addition, the generalization of job resources left space for researchers to identify the organizational factor to the type of job resources. The present study attempts to test organizational factors in affecting employees' specific job resources, engagement, and work outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

Literature review

2.1 Job resources within job characteristic context

As briefly explained in the previous chapter, job resources can be considered as part of job characteristics and mainly refer to individual task levels. However, the concept of job resources itself is considered a new concept, as most of the previous literature does not specifically use job resources as a term. The term 'job resources' has only emerged with the introduction of the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), and it is then considered as a part of job characteristics.

Among the pioneers in this area, Hackman and Oldman (1976) explain several task levels that can be described as job characteristics, but not as job resources. These authors suggest five characteristics at task level such as skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy, and all of these job characteristics are believed to be positive predictors of individuals' performance at work (Faturochman, 1997). These five factors were also strongly related to job satisfaction, growth satisfaction, high internal work motivation as well as mental well-being and health (Bhatti, Syed, & Shaikh, 2012; Vahtera, Kivimaki, Pentti, & Theorell, 2000). Although Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristic model is useful in explaining employees' outcomes, the model has been questioned due to it using only five of these characteristics to predict employees' output.

Due to the limitations of this model, Kasarek (1979) proposes two important concepts, namely "demands" and "control" as important job characteristics at work with the introduction of the job demand-control model (Karasek, 1979). The JDC model conceives that while demands lead to negative psychological outcomes, control

will reduce the effect of job demands. Figure 2.1 illustrated the job demand-control model.

		Psychological demands	
		Low	High
Job control	High	Low strain	High active
	Low	Passive	High strain

Figure 2.1. The job demands-control, adapted from Karasek (1979)

Due to the reason that job characteristics are not only represented by demand and control, the model has been improved through the inclusion of an additional variable, namely social support. This has mainly been measured by using supervisor support and co-workers' relationships (Johnson & Hall, 1988). The model has been introduced under a new name, the job demands-control-support (JDCS; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) model. Although "control" and "social support" are two important job resources, neither variables are labeled as job resources, but rather named according to their respective variable.

However, the concept of "demands", "control" and "support" brought some limitations as the concept narrowed its applicability to different fields of occupation. For example, in some occupational fields it may not be suitable to use control (McAdam & McClelland, 2002) or some types of jobs may not have clear "social support" in their work, for example among those who work as drivers (Kristensen, 1995; Ryan & Solky, 1996) or astronauts who work alone. This is critical when the

working environment may represent a broad range of demands and support conditions, and cannot only be described as demands, control or support (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Houtman & Smulders, 2003).

Due to JDC and JDCS limitations, the job demand-resource model (JD-R; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) had been introduced. The JD-R model looks at the balance between job demand and job resources. Job demands are defined as any task that need to be done, while job resources are any working conditions that support employees to achieve work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). While job demands are expected to precede negative employees' well-being and work outcomes, job resources are defined as necessary supports that boost employee's motivation and work performance (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). More specifically, job demands are closely related to burnout while job resources are considered as antecedents to job engagement (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004).

What interests researchers to use the JD-R model lies in its simplicity. The JD-R model has not restricted any specific types of job demands or job resources. So far scholars have used several types of job demand variables such as psychological demands, emotional demands and workload, while supervisor support, learning opportunities, and possibilities for development were used as job resource variables (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Figure 2.2 illustrated the JD-R model.

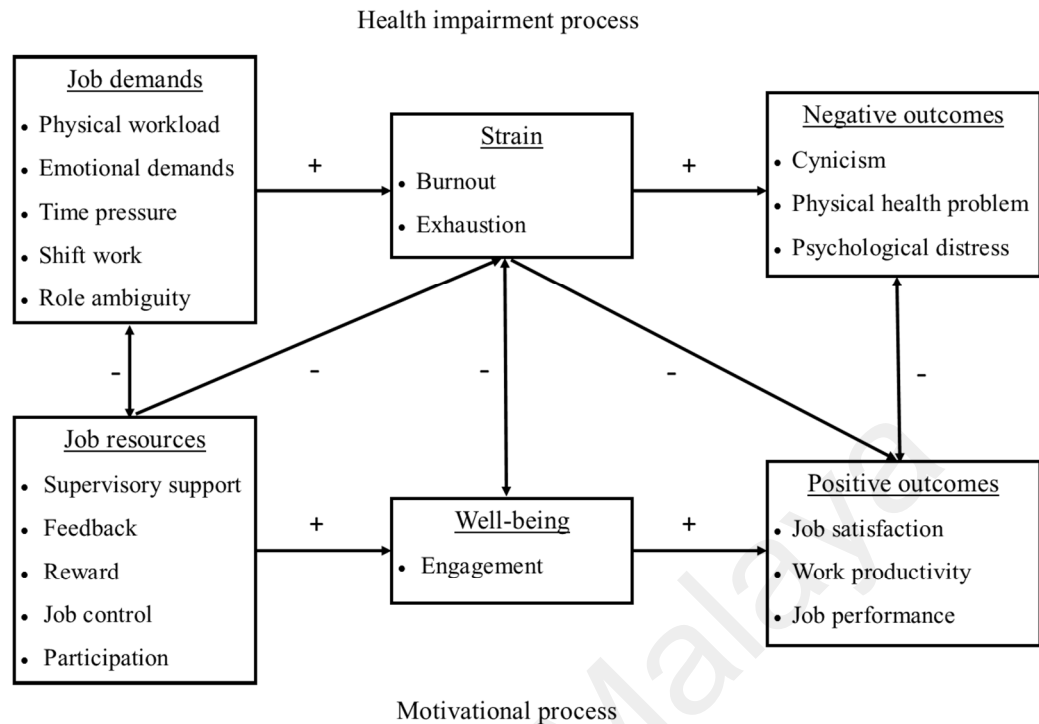


Figure 2.2. The job demands-resources model,
adopted from Schaufeli & Taris (2014, p.46)

The concept of job demands and job resources, then, has also been improved in a different model—the demands-induced-strain-compensation (DISC, de Jonge & Dormann, 2003) model. Unlike the JD-R model, the DISC model categorized job demands and job resources into three main clusters, namely “cognitive”, “physical”, and “emotional”. By using this approach, the DISC model describes job demands as “stimuli at work that required some effort” and job resources as ‘energetic reservoir at work to cope with demands’ (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003, p. 47). The DISC model also places emphasis on “matching principles” in explaining employees’ outcomes. For example, exhaustion is a result of high emotional demands and low emotional resources, while physical health complaints resulted from high physical demands and low physical resources. Under the DISC model, to reduce the effect of job demands, employees need to be provided with “matching” job resources. If employees suffer

from high levels of physical job demands, they should be provided with a high level of physical resources. Figure 2.3 illustrated the DISC model.

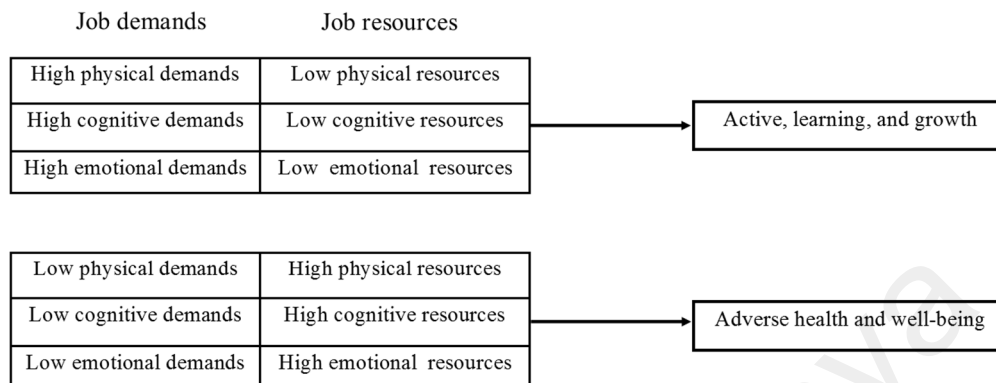


Figure 2.3. Demand-induced-strain-compensation, adapted from de Jonge and Dormann (2003)

In conclusion, the emerging concept of job resources is only described in the JD-R and DISC model, but not on among other job characteristic models. However, without using the term “job resources”, the fact is that most of the previous studies utilize job resources in their research conception. For example, the five job characteristics such as skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy as indicated in Hackman and Oldman’s (1976) job characteristic model actually refer to job resources.

Although job demands and job resources were used in contemporary research models, for the context of the current study, the research only focuses on job resources rather than job demands.

2.2 The distinctiveness between organizational leadership, organizational climates, and organizational culture

The concepts surrounding organizational leadership, organizational climate, and organizational culture are distinct, but may overlap and interrelate (Sarros, Cooper, & Santora, 2008). The overlapping may be due to the similarity of constructs

used to measure these three concepts. For example, a study by Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) found that team members who had a high quality relationship with the leader also reported that they have strong organizational climate perception. Similarly, while testing the effect of organizational climate construct (i.e. PSC) on employees' well-being and performance, Dollard and Bakker (2010) actually measure how employees perceive their leaders and managerial practice in creating conducive working conditions for employees.

In a similar view, using different terminology, organizational culture may also reflect the nature of the leadership process within an organization. For example, organizational culture may be defined as shared "values, belief and assumption" among team members (Denison, 1996), but in practice, leaders are the people who are responsible for creating the vision of the organization, and is then carried out by lower management (Schein, 2004). In other words, leaders in an organization first inculcate the values and principles to the employees on how things work in the organization (Schein, 2010). According to Sarros, Cooper, and Santora (2008) the leaders initiate changes, and not otherwise. This process indirectly forms the organizational culture (Hartnell & Walumbwa, 2011; Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008).

Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) found that organizational culture served as an indirect role than a direct role in affecting employees' outcomes. Whereas, for leadership and organizational climate, it is assumed leadership plays a significant role in determining an organizational climate. Nevertheless, the patterns of findings on the three organizational contexts have not been well supported (Denison, 1996; Ehrhart, 2004; Rentsch, 1990; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). This is because leadership is not the only factor that creates organizational climate but is rather an interaction of a few factors (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011). Due to such complexity between

terms, it is best for now to place them separately while acknowledging the roles in determining work outcomes.

Due to these reasons, some scholars try to examine leadership, organizational climate and organizational culture as interrelated constructs, rather than to examine them as separate entities. Hammond, Neff, Farr, Schwall, and Zhao (2011) examined how contextual factors such as leader's support, positive climate, and leadership style promoted innovation among the employees. Results showed employees' innovation will increase in conditions where working conditions are in a supportive climate, and the leader uses a transformational leadership style. Other studies also discovered similar findings. For example, transformational leadership, when supported with the climate for innovation, enhanced team innovation (Eisenbeiss, Knippenberg & Boerner, 2008).

Chen and Bliese (2002) investigated the relationship between leadership climate, self-efficacy, and group efficacy. Ultimately, leadership climate is not the primary and most important factor when looking at self-efficacy. In higher level management, leadership climate is related to self-efficacy through role clarity while on lower levels of management, leadership climate is related to self-efficacy through psychological strain. However, looking from a group perspective, leadership climate was in fact the strongest predictor of group efficacy. This places caution when research is being carried out; it is important to acknowledge whether it affects the group level or the individual level. To this point, leadership climate directly affects the group level but indirectly on the individual level with the help of certain variables.

Debates on these three constructs are still ongoing. While there is some literature which supports them as independent variable constructs (Glisson & James, 2002), other studies reported that organizational culture is the antecedent of

organizational climate since organizational culture prepared the context for organizational climate perception (Guion, 1973; Schein, 2000). Meanwhile, others explain their relationship as constant interaction with one another (Chow & Liu, 2009).

In the context of the current study, the study uses the assumption that these three constructs compete with one another. It refers to its own definitions; as organizational leadership is about the stable pattern of behaviours showed by leaders (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Engen, 2003); organizational culture is the objective rules and regulations, seen, heard and unseen on their agreed practices within the organization (Boan, 2006); whereas organizational climate is the perception of employees in the work setting based on interaction with other employees, environments and individual characteristics (Schneider, 2000). First, the thesis discusses organizational climate.

2.3 Organizational climates

In examining organizational climate, two main approaches are often used, namely the “collective” and “cognitive” approach (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003). While the collective approach considers employees’ shared perception toward their working environment, the cognitive approach focuses on individual interpretations of their working environment (James & Sells, 1981; Ostroff, Kinicki, & Tamkins, 2003). Both approaches have differences consequences. While the former uses an aggregation procedure by using a collective perception from the team, the latter relies on individual perspectives. In the context of the current study, it refers to climate as “shared perceptions of organisational policies, practices, and procedures” (Reichers & Schneider, 1990, p. 22).

Although several specific facet climates within an organization have emerged in literature (Kuenzi, 2008, Yulita, Idris & Dollard, in press), the current study only

emphasizes three specific facet climate constructs, namely PSC, team climate, and trust climate.

2.3.1 Psychosocial safety climate

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC, Dollard & Bakker, 2010) is a recent organizational climate emerging in literature. It is derived from the concept of “safety climate” (Zohar & Luria, 2005) which highlighted how managerial initiatives protect employees from safety hazards which then enabled safe working conditions to be created, especially in protecting employees from physical injuries. In the context of PSC, it focuses on psychological injuries such as burnout, depression, stress, and any related psychological consequences due to work (Zadow & Dollard, 2015). PSC is defined as the “policies, practices, and procedures for the protection of workers’ psychological health and safety” (Dollard & Bakker, 2010, p.580). Psychosocial safety climate consists of four components: management commitment, organizational communication, management priority, and organizational participation. According to this model, psychosocial safety climate is highly influenced by senior management, which in turn affects working conditions as they are highly responsible for the allocation of resources and establishing organizational climate (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Dollard & McTernan, 2011; Hall et al., 2010). A summary of this conceptual research is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

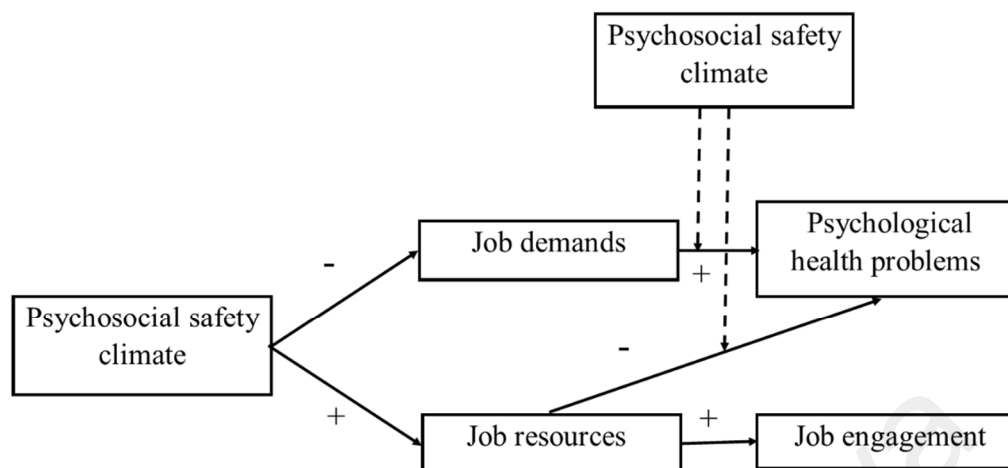


Figure 2.4. The psychosocial safety climate (PSC) model, adapted from Dollard and Bakker (2010)

Psychosocial safety climate has been investigated in different occupations such as among nurses, teachers, and mining workers (see Garrick et al., 2014; Law et al., 2011), private employees (Idris, Dollard & Yulita, 2014), police (Yulita, Idris, & Dollard, 2014) and several other occupations. It has shown that organizations that place high in psychosocial safety climate looks after the well-being of the employees, which then results in better working conditions for the employees to be in (Dollard & Bakker, 2010).

Psychosocial safety climate has been examined using integrative conceptual with the job-resource model (JD-R Model; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The JD-R model is a heuristic model which explains the impact of two specific working conditions on employees' well-being (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Job resources, defined as the "physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are either/or (1) a function in achieving goals, (2) reducing job demands and, the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (3) stimulate

personal growth, learning, and development” (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011, p. 2; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312).

By integrating PSC with the job characteristic model, it is assumed that higher levels of PSC will reduce job demands and increase job resources. Indirectly, it also reduces negative consequences at work such as burnout, depression, anger, and level of stress, and consequently increases positive work outcomes such as job engagement, job performance, and reduce turnover intention.

2.3.1.1 Outcomes of PSC

Specifically, since psychosocial safety climate looks at the health and well-being of the employees, a lot of studies which look at psychosocial safety climate investigate its relation to job demands. This study extends to negative psychological health problems such as burnout, anger, harassment, bullying, and depression (Idris et al., 2014; Law et al., 2011). Research so far supports the idea of how PSC is able to protect employees from psychological injuries. Idris, Dollard, and Yulita (2014) in their study examined the role of PSC in reducing emotional demands, emotional exhaustion, and depression in employees. There are a few recent studies that also supported the PSC framework. Studies by few researchers, such as Bond, Tuckey, and Dollard (2010); Kwan, Tuckey, and Dollard (2014), and Law, Dollard, Tuckey, and Dormann (2011) also revealed its role in countering bullying and harassment phenomena among employees.

Recently, some PSC research began to look at the positive aspects psychosocial safety climate may provide through looking at it as a providence of job resources for employees and how it serves to create a conducive working environment. In a study by Idris, Dollard, and Tuckey (2015), they explained the role of psychosocial safety climate in providing learning opportunities for employees, which

then increases their engagement and job performance. Combining job demands and job resources, psychosocial safety climate has showed to moderate the job demand-resource interaction in predicting workgroup distress (Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2012).

2.3.2 Team climate

Team climate, as defined by Edmondson (2006), is “characterised by interpersonal trust and mutual respect in which people are comfortable being themselves” (p. 355). Team climate is also defined as “the shared perception of the kinds of behaviors, practices, and procedures that are supported within a team” (Basaglia, Caporarello, Magni, & Pennarola, 2010, p. 544). Team climate is composed of participative safety, support for innovation, vision, and task orientation (Anderson & West, 1998). Participative safety refers to all team members as being equally important in their contribution to the team and that this is practised safely. Support for innovation looks at supporting team members to think outside the box and to view things differently in order to have fresh ideas. Vision refers to the reason to why the team exists, where it serves to achieve the stated goals and objectives. Finally, task orientation refers to the ability of team members to carry out their work effectively in producing desired outcomes. As the world advances and acknowledges the importance of teams in organizations (Grandey & Diamond, 2010), team climate is another factor that is much highlighted in recent literature.

The concept of team climate can be discussed by using the social contagion framework (SCF; Burt, 1987). The SCF explains how the social place we live in affect our behaviors, thoughts, and emotions. Hereby, by using the SCF perspective (Burt, 1987), team climate shows a better quality relationship between one another (Herman, Dasborough, & Ashkanasy, 2008). Another related theory, optimal distinctiveness

theory (Brewer, 1991) proposed that individuals have two fundamental and competing needs, the first is the need to be included in the group and the second is the need to be different through association with distinctive groups. While this was only proposed in the social context, other research has placed such theories into an organizational context. Employees as individuals need to feel that they belong within the group, in addition to feeling their unique role in determining group performance.

A high team climate should contain both a social context and task context (Shore et al., 2010). Social context explains that the close bonding between the individual and the team members, while the task context explains the significance of carrying out or completing a task within the group (Correll & Park, 2005). More in depth, uniqueness hereby denotes each team member contributing to work outcomes through complementary hard work, special skills, abilities, and talents, in addition to allowing their voice and opinions to be heard (Hornsey & Hogg, 1999). This acknowledges one as an individual, in which he/she is appreciated, alongside the contribution and efforts put into the team. This shows exclusion to be similar to the social context while uniqueness is similar to the task context, while not all are to be credited to just tasks.

2.3.2.1 Outcomes of team climate

Like PSC, team climate also contributes to positive aspects of work such as higher level of in-role and extra-role performance, higher level of job satisfaction, and lower turnover (Goh & Eccles, 2009; Kivimaki, Vahtera, Elovainio, Virtanen, & Siegrist, 2007; Lemieux-Charles & McGuire, 2006). Studies also revealed a higher level of team climate and individuals were also reported to have better mental health compared to individuals who are working in a low team climate (Bower, Campbell, Bojke, & Sibbald, 2003; Sinokki et al., 2009). Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, &

Schaufeli, (2012) explained the process of how a high team climate leads to higher job performance. Teams in high team climates often have team members who are highly engaged in their work, as the team possesses plenty of social resources, namely teamwork, high collaboration, and support for one another.

Cole, Walter, and Bruch (2008) discovered that when team members showed dysfunctional team behavior, any behaviour that intended to impair the functioning of the team, affected team performance. It was worse still when non-expressive negative affect was present among the team members. Such a team climate not only affects individuals but also the team. This highlights the importance of looking at not only the organizational climate, but also the leadership climate and how it affects the team climate. While studies have looked at the effects of team climate on its team members, there is a lack of looking at the motivational states as mediators between team climates to team members' outcomes (Chen & Kanfer, 2006; Hackman, 1992).

2.3.3 Management in trust climates

Trust climate is a multilevel construct that describes the perception of trust between employees, teams, as well as organizational and inter-organizational. A high trust climate denotes the willingness of one party to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustor, given that the party is competent, open, concerned, and reliable (Chathoth, Mak, Jauhari, & Manaktola, 2007, p. 340).

Literature on trust have often linked trust primarily within the leadership and team member context (i.e. Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015; Hsieh & Wang, 2015; Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012); however, the dynamic interaction of trust is more than that. Literature on trust in the workplace often focuses on four areas: trust among co-workers (Lehmann-Willenbrock, Lei, & Kauffeld, 2012), trust in the leader (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), trust in employees

(Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014), and trust in management (Den Hartog, Schippers, & Koopman, 2002). For example, Lau and Liden (2008) studied trust among co-workers, which showed that co-workers showed a higher level of trust in one another in the conditions when the leader's trust was also high. In relation to trust in the leader, Payne (2014) showed that when employees trust their leaders, they showed higher levels of voicing out their dissents instead of concealing them, and the leader viewed such behavior as positive, whereas a study on trust in employees showed that higher fairness is perceived in leaders who have high trust in employees (Seppala, Lipponen, & Pirttila-Backman, 2012).

Trust affects employees cognitively and affectively (Kramer, 2010). While affect-based trust may be more relevant to look at regarding safety issues, cognition-based trust would be more appropriate as it is cognitively evaluated when trust is issued in leadership-followership context on the ability to carry out the tasks given upon the trust put on. When there is a high trust level between each other, an individual will rationally trust the other individual to be able to carry out the tasks. High trust levels between one another also allows employees to be caring and unselfish toward others. To what extent trust exists and is initiated through organizational structure and leadership behaviors remains unanswered (Conchie, Taylor, & Donald, 2011). Indirectly, it suggests that management plays a major role in relation to trust.

2.3.3.1 Outcomes of management trust climate

Trust is often a feature within an organizational context such as in a transformational style which drives job performance (Boies, Lvina, & Martens, 2010). The higher the levels of trust among team members, the more sharing and participation is in the decision-making processes among team members, which then results in higher team performance (Mehra, Simon, Dixon & Robertson, 2006).

The mechanism behind how high levels of trust lead to higher levels of job performance is engagement (Downey, van der Werff, Thomas, & Plaut, 2015; Hsieh & Wang, 2015), empowerment (Gomex & Rosen, 2001; Moye & Henkin, 2006; Ugwu, Onyishi, & Rodriguez-Sanchez, 2014), and higher level of communication (MacKenzie, 2010; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). Empowerment itself carries the indirect sharing of power where employees are trusted to do their job without scrutiny (Gomex & Rosen, 2001). Empowerment is also a cognitive aspect of employees in which they find value in their work and believe in their capacity to carry out their work, their energy level in doing the tasks, and the positive outcomes they can achieve (Spreitzer, 1996). Hence, the presence of trust empowers employees, and indirectly employees are willing to put extra effort to achieve task goals (Fukuyama, 1995). The presence of trust also allows them to be more engaged at work (Downey et al., 2015). The mechanism behind such outcomes is due to the sharing of responsibility on the same platform. Employees who have high levels of trust between one another also tend to be highly engaged (Ugwu et al., 2014).

Trust is also important in positive relationship between people (Lane, 1998). When there is a high level of trust, employees tend to be more open, honest, and supportive of one another. Communication levels will increase which allows higher involvement at work and high quality exchanges of information between one another and becomes an effective tool in ensuring effectiveness in reaching organizational objectives (Moye & Henkin, 2006; Thomas, Zolin, & Hartman, 2009). Curseu and Schruijer (2010) did an experiment on trust among 897 students who were placed within 174 teams. In their study, the researcher found that trust serves an important role in ensuring team effectiveness. It is indeed useful even when conflicts arise. Thus in this study it is assumed that those within the same group would possess higher levels

of trust among their group members compared to trust given to members from other groups.

A lack of trust brings about negative consequences. It increases suspicion between one another, displays a lack of justice among employees and unfair treatment, and reduces the level of communication and openness (Detert & Burris, 2007; Kassing, 1998). Such interactions increase confusion and doubt around completing tasks and hampers progress. More importantly, a lack of trust shows a toxic environment that greatly reduces productivity (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

The above studies seem to show that trust is an important element in ensuring employees perform well at work. It also shows how relevant trust is to organizations that are to survive within this competitive business environment (Ferres, Firms, & Travaglione, 2000). Moreover, it seems to show that it may function on an organizational level, where the agreed perception of trust is constantly sensed and perceived by the employees within the organization through their interactions and communication with one another (Kassing, 2000).

Next, the thesis discusses hierarchical organizational culture.

2.4 Organizational culture

Organizational culture has been defined in several ways. Prominent cultural researcher Hofstede (1998) defined organizational culture as an assumed characteristic of an entire organization. Unlike Hofstede, other scholars emphasize individual perceptions their organization. For example, Boan (2006, p. 51) defined organizational culture as “the shared beliefs, perceptions, and expectations of individuals in organizations”. Similarly, Aiman-Smith (2004, p. 24) defines organizational culture as “basic assumptions and values taught to new members in how the employees should perceive, think, feel, behave and expect others of within the organization.”

When referring to organizational culture, values play an important role in determining that culture. Values, as such, become the guiding principles and way of life in terms of how organizations conduct its daily operations which are to be perceived well by the employees (Vveinhardt & Nikaitė, 2008). Over time, values become an important factor in the life of the individual as well as the organization (Vveinhardt, 2007). Studies have shown that congruency between organizational culture and employees' values produced positive outcomes (Amos & Weathington, 2008). Organizational culture is also suggested to be presented clearly and defined well so that employees understand it (Vveinhardt & Gulbovaitė, 2012). Cultural values are often associated with the socio-demographic variables presented within a society (Leong, Bond, & Fu, 2004).

Another criterion of looking at organizational culture is that it is the identity of the organization, the culture commonly held across different groups and organizational levels (Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011). Gardner (1945) first proposed culture from an organizational perspective, modifying the study of culture in a general social environment. While it went through unpopularity and then popularity again in the 1980s, different concepts of organizational culture have emerged.

One of the famous constructs in measuring organizational culture is the competing value framework (CVF; Cameron & Quinn, 1999). It uses a 2×2 and categorizes culture into four quadrants which is separated by one axis from internal focus on the left to external focus on the right and another axis from flexibility on top to stability at the bottom (see Figure 4). External focus is defined as an organization that puts their focus on outside factors, while internal focus is defined as organization putting more focus on the employees and factors within the organization. Flexibility is defined as there being no distinct rule in the way things work in organizations, while

stability is defined as being authoritarian and where most direction is given by a higher authority and there is an expectation that others will obey. From there, four quadrants will appear, namely, the collaborate quadrant, which lies between flexible and internal focus; the create quadrant, which lies between flexibility and external focus; the control quadrant, which lies between internal focus and stability; and compete quadrant, which lies between external focus and stability. Hierarchical organizational culture lies in the third quadrant, which is the control quadrant. Figure 2.5 illustrates the CVF model.

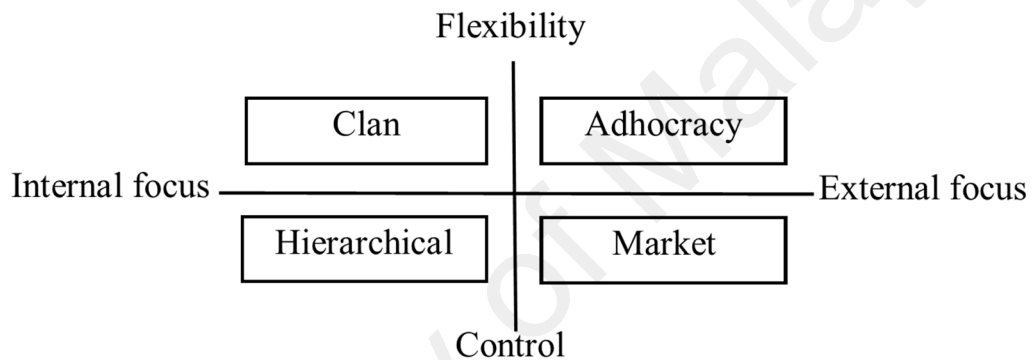


Figure 2.5. Competing Values Framework, adapted from Cameron and Quinn (1999)

The bottom left, the control quadrant, also is called the hierarchy. The characteristics of this quadrant are incremental, focusing on assessing and measuring, controlling processes, structuring, efficiency improvement and quality enhancement. The key phrase is “doing things right”. Types of leaders that exist in this quadrant include the coordinator, mentor, and organizer. Values that such a quadrant cherishes include efficiency, timeliness, consistency, and uniformity. The theory behind this quadrant is emphasis on control and efficiency with capable processes in producing effectiveness. Types of leaders that exist in this quadrant include the hard-driver, competitor, and producer. Values that such quadrant cherishes include market shares,

goal achievement and profitability. The theory behind this quadrant is emphasis on aggressively competing and is customer focused in order to produce effectiveness. The four quadrants also show opposite characteristics such as “collaborate”, which is the opposite of market and “create”, which is the opposite of control.

Social cognitive theory (SCT; Bandura, 2008) also speaks on how one constructs his/her perception which leads to individual outcomes. Many studies have based using that approach on conducting outcomes in the workplace. However, social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) presented its view from an environmental perspective. Since individuals are surrounded by their environment, the behaviors exhibited are also influenced by the environment. Group effect theory also proposed that one’s behavior does not depend solely on their own attributes and perceptions, but also through that of their group members (Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicky, 2006). Tracing back Mischel’s (1977) theory of interactionalism, which stated that situation conveyed a strong cue for desired behavior, this may note that such a revelation isn’t a new one, and it can be examined side by side with social information processing theory. Taking this into perspective, the upper level influence uses social information processing theory and group effect theory as its main theories.

2.4.1 Hierarchical organizational culture

One type of organizational culture that been used in the current study is hierarchical organizational culture. Hierarchical organizational culture was coined by Cameron and Quinn (1999) as a culture that emphasizes stability, inward focus, system orientation and high levels of internal maintenance (Cameron et al., 2007). More specifically, hierarchical organizational culture looks at six dimensions, where: (i) it is a very formalized and structured place with mainly bureaucratic procedures; (ii) the leaders are coordinators, organizers, and efficient-oriented; (iii) there is a careful

monitoring of performance, longevity in position and a lot of predictability; (iv) there are many rules and policies; (v) it emphasizes permanence and stability within the organization and, (vi) success is defined through the basis of efficiency.

An organizational culture and leadership become congruent when the leadership style is equated with the organizational culture; it then can be implied that a hierarchical culture is equated with strategic or organizational leaders who are logical, cautious, decision makers, and predictable in ensuring the operation of the organization (Giberson et al, 2009).

Hereby, in looking between transformational and empowering leadership styles for organizational leaders, while it is hierarchical, Malaysia still maintains a high level of social relationships in which maintaining personal relationships plays an important role in a collectivistic society (McClelland, 1975). Putting it into the context of organizational culture by Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI; Cameron & Quinn, 1999) where hierarchical organizational culture implies a very top-bottom hierarchy system whereby authority is very much valued and cherished, and all processes are to go through a very systematic procedure without any being questioned or opinions being able to voice out, this organizational culture may best represent the type of organizational culture that is in Malaysia.

2.4.1.1 Outcomes of hierarchical organizational culture

Culture conveys values and expected behaviors among its employees (Schein, 2004). A good culture normally supports adaptability (Baker, 1980). Hierarchical culture in the dimension of internal focus and rigidity doesn't allow much freedom for its employees. Indirectly, it does not show much adaptability in the face of current world change. Hierarchical culture appreciates predictable behaviors over unpredictable behaviors, which is very much needed in today's world. Hierarchical

culture is also regarded as a strong culture due to the high centralization and formalization structure (Martins & Martins, 2003). This creates a high level of imbalance power that may result in misuse and abuse of power (Harrison & Stokes, 1992).

Scholars such as Abdullah (1996) and Hostede and Hofstede (2005) identified characteristics of the Malaysian workplace as collectivistic, high power distance, relationship oriented, and hierarchical. While it is hierarchical, Malaysia still maintains high levels of social relationship in which maintaining personal relationship plays an important role in a collectivistic society (McClelland, 1975). It can be reasoned that the higher management would restrict the level of communications among employees so that information is only available to a select few and that the higher management holds authority in the information exchange pathway within the organization (Friebel & Raith, 2004). Hence, employees won't be able to obtain information and process matters better to make evaluation and judgement. In turn, they get to safeguard their power while enabling employees to perform as expected (Magee & Galinsky, 2008).

Although hierarchical culture has showed some positive sides, such as better job performance in some studies (see Iivari & Huisman, 2007), it mostly revolves around organizations or positions which require high level of formality and sets of rules to follow such as in the computing and security industry (Chiu, Pan, & Wei, 2008; Goel, He, & Karri, 2011). These industries present a set of rules and expected behaviors so outcomes happen as planned. Most studies argue that the presence of imbalance authority and power may result in lower job performance (Wu & Chaturvedi, 2009). When there is an imbalance of authority, employees perceive a lack of procedural justice which then leads them to feel committed towards their work.

Studies have shown the negative aspects of hierarchical culture. For example, hierarchical culture is linked with low job performance compared to other types of organizational cultures that are more flexible (Despande, Farley, & Webster, 1993; Henri, 2006). Given that hierarchical culture may have an element of power abuse, Wei, Liu, Zhang, and Chiu (2008) did not discover the link between hierarchical culture and strategic human resource management in increasing employees' job performance. Biong, Nygaard, and Silkset (2010) added that the use of coercive power would also lead to lower levels of employee commitment.

Hierarchical culture is also negatively linked with satisfaction related to managerial decisions, practice level competitiveness, price competition, and financial capabilities (Zazzali, Alexander, Shortell, & Burns, 2007). Employees were also found to have lower levels of job satisfaction due to the restrictions given (Tsai, 2011). Hierarchical culture has also been found to affect nurses' solidarity which is an important element in the success of an organization (Cramm, Strating, & Nieboer, 2012).

This is given the reason that culture affects employee attitude which is linked to employee effectiveness through reduced level of empowerment to the employees (Gregory, Harris, Armenakis, & Shook, 2009). This is given the reason that hierarchical culture prefers behaviors that are instructed and commanded. It also did not support employee's positive attitudes at work. Frankel, Leonard, and Denham (2006) added that only organizational cultures that are beneficial to employees' well-being and functioning affect employee attitudes such as engagement. Green (2007) concluded that in the event there is a lack of fairness, there is a need for organizations to emphasize motivation and innovation with their employees so that they can perform and compete better with the outside world.

Next, the thesis discusses transformational and empowerment leadership.

2.5 Organizational leadership

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Engen (2003) defined leadership style as relatively stable patterns of behavior showed by leaders. Many studies have assigned individuals to types of leadership styles on a stable continuum based on the behaviors exhibited. The basic terms include transactional leaders, transformational leaders, and laissez-faire leaders. Rarely do we hear of an individual having two types of leadership styles. More specifically, leadership style, although appearing to be stable, contains a range of behaviors, and those behaviors are shown in different contexts or climates.

Cartwright and Zander (1968, p. 7) defines group dynamics as “field of inquiry dedicated to advancing knowledge about the nature of groups, the laws of their development, and their interrelations with individuals, other groups, and larger institutions.” Followers form a close knit bonding relationship with the leader, who then lives in that culture or comfort zone in which the leadership style is dependent on the followers’ behavior. Early suggestions might have been that followers might use the leader as a tool to achieve their desired outcome. The behavior of leaders in groups is determined not only by their own personalities, but also by the underlying needs, role expectations, and values of the group members. Using California F Scale to measure authoritarian leadership, a study by Haythorn, Couch, Haefner, Langhem, and Carter (1956) for example showed similarities between leadership and fellowship. In other words, leaders who were high in authoritarian were favored more by followers with high authoritative characteristics as well. In addition, followers in homogeneously composed groups also had higher drive for goal achievement compared to a heterogeneous group. This research also provides a clear demonstration

that assessments of new leaders' behavior are subject to an appraisal that is clouded by observers' status perceptions and attributions (Sauer, 2011).

Leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) looks at the quality of relationship between the leaders and the followers. High LMX has been linked to higher organizational citizenship behaviour and job performance (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Leadership styles such as transformational leadership and ethical leadership have shown to exhibit high level of LMX while transactional leadership has showed low level of LMX (Lee, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2011).

2.5.1 Transformational leadership

The concept of transformational leadership was first coined by Burns (1978). In the earlier stages of the study, Burns (1978) initially conceptualised transformational leadership as *"the process in which leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation"*. However, the concept of transformational leadership only became a popular topic when Bass (1985, 1998) proposed a new idea around this concept. In his view, Bass (1985, 1998) elaborated transformational leadership as leader behavior that establishes oneself as a role model by gaining the trust and confidence of followers. Transformational leadership style is characterised by four components which includes intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation and idealized influence (Bass, 1985).

Intellectual stimulation is referred to when the leader encourages and challenges the follower to engage in mind thinking and find alternative solutions to the task at hand by empowering them and providing them with levels of confidence and trust. Individualized consideration is when leaders do not equate everyone as the same, yet respect and acknowledges employees' strengths and weaknesses by giving

them appropriate tasks for them to handle and making them special in their contribution to the organization. Inspirational motivation is a characteristic within a leader in which he/she inspires the followers to have a vision in their work such that they are motivated to achieve those goals. Idealized influence is when the leader serves as a role model for the followers in a positive way. Such a leadership style inspires positive changes in those who follow, and as such garners trust, respect, and admiration from their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2008).

2.5.1.1 Outcomes of transformational leadership

Several positive outcomes resulted from transformational leadership. Scholars believe that transformational leadership places emphasis on unifying employees to be cohesive in reaching the same goals (Hoyt & Blascovich, 2003). In the presence of the leader's support, collectivism within the team and low power distance between the leader and the followers, facilitates team support. Moreover, such working climates moderated the negative aspects of job enrichment (Drach-Zahavy, 2004). This depicts that support given by the leader also influences the support the team members give to one another, not only in terms of getting work done but also the emotional aspects of it, as well as enhancing team cohesiveness.

It was found that leaders who possessed a transformational leadership style had higher ratings on their levels of influence and team performance. Small and Rentsch (2010) found if leaders provided their employees with higher decision-making opportunities, team performance also increased. This is due to the strong sense of cohesion between team leader and team members.

Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros (2007) conducted a study among healthcare workers and found that most employees usually experienced more negative emotions when dealing with the leader. However, they found out that employees who had a high

transformational leader experienced more positive emotions in general. Positive mood is associated with creativity and task performance. It also influences motivation and effort of the employees, employees' cooperation, contextual performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, subjective well-being and finally, effective leadership. Aspects of transformational leadership such as idealized influence and inspirational motivation could facilitate positive emotions in employees (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Bono & Ilies, 2006).

Sy, Cote, and Saavedra (2005) examined the importance of the influence leaders have on followers in general from a mood perspective. They found out that when the leader was in a positive affect state and the affective tone of the leader was positive, the followers would also display such a mood. Such an environment will be conducive to a better working environment and indirectly a better work outcome. Even more, those in such a working environment showed better coordination in work processes and the leader expended less effort, of the same outcome, in ensuring all operations went smoothly. Compare this to those whose leader had a bad mood and negative affective tone, which resulted in the follower having the same attributes as well. At a more micro-perspective, Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2009) noticed the crossover effects of job engagement, particularly vigor from one employee affecting the performance of the other employee. However, such a result can only be obtained when communication levels are high.

Boies, Lvina, and Martens (2010) discovered that self-efficacy and trust were positively and significantly correlated to transformational leadership, which were negatively correlated with passive avoidant leadership and also negatively correlated to team performance. In conclusion, the higher the transformational leadership style

in a leader, the higher is the trust among the members and also the higher is the team performance.

The other scholars try to explain how transformational leaders influence team and individual level outcomes. For example, in their study Wang and Howell (2010) found transformational leadership had influence on both levels; it was positively associated with followers' task performance and higher personal initiation on the individual level, while on the team level, it was positively associated with team performance and helping behavior among team members. Qualities of transformational leaders include communicating high expectations, providing development opportunities, encouraging intellectual stimulation, and recognizing good work (Wang & Howell, 2010).

Transformational leaders also represent a vision leader's characteristics, emphasize team identity, communicating a team vision and emphasizing team-building. Liao and Chuang (2007) also discovered that employees who have transformational leaders showed better performance in services sector. Moreover, the climate was positive enough where clients of the organizations could sense it.

Uhl-Bien, Maslyn, and Ospina (2011) examined the relationship between the employer and the team members. It was supported that effort needs to be put in the relationship between the employer and the team members. Outcomes include higher levels of affect for one another, higher loyalty, respect, contribution to work, and more effort in meeting set expectations. However, it is noted that the effort needs to be a two-way communication. One-way communication would be detrimental to the whole relationship and also the outcomes. This showed that a good relationship between the employer and the team members is needed.

2.5.2 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership often is mentioned in comparison to transformational leadership. It contains two main components which are contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Bass, 1990). Contingent reward hereby means that the leader uses recognition and rewards as motivational forces to the employees. Most often, it involves expected outcomes when one does a required amount of work. Active management by exception means that the leader observes employees' behaviour and will take corrective action when it is necessary. Passive management by exception means that the leader is not proactive in his/her behaviour and will not assist the employees in any way unless emergencies arise and actions need to be taken (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

While this type of leadership may establish clear rules and expectations for the employees to achieve, they do not touch on employees' needs or wants. The main focus of transactional leadership is for employees to carry out the required tasks without the leader or management side having to put in extra effort into assisting them to reach organizational objectives (Hater & Bass, 1988). This becomes more apparent when such leadership style segregates the in-group from the out-group where members from the in-group are more favoured as compared to the members from the out-group (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). In other words, members from the in-group may obtain more recognition and reward which do not necessarily matches with the amount of work that they have put in. Similarly, members from the out-group may be neglected or are under recognized or under rewarded. Given two distinctive groups, reasons encompass preserving self-esteem of the group, maintaining group pride, normative pressure from within the group and group

member empathy display, will exhibit competitive nature and negative emotions between intergroup (Lickel, Miller, Stenstrom, Denson, & Schmader, 2006).

Masllyn and Uhl-Bien (2011) looked at the relationship between the employer and the subordinates. It was supported that effort is needed to be put in the relationship between the employer and the subordinates. Outcomes include higher level of affect for one another, higher loyalty, respect, contribution to work and more effort in meeting expectations set. However, such attributes may not be seen in transactional leadership. The process of having voice heard and is treated equally will indirectly lead employees to become more accommodative and less argumentative, which creates a harmonious environment in the organization (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006).

2.5.2.1 Outcomes of transactional leadership

Transactional leadership has showed its role in achieving organizational objectives. For example, transactional leaders make sure that the employees comply and follow rules set in safety related industry such as oil rigs (Clarke, 2013). This is important to prevent unnecessary accidents or loss of lives. However, transactional leadership rarely touches on the needs of employees such as the need for empowerment or self-efficacy needs, resulting in most employees under this leadership style to be less motivated and are not creative in solving problems (Jung, 2001; Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010; Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008).

When there is a lack of empowering element within transactional leadership, it may suggest a low justice climate perception for employees under transactional leadership. Boudrias, Brunet, Morin, Savoie, Plunier, and Cacciatores (2010) studied the influence of supervisor empowering managerial practises on employee

behavioural empowerment. Employees with low empowerment behaviour tend to rate the justice climate as low. Employees exhibited higher level of empowerment behaviour in the presence of a supportive climate and when justice climate perception was high.

Understanding that cooperation plays an important factor between the leader and the employees (O'Connor & Jackson, 2010), transactional leadership had a higher negative rating on their levels of influence (Resick, Whitman, Weingarden, & Hiller, 2009). This means that employees may not see their leader as someone who is willing to listen to suggestions. In relation to both empowerment and cooperation, Erdogan and Bauer (2010) found higher leader-member exchange in environment where there is high empowerment, high justice climate, high resources and support given. All of this shows a lacking of such qualities in transactional leadership.

2.5.3 Empowering leadership

While transformational leadership has been investigated for many decades, other leadership styles have come to the fore, and one of them is empowering leadership (Burke et al., 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Empowering leadership refers to how a leader delegates his/her power, authority, decision making and competency onto the members in the team (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2010). With such, the leader also expects a level of self-management, thinks independently, sees problems as challenges, seeks out opportunities for learning, has self-confidence and hold themselves accountable for the actions and decisions which they have done, and acknowledges and self-rewards their efforts (Burke et al., 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Empowering leadership encompasses three main features: participative decision making, informing, and coaching (Ahearne, Matthew, & Rapp, 2005). In other words, employees under empowering leadership are allowed to make informed decisions

together and to help one another (Colquitt, 2001). It shows a high level of cohesiveness and collaboration between the leader and the employees.

Although transformational and empowering leadership may share similarities, especially as both give autonomy to employees and that they are new-genre leadership styles (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014), but Pearce et al. (2003) argue that there are different constructs. The difference between transformational leadership and empowering leadership is due to transformational leadership focusing attention on the leader's ability to influence the team members, while empowering leadership places its attention onto the team members. Through the focus of leader or the team members, the leadership style states the more important element in the relationship. In transformational leadership, the credit is given to the leader and his/her charisma while in empowering leadership the credit is given to the team members (Tekleab et al, 2009). Transformational leadership may pay attention to the team members, but their focus is targeted on the leader's goals and the team's cohesiveness in reaching the objectives set, so again, the focus is placed on them. Empowering leadership is more narrowly focuses their attention on self-leadership by the team members, and teaching, and guiding them on those skills in order to increase their capabilities. Empowering leadership, however, focuses on the self-development of the team members (Pearce et al, 2003). Recognizing the capability and ability of team members, the leader places confidence in the team members' ability in carrying out work and reaching the objectives.

2.5.3.1 Outcomes of empowering leadership

Several outcomes have been found to be related to empowering leadership such as employee performance level (Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Manz & Sims, 1984), organizational performance level (Carmeli, Schaubroeck, & Tishler,

2011), high accountability (Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul, 2011), job engagement (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012), high levels of participation in decision making (Short, 1998), affective commitment (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013), creativity (Dong, Liao, Chuang, Zhou, & Campbell, 2015), and innovation (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011). This is due to the empowerment that is provided to the employees. When a leader is able to empower the employees, such an environment can give a powerful effect on the team's attitude, behavior, cognition, and performance (Pearce, Hoch, Jeppesen, & Wegge, 2010). Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) defined empowerment as similar to autonomy and independence. A person who is empowered is self-motivated and believes in his/her ability to complete the task successfully.

There have been studies looking at how an empowering leadership style can increase performance levels among employees (Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Manz & Sims, 1984). This is due to the fact that these leadership styles appreciate the talents, abilities, and capabilities of everyone and makes use of them through synergy. Those who had shared leadership possessed increased similarity in their mental model of the team. There was also an increase in engagement in the team climate even though there was a difference in the amount of knowledge across team members (Bonito, 2004; Miles & Kivlighan, 2008). Though it has to be recognized that job engagement is not a consistent long-term display of behavior, but is a dynamic motivational state and is influenced by daily moods which can be either positive or negative (Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, & Kuhnel, 2011).

In relation to empowering leadership, the characteristics are providing autonomy, decision making, personal control, and self-leadership; it is also designed to exist in a high demand high resource context in producing positive outcomes.

Shared leadership has been found to be significantly related to team performance, as there is more sharing and participation in the decision-making processes among team members (Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006). Empowering leadership has also showed to contain elements of trust, similar to transformational leadership (see Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Zhang & Zhou, 2014). It is highlighted that leaders who use the empowering style trust their employees in carrying out tasks through empowering their employees. In addition, Gao, Janssen, and Shi (2011) showed that employees rated their ability to voice out as higher under high empowering leadership as compared to those under low empowering leadership.

Empowering leadership showed a better influence on positive outcomes (Lorinkova, Pearsall, & Sims, 2012) such as helping team members to self-learn, coordinate, feel empowered and develop mentally in the process of making decisions and executing their autonomy and skills, especially when empowerment can account for a 30% variance in team learning behavior (Burke et al., 2006). This also indirectly translates to the importance of leadership styles in influencing the self-regulation behavior within the team member which also results in the outcomes of the team and individuals. What can be concluded from the above is that empowering may be a positive contributor to both job demand and job resource and over time, empowering leadership showed a higher level of team members' well-being.

Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, and Paul (2011) showed how empowering leadership led to individual empowerment, provided that the individual is present in a high accountability context. In relation to job characteristics model, this does not resemble the JD-R model, which shows support for low demand and high resources in producing positive outcomes while JD-C shows support for both high demand and high resources in producing positive outcomes.

Tuckey, Bakker, and Dollard (2012) in their study discovered interactions between high demand and high resources resulting in higher job engagement level. The study expanded the typical job characteristic in relation to job engagement to the leadership context, specifically, empowering leadership. The study showed high empowering leadership, even in conditions of high cognitive demand and induced a high level of engagement level compared to low empowering leadership. This denoted the ability of the empowering leader in delegating leadership skills amongst team members which created a motivational force both extrinsic and intrinsic so that they can engage in their work.

Next, the thesis highlights some issues about levels of analysis around the discussed constructs.

2.6 Outcomes vs. mediation processes

Studies have shown how job resources lead to higher job performance (i.e. Hochwarter, Laird, & Brouer, 2008). While looking at work outcomes may assist in understanding organizational behavior, it has its limit. It does not show the processes within the individual, neither does it assist in understanding the whole story.

The mediation process is a way of understanding the mechanism of how an issue works, in addition to looking at the causal processes in between (von Eye, Mun, & Mair, 2009; Shrout, 2011). While engagement and burnout has been stated as outcomes for job resources and job demand (see Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010), engagement and burnout are also seen as the processes within the individual, which includes the cognitive and mental aspects. Recent literature is beginning to observe how engagement and burnout becomes a mediator in the relationship between job resources and work outcomes (i.e. personal initiative, job performance) (see Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2003; Nahrgang, Morgeson, Hoffman, & Kozlowski, 2011).

Previous literature has started to integrate mediation analyses in their overall analyses when conducting studies involving organizational contexts (i.e. Wheeler, Harris, & Sablinski, 2012; Yuan, Li, & Tetrick, 2015).

In explaining how job resources may translate to better job performance, the literature has investigated their relationships in different ways. Job resources have showed numerous positive relationships to job engagement and job performance. For example, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that job engagement mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions. Salanova, Agut, and Peiro (2005) further supported the positive effects organizational resources have on employees' job engagement and job performance through the sequential equation modeling technique. Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) also reaffirm the relationship through finding engagement to be a mediator between organizational support, a type of job resources, and two job performance indicators, which were task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Engagement was also found to be a more important mediator as compared to other indicators such as intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction, in leading to higher levels of job performance. This may be explained using theory of conservation where job resources and job engagement positively reinforce each other over time (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

Hence, by having the current approach in understanding the mechanism of job resources, the study also adds on with the inclusion of organizational contexts, through acknowledging the roles they play in affecting employees' outcomes, especially through job resources and job engagement (see Boudrias, Desrumaux, Gaudreau, Nelson, Brunet, & Savoie, 2011). More importantly, without mentioning the specificity of job resources, it would be difficult to consider the relationships between the proposed model as mentioned in Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. This is because different

job resources have shown different roles and functions (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Since the research also takes into consideration the mediation process, it is only worthy to investigate pathways organizational contexts may provide.

2.7 Conclusion

Based on the literature, it is clear that organizational contexts play a role in affecting working conditions which includes job resources and job demands. In my studies, the proposed organizational contexts include psychosocial safety climate, team climate, management trust climate, transformational leadership, empowering leadership, and hierarchical organizational culture. The proposed job resources in my research include personal development, role clarity, performance feedback, and work meaningfulness. The proposed outcomes of working conditions include engagement, burnout, personal initiative, job performance, and sleeping problems. Building upon the JD-R model, the current research also focuses on the mediating effects of job resources and job engagement in relation to organizational contexts and work outcomes. The moderating effect was also tested to see the compatibility between two organizational contexts (i.e. hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership) on work outcomes.

CHAPTER 3

Article one

Psychosocial Safety Climate versus Team Climate: The Distinctiveness between the Two Organizational Climate Constructs

Abstract

The importance of organizational climates in enhancing employee job performance is well studied in the literature. In this study, by using a multilevel survey, the study investigated the effect of psychosocial safety climate (PSC) and team climate on job performance, particularly through job engagement. The study also predicted that only PSC (and not team climate) predicted job resources (i.e. role clarity and performance feedback). A total of 412 employees from 44 teams (72.6% response rate) in Malaysian private organizations participated in the current study. Research findings revealed that performance feedback and role clarity mediate the relationship between PSC and job engagement, and that there is no direct effect between the variables, team climate and job resources. As expected, the study also discovered that job engagement mediates the relationship between PSC and team climate on job performance. This suggests the importance of PSC as the precursor to better working conditions (i.e. job resources) and to indirectly boosting employees' engagement and job performance.

Keywords: psychosocial safety climate, team climate, role clarity, engagement, multilevel

3.1 Introduction

Since the introduction of the concept of organizational climate in the 1970s, several types of organizational climate have emerged in the literature (Kuenzi and Schminke, 2009; Schneider et al., 2011), each of which has its own specific facets and outcomes. In the current study, we compare two important climate constructs that are commonly investigated in the literature, specifically, psychosocial safety climate (PSC) versus team climate. Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is defined as the “policies, practices, and procedures for the protection of worker psychological health and safety” (Dollard and Bakker, 2010, p.580). Team climate is defined as the shared perceptions among the “proximal work group” consisting of vision, participatory safety, task orientation, and support for innovation (Anderson and West, 1998; Basaglia et al., 2010).

In general, PSC places attention on the employee’s psychological health and well-being (Law et al., 2011) and is considered to be a specific climate construct that is a precursor to job characteristics (i.e. job demands and job resources). Dollard and Bakker (2010), in their seminal research, theorized that PSC is derived from management prioritization of employees’ well-being and its enactment of these priorities through working conditions. Thus, when the level of PSC is high in organizations, management is likely to create working conditions that are conducive to employees’ well-being, with employees motivated and striving to achieve high performance (Idris et al., 2015). On the other hand, team climate nurtures the team process, and team members trust each other, work collectively and share a similar vision at work (Xue et al., 2011). The leadership process may strengthen a team climate among employees (Sun et al., 2014) but, unlike PSC, leadership is not part of the team climate construct. However, the term ‘team climate’ itself refers to individual

perception, behaviour and attitude among teams in the organization (Seibert et al., 2004). Although both constructs have their own unique consequences as a result of receiving specific attention, they may share some similarities. For example, both PSC and team climate may signal the presence of psychological safety in the team process that enables teamwork to achieve organizational goals effectively (Anderson and West, 1998; Dollard and Bakker, 2010). Both PSC and team climate have also been found to enhance job performance (Idris et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2014). Thus, it is important to investigate whether both PSC and team climate have their own unique features, especially in predicting employees' motivation and performance, and particularly through job resources. Although Idris et al.'s (2012) study investigated the comparison between PSC and several other climate constructs (e.g. physical safety climate, team psychological climate, and perceived organizational support) in predicting working conditions, the authors only looked at job demands, rather than the job resources variables.

The aim of the current study is to investigate the distinctiveness of PSC and team climate in relation to job resources (i.e. role clarity and performance feedback), job engagement, and job performance. As PSC and team climate are considered to be 'shared perception', a multilevel survey was utilized as it enables the detection of variation between groups. We tested our research model in Malaysia, one of the emerging economies in Asia (Idris et al., 2010), with the view that it might provide insightful explanation about other Eastern counterparts.

Testing our research model in Malaysia was considered important as Malaysia is a country that is high in power distance, as well as a country in which a collective culture is predominant (Abdullah, 1996). While there is ample evidence in Asia about working conditions (Tsui, 2008), most of the previous studies have been conducted in

Japan, Taiwan, or China, all of which are different to Malaysia. For example, while most of these countries follow either a Buddhist or a Confucian philosophy (Idris et al., 2011), Malaysia is regarded as a modern Muslim country with Western elements passed down from the British colonial era, especially in regard to the work system. Although Malaysia is dominated by the Malay ethnic group whose religion is Islam, it also comprises other ethnic groups such as the Chinese and Indian, who freely practice Christianity, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Islam.³

This research is therefore considered to be unique as it is tested in a different culture; thus, it may provide some evidence and insights from the Eastern perspective.

The overview of the research model is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

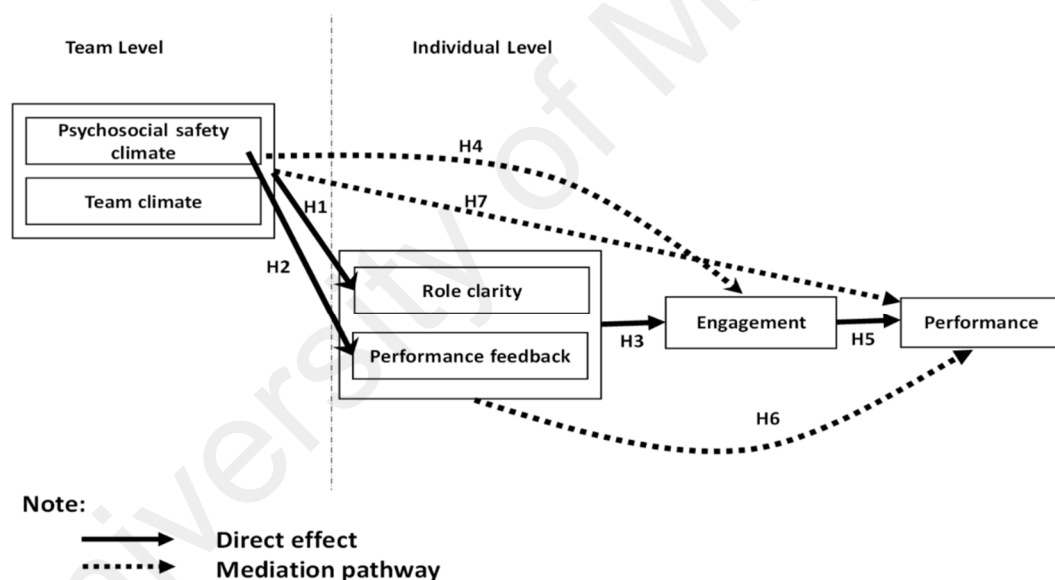


Figure 3.1. Research Model

³ Although freedom of belief is protected in Malaysia, this is only applicable to non-Malays. According to Article 160, the Federal Constitution of Malaysia, a Malay must practice Islam and remain a Muslim until his/her dying day (see Chew, 2007).

3.2 Literature Review

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) vs. team climate and its relationship to job resources

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is highly influenced by senior management which is responsible for the allocation of resources and for establishing the organizational climate (Hall et al., 2010). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), the term 'job resources' is defined as the "physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are either/or: (1) functional in achieving goals, (2) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). By using a broad definition, job resources can be anything that supports employees in completing their tasks. Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is a specific climate that is espoused by management initiative to protect employees' well-being, providing motivation that supports the needs of employees or the removal of any hindrance that may block employees in achieving their task goals (Yulita et al., 2014).

Studies to date have found that PSC increases the conducive aspects of job conditions, such as job control (Dollard & Bakker, 2010), supervisor support (Idris et al., 2010) and, more recently, learning opportunities (Idris et al., 2015). Bergeron (2007) argues that upper management sets the context of the environment that affects employee behaviour; thus, the research expects that a high level of PSC provides safe psychological working conditions that enable employees to feel they belong to their organizations. In other words, organizations with a higher level of PSC are more likely to have a clear vision of how employees are expected to behave according to organizational norms to achieve organizational goals through the management provision of the necessary job resources. The term 'role clarity' is defined as "the

extend to which individuals clearly understand the duties, tasks, objectives, and expectations of their work roles” (Kauppila, 2014). In the context of the current study, the research expects that a high level of PSC positively relates to higher role clarity.

According to the premise that caring relationships nurture meaningfulness, safety and availability, a high level of PSC supports employees to perform their work roles freely without fear of negative consequences (Kahn & Heapy, 2014). Caring organizations, such as those with a high level of PSC, will set tasks with higher clarity and employees may feel that the organization cares about their interests (Carmeli et al, 2015). This is due to the norms of PSC in that it serves as a precursor to the presence of a higher level of support to employees, rather than pressuring them with an increased amount of unnecessary demands (Idris et al, 2014).

Employees who are clear on their role within the organization are able to plan their task requirements and to carry out their work effectively (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). This then ensures that the objectives and goals of the tasks are achieved. As PSC is also a manifestation of taking care of employees’ well-being (Idris et al., 2015), giving higher priority to PSC may enable managers to reduce any hindrances at work that may put employees under pressure (Yulita et al., 2014).

Unlike PSC, team climate is “characterised by interpersonal trust and mutual respect in which people are comfortable being themselves” (Edmondson, 1999, p. 355). One important function of a team is in understanding the role of each individual. A high level of team climate allows team members to know the roles they play in the team in achieving team objectives. When there is role clarity, team members are then able to function effectively in achieving the expected work outcomes (Kleingeld et al., 2011). Role clarity in a team allows team members to be motivated in directing their attention through devising strategies to obtain desired results (Peralta et al., 2015).

Any role ambiguities would act as a constraint and stressor to team members and hamper progress of the task in hand (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Although both PSC and team climate may influence role clarity, the research expects that PSC has a stronger effect in predicting role clarity. This is due to the nature of the role of role clarity as a type of job resource. Thus, as a specific climate that clearly enhances a conducive working environment, particularly through management initiatives, PSC, and not team climate, relates more to role clarity.

Hypothesis 1: PSC (a), and not team climate (b), increases role clarity.

Performance feedback is another type of job resource (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014): it is defined as constructive feedback given by employers to their employees for the purpose of personal improvements at the workplace. This is often seen as a positive and motivating experience (Smither & London, 2009). Performance feedback sustains employees in reaching organizational performance with the necessary resources, while improving themselves personally (Spreitzer & Porath, 2012).

Performance feedback is considered to be a type of job resource as it benefits employees, serves as a positive agent and facilitates change (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). If PSC is actively pursued by management, much communication occurs between higher management and employees. Therefore, not only are employees consulted about their well-being, indirectly they are also consulted over issues that may affect their performance at work. As employees then no longer need to worry about their working environment, they can focus their energy on their performance, which includes receiving performance feedback. Having positive performance feedback also translates to a positive relationship between employees and management (Dahling et al., 2012).

The term 'team climate' relates more to team process and is not necessarily related to performance feedback. Team climate can occur without the presence of a leader or management initiatives. Thus, the research expects that performance feedback is not controlled by team members but, rather, driven by management (Durgin et al., 2014). Hence, it is expected that team climate does not lead to a high level of performance feedback.

Hypothesis 2: PSC (a), but not team climate (b), increases performance feedback.

PSC vs. team climate on job engagement

In general, job engagement is an active and positive state of mind which is characterized by vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker, 2011). The relationship between job engagement and employee performance is well documented (Harter et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011). In the broaden-and-build theory, Fredrickson (2001) described how a positive element can bring positive outcomes, such as increased productivity. When employees are engaged with their tasks, they show a higher level of job performance (Simpson, 2009). The reason is that when an individual is engaged, their energy level is high towards their tasks (Roberts & Davenport, 2002).

In the current study, the research expects that both PSC and team climate may influence employee engagement as both these climates synergize employee motivation and, indirectly, enhance performance. The reason is that both PSC and team climate may signal employees towards the achievement of organizational goals by reducing role ambiguity. In the presence of a high level of PSC, there is sufficient communication between the two parties (i.e. management and employees) (Whitaker et al., 2007), thus employees need not worry about factors which will affect their well-

being. Given the clear communication with management, employees are able to focus on their work. Hence, it is suggested that role clarity provided by a high level of PSC allows employees to focus effectively on the tasks or roles for which they are responsible.

Similarly, team climate may also boost job engagement and performance. Working in a strong team climate, objectives and goals are required to be clearly defined and focused. A high level of team climate also signifies a high level of communication between each member of the team (González-Roma & Hernandez, 2014). Findings have shown that, due to a positive team climate, engaged employees create through the expression of optimism, positive attitudes and proactive behaviours among themselves. These types of interaction, in return, foster feelings of enthusiasm and energy among team members. The integration of role clarity allows the emotional attachment of employees to the tasks in hand. This cohesion of interaction, engagement and affinity among team members, and with their responsibilities, indicates the engagement level of employees and, in turn, with their employer. Moreover, many studies directly show the positive effects of role clarity on job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour and reduced employee turnover (Hassan, 2013).

Torrente et al.'s (2012) study on a sample of 533 participants in 62 teams found that team job engagement mediated team climate and job performance. In addition, they added that a high level of team climate represents social resources for team members in performing their jobs well.

Taken together, the research thus postulates the two hypotheses below:

Hypothesis 3: Role clarity (a) and performance feedback (b) positively relate to job engagement.

Hypothesis 4: Role clarity (a) and performance feedback (b) mediate the relationship between PSC (but not for team climate) and job engagement.

PSC, team climate, job engagement and employees' performance

Studies to date have revealed how engaged employees may also perform well (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Idris et al., 2015). The reason is that when an individual is engaged, the employee feels happy to perform well and to invest their effort due to the meaningfulness of their contribution at work. The presence of job engagement involves an affective-cognitive state that is influenced by work characteristics (i.e. job resources). Theoretically, high job resources in an organization will trigger employees' job engagement (Bakker et al., 2007). In the context of the current study, the presence of high job resources, such as role clarity and performance feedback, allows employees to gather their energy and to pay attention to their tasks. This focus leads to employees engaging with their tasks affectively and effectively. On the affective aspect, employees experience positive emotions when undertaking tasks that are challenging yet rewarding. Hence, this creates a higher level of persistency within employees. The presence of role clarity and performance feedback allows individuals to increase their motivation level and perform tasks effectively (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983).

Performance feedback also allows employees to observe how they are faring in their performance which can then be improved (Renn & Fedor, 2001). It provides a platform for the team manager to assess the employee, appraise their activities and suggest measures to improve. The guidance and support provided through performance feedback allow employees to be engaged in their tasks. This reduces employees' uncertainty and ambiguity, thus helping them to achieve a higher level of job performance (Bennett et al., 1990; Smither et al., 2005).

Hypothesis 5: Job engagement positively relates to job performance.

Hypothesis 6: Role clarity (a) and performance feedback (b) increase job performance via job engagement.

As previously discussed, the research describes how both performance feedback and role clarity will boost job engagement. In addition, as PSC is a core climate construct that enables employees to feel safe, it will indirectly increase job engagement. The research also expects that both PSC and team climate will lead to job performance, particularly through job engagement. Thus, the research hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 7: PSC and team climate increase job performance via job engagement.

3.3 Method

Participants

The current study employed a cross-sectional multilevel design with 412 employees (average age=37.42 years old; standard deviation [SD]: 18.53) from 44 private organizations (72.6 % response rate) in Malaysia. Following the approach used by Idris et al. (2014), the current study used a snowball sampling method. The management from selected organizations was approached and asked to select one department from the organization. Each department was then asked to select a minimum of five employees to participate in the study. It was confirmed that their participation would be voluntary and confidential. The majority of participants were females (N=222, 53.9%), and most were Malaysians (N=398, 96.7%). Most participants were married (N=296, 71.8%), followed by those who were single (N=113, 27.4%), while the remainder were divorced (N=3, 0.7%). Participants were currently working in several types of sectors, including the service industry (65.2%)

and consumer product industry (18%), with the remainder from other industries. The number of participants per team ranged from four to 14.

Instruments

The reliability for the scales described below is as indicated in Table 1.

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is measured using 12 items with four sub-scales from Hall et al. (2010). These consist of the following: management commitment (e.g. “senior management shows support for stress prevention through involvement and commitment”); management priority (e.g. “senior management clearly considers the psychological health of employees to be of great importance”); organization communication (e.g. “information about workplace psychological well-being is always brought to attention by manager/supervisor”); and organizational participation (e.g. “in my organization, the prevention of stress involves all levels of the organization”). The reliability values for the sub-scales ranged from .81 to .88. The rating scale used was a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from ‘1’ (strongly disagree) to ‘5’ (strongly agree). This measurement has adequate psychometric properties (Hall et al., 2010).

Team climate was measured using the short version of the Team Climate Inventory (TCI-14) (Kivimaki & Elovainio, 1999). It is made up of four sub-scales: vision (e.g. “how far are you in agreement with the objectives of your work unit?”); participatory safety (e.g. “we have a ‘we are together’ attitude”); task orientation (e.g. “are members of your work unit prepared to question the basis of what the work unit is doing?”); and support for innovation (e.g. “people in this work unit are always searching for fresh, new ways of looking at problems”). Team climate was rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from ‘1’ (strongly disagree) to ‘5’ (strongly agree).

Role clarity was measured by using four items of the “role clarity” scale in the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) (Kristensen et al., 2005). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (to a very small extent) to ‘5’ (to a very large extent). An example of one item is as follows: “does your work have clear objectives?”

Performance feedback was assessed using a three-item questionnaire adapted from Bakker et al. (2003) with an example of one item as follows: “I receive sufficient information about the goal of my work”. These items were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (always).

Job engagement was measured using nine items of the short version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli et al., 2006). This consists of three sub-scales, namely: vigour (e.g. “at work I feel strong and energetic”) ($\alpha = .84$); dedication (e.g. “I am proud of the work I do”) ($\alpha = .88$); and absorption (e.g. “I get carried away while at work”) ($\alpha = .84$). Factor analysis was conducted with all nine items showing high correlations and principal component analysis showed engagement as a one-factor component.

Job performance was measured using three items from the World Health Organization (WHO) Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) (Kessler et al., 2003). These three items were rated on a scale of 1–10, ranging from ‘1’ (worst job performance any one could have) to ‘10’ (performance of a top worker).

Analysis strategy

Prior to multilevel analyses, the upper levels of PSC and team climate were analyzed to ascertain if they possessed group-level properties, and whether they could be aggregated as group-level variables. Overall, the $r(WG)(J)$ (index of agreement) value for PSC was .93, with .95 for team climate, thus indicating a high level of within-organization agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The intraclass correlation

coefficient (ICC[I]) value for PSC was .16, with .07 for team climate, thus indicating that variance in both climate constructs was due to organizational factors. Bliese (2000) suggested ICC(I) values should be between .05 and .20. The F(III) values were found to be significant (PSC=2.47, $p<.001$; team climate=1.5, $p<.05$).

To test the hypotheses, we used hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) software (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). Three types of analyses were conducted: lower-level direct effects, cross-level direct effects and mediation effects. Lower-level direct effects and cross-level direct effects were tested using Mathieu and Taylor's (2007) recommendation. Firstly, we ran the analysis for lower-level direct effects (i.e. regressing lower-level variables among lower-level variables), followed by conducting a cross-level direct effects analysis (i.e. regressing lower-level variables on PSC and team climate).

An example of a cross-level HLM equation is as follows:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Performance} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Job engagement}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{psychosocial safety climate}) + G_{01} (\text{team climate}) + u_{0j}$$

For lower-level direct effects (Hypotheses 3 and 5), the lower dependent variable was regressed on the independent variables. For example, in Hypothesis 3, job engagement was regressed on the variables, role clarity and performance feedback (see Model 3). For Hypothesis 5, job engagement predicts job performance; therefore, job performance was regressed on job engagement (see Model 1).

An example of a lower-level HLM equation is as follows:

$$\text{Job engagement} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Role clarity}) + r$$

Finally, the research followed the testing steps developed by Baron and Kenny (1986). Firstly, the research found there is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow M$ (role clarity \rightarrow engagement) (Model 3). Secondly, there is a significant relationship between $M \rightarrow Y$, in the presence of X (role clarity + engagement \rightarrow job performance) (Model 2). As indicated in Step 2, if the relationship from X to Y remains significant with the inclusion of M , then it is partial mediation. If the addition of M produces an insignificant relationship from X to Y , it is considered to be full mediation. To confirm the mediation pathway relationship, the research used the Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) as this has been suggested as more applicable for multilevel analyses. The research tested the mediation pathway by using estimates of Path a ($X \rightarrow M$) and Path b ($M \rightarrow Y$). The mediation effect is confirmed if the values of lower level (LL) and upper level (UL) do not contain zero (0) (MacKinnon et al., 2004). The Monte Carlo test was conducted using a 95% confidence interval (CI) and with 20,000 repetitions.

3.4 Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive analysis and correlations between all measures at Level 1. The results from the HLM analysis are shown in Tables 2 and 3. A summary of the findings is presented in Figure 2.

Table 3.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Pearson's Bivariate Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	α	No. of Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	F	ICC(I)
1. PSC	3.29	0.73	0.94	12	1						2.474***	0.1637
2. Team Climate	3.60	0.57	0.92	14	.59**	1					1.502*	0.0684
3. Role Clarity	3.81	0.73	0.92	10	.33**	.38**	1				2.433***	0.1763
4. Performance Feedback	3.06	0.79	0.84	3	.41**	.35**	.31**	1			2.691***	0.2050
5. Job Engagement	3.61	0.64	0.93	9	.53**	.46**	.49**	.35**	1		2.372***	0.1832
6. Job Performance	3.70	0.53	0.87	6	.39**	.36**	.40**	.29**	.56**	1	2.142***	0.1051

Notes: SD = standard deviation; ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient; PSC = psychosocial safety climate; N (individual) = 412; N (team) = 44; **p<.05; ***p<.001.

Table 3.2: Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) Analysis of Lower-Level Outcomes

Effect	Job performance	Job performance	Job performance	Job engagement
Model	1	2	3	4
Lower-Level Effects				
Job Engagement	.55(.05)***		.37(.05)***	
Role Clarity		.36(.08)***	.20(.07)**	.40(.07)***
Performance Feedback		.18(.06)**	.12(.05)***	.17(.05)**

Notes: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001; N (individual) = 412; N (team) = 44

Table 3.3: Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) Analyses of Lower-Level Outcomes and Cross-Level Effect of PSC and Team Climate on Lower-Level Outcomes

Effect	Job performance	Job performance	Job engagement	Job engagement	Job engagement	Performance feedback	Role clarity
Model	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Lower-Level Effects							
Job engagement		53(.05)***					
Role clarity				.41(.07)***			
Performance feedback					.23 (.05)***		
Cross-Level Effects							
PSC	.21(.08)**	.03(.06)	.27(.08)**	.16(.07)*	.18(.08)*	.41(.09)***	.29(.08)**
Team climate	.16(.07)*	.14(.05)*	.18(.07)*	.11(.06) ⁺	.15(.07)*	.11(.09)	.16(.08)

Notes: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error; PSC = psychosocial safety climate, N (individual) = 412; N (team) = 44; ⁺ = significant at one-tailed; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001.

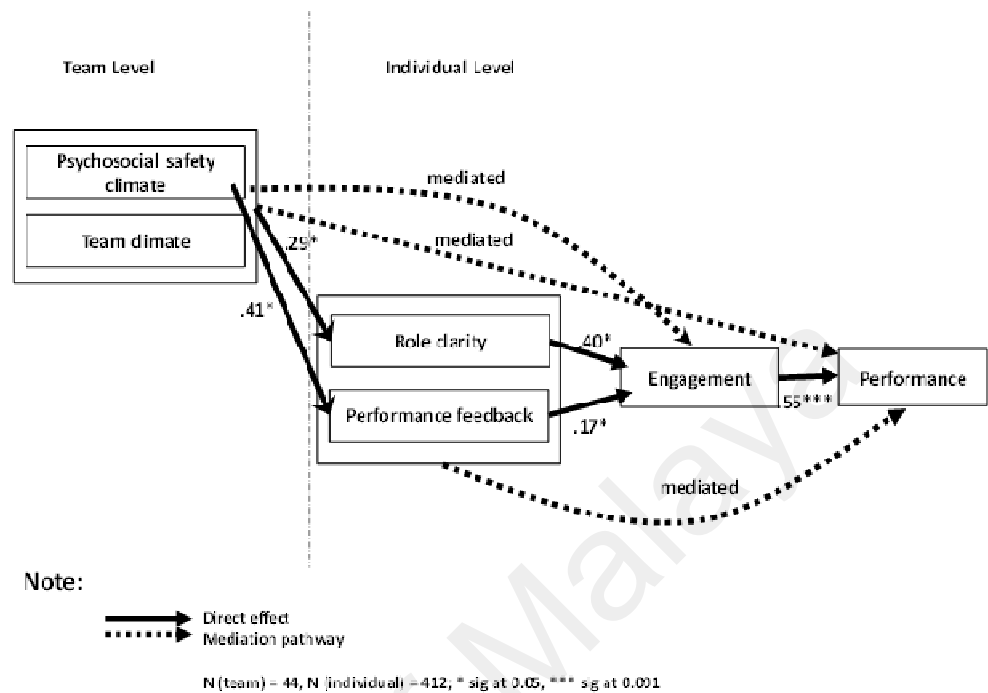


Figure 3.2. Final Model

Hypothesis 1 predicted that PSC, and not team climate, is positively related to role clarity. As indicated in Model 11, our result suggests that there is a significant cross-level effect of PSC on role clarity ($\gamma=.29$, $p<0.05$), while team climate is not associated with role clarity ($\gamma=.16$, ns [not significant]). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that PSC, but not team climate, is positively related to performance feedback. Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) was found to have a significant cross-level effect on performance feedback ($\gamma=.41$, $p<0.05$), but team climate did not have this effect on performance feedback ($\gamma=.11$, $p>.05$) (see Model 10). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that role clarity and performance feedback show positive relationships with job engagement. As indicated in Model 4, the analysis

suggests that there are positive significant relationships between role clarity ($\beta=.40$, $p<0.05$) and performance feedback ($\beta=.17$, $p<0.05$) on job engagement. Hence, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that role clarity and performance feedback mediate the relationship between PSC (but not for team climate) and job engagement. In testing the hypothesis, the conditions stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. Firstly, the research found a direct effect only from PSC→job engagement. Team climate also had a significant direct effect on job engagement (see Model 7). However, as there was an insignificant relationship from team climate to the mediator variables (role clarity and performance feedback; see Models 10 and 11), and with only PSC having a significant relationship ($X\rightarrow M$), the research only proceeded to test for the mediation effect using a path from PSC→role clarity/performance feedback→job engagement. The research analyzed a mediation effect by using the Monte Carlo test. Specifically, the research used the parameter estimate from Model 11 as the value for the direct effect from PSC to role clarity ($\gamma=.29$, $SE=.08$) and the parameter estimate for Model 8 (role clarity→job engagement; $\beta=.41$, $SE=.07$) with PSC and team climate in the model. Monte Carlo bootstrapping indicated that PSC has a significant effect on job engagement through role clarity (95% confidence interval [CI], lower level [LL]=.0504, upper level [UL]=.2037). The research repeated the same procedure to see the effect of PSC on job engagement through performance feedback. Thus, the research used the parameter estimate from Model 10 as the value for the direct effect from PSC to performance feedback ($\gamma=.41$, $SE=.09$) and the parameter estimate from Model 9 (performance feedback→job engagement) with PSC and team climate in the model ($\beta=.23$, $SE=.05$). Again, Monte Carlo bootstrapping supported the mediation process (95% CI, LL=.0434, UL=.1572).

Hypothesis 5 predicted that job engagement positively relates to job performance. The analysis found that there is a significant effect, as indicated in Model 1 ($\beta=.55$, $p<0.001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that job engagement mediates the relationship between role clarity/performance feedback and job performance. To evaluate the mediation testing, the research used the parameter estimate value for Model 4 as the value for the direct effect from role clarity/performance feedback to job engagement ($\beta=.40$, $SE=.07/\beta=.17$, $SE=.05$) and the parameter estimate value from Model 3 for job engagement \rightarrow job performance with role clarity/performance feedback in the model, ($\beta=.37$, $SE=.05$). Again, the analysis confirmed the mediation effect from role clarity to performance via job resources (95% CI, $LL=.0888$, $UL=.2169$), and the mediation effect from performance feedback to job performance via job engagement (95% CI, $LL=.0254$, $UL=.1058$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that both PSC and team climate enhance job performance, particularly through job engagement. Initially, the research found that there is a direct effect from PSC \rightarrow job performance ($\gamma=.21$, $SE=.08$) and from team climate \rightarrow job performance ($\gamma=.16$, $SE=.07$). the research used a parameter estimate from Model 7 as the value for the direct effect from PSC and team climate to job engagement ($\gamma=.27$, $SE=.08$; $\gamma=.18$, $SE=.07$), and a parameter estimate from Model 6 to estimate the relationship between job engagement and job performance to PSC and team climate in the model ($\beta=.53$, $SE=.05$). Monte Carlo analysis revealed that job engagement mediates the relationship between both PSC (95% CI, $LL=.0597$, $UL=.2348$) and team climate (95% CI, $LL=.1923$, $UL=.4527$) on job performance through job engagement. Hence, Hypothesis 7 is supported.

3.5 Discussion

This study investigated a multilevel model of two distinctive organizational climates (PSC vs. team climate). In addition, the research investigated how two types of job resources (i.e. role clarity and performance feedback) are able to increase job engagement and job performance. Overall, the research found that, although both PSC and team climate predicted job performance and job engagement, only PSC, as expected, predicted the job resources variables (role clarity and performance feedback).

Overall, all hypotheses were supported. As predicted, in comparison to team climate, the research found that PSC has a stronger effect on job resources (role clarity and performance feedback). This is expected as PSC is a job characteristic-related climate that is concerned with providing a supportive work environment. In other words, when management takes an active approach towards ensuring employees' well-being, managers are expected to provide a better level of job resources to employees (Idris et al., 2015; Law et al., 2011). As role clarity and performance feedback can enhance employees' well-being, this also represents how a higher-level PSC organization will channel a 'safety signal' to their employees by providing resources to create a working environment that makes employees feel safe and valued. This is consistent with the premise of what would be created by a caring organization.

On the other hand, team climate is only related to job performance and job engagement, but not to the predicted job resources variables. This could be through the logical assumption that the team climate itself may function as job resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Although organizational climate may be thought to refer to the upper level of the organization or to reside within its organizational properties (Anderson & West, 1998), this is not the case in the context of the current study as the

research was investigating the precursor to working conditions. Team climate itself might be considered to be part of the job resources that need to be developed from management initiatives, such as leadership (Sun et al., 2014) or psychosocial safety climate (PSC) (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). Theoretically, team climate also refers to how individuals in an organization can work together as a team (Xue et al., 2011). In the job stress literature, co-workers' support is considered to be how each member in a team supports each other (Karasek, 1979): this has been considered as a job resource in most studies (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Idris et al., 2011). In a comparison with other climate constructs, Idris et al. (2012) found that only PSC predicted job characteristics (i.e. job demands), while other competing organizational constructs (e.g. physical safety climate, team psychological climate and perceived organizational support) did not predict job demands. Thus, again, the findings support the notion that PSC is a specific organizational climate that is a precursor to working conditions.

Interestingly, although differences exist between PSC and team climate, the research found that both types of climate have been found to be triggers for the motivational level of employees. In the case of PSC, in conditions where management is concerned about employees' needs, a high level of PSC enables employees to put extra effort into completing their tasks (Idris et al., 2015). Similarly, team climate supports the work team to collectively achieve work goals and, indirectly, it stimulates job engagement and employees' job performance.

In the context of the current study, the research discovered how role clarity and performance feedback serve as mechanisms to enhance job engagement and job performance. The finding is consistent with the premise that job resources lead to job engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Role clarity and performance feedback enhance not only the increased job engagement of employees but, indirectly, they are

also related to job performance. These relationships can be explained by using social exchange theory (SET) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to SET, process-giving and process-receiving occur between employees and employers. When employees perceive that they are receiving more supportive resources from their employers, they are willing to work harder to return the positive treatment received from their employers (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Strengths and limitations

The current study has several strengths. Firstly, it is the first study to evaluate the roles of PSC and team climate in job resources. The study not only discovered that both types of climate are important to increase employees' job engagement and job performance, it also found that each has its own pathway. While PSC increases job engagement and job performance via job resources, team climate only boosts job performance through job engagement. This is important research as it has demonstrated how each organizational climate construct has its own specific facets.

Secondly, while most organizational climate studies are conducted in the Western context, the research conducted the study in Malaysia, an Eastern country. The research effort has strived to acknowledge the validity of PSC and team climate in an Eastern context. Thirdly, the research employed a multilevel approach that is considered rare in organizational research, particularly in the Eastern context. Although researchers acknowledge the importance of using the multilevel approach as best practice in organizational climate research, Clarke (2010), in her meta-analysis study, found that only 7% of organizational climate studies use a multilevel approach. Thus, the study perhaps is able to provide a new methodological approach for evaluating the effect of macro organizational factors on employees' positive outcomes. Using a multilevel approach also avoids the atomistic fallacy that tends to

occur when conducting research at the employee level, when, in fact, the phenomenon that appears among individuals is actually derived from the upper level effect (Bliese & Jex, 1999). Thus, incorporating a multilevel approach helps as an intervention strategy to focus at all organizational levels, rather than solely concentrating on employees.

However, despite the strengths of this research, the research needs to address some limitations. Firstly, although the research attempted to explain the pathway process from PSC and team climate to job performance through several mediation variables, due to the use of the cross-sectional method, the result needs to be interpreted carefully. Even though the longitudinal method is the best approach for investigating causality relationships, it is not easy to conduct a study in Malaysia using this method due to high employee turnover (Khatri et al., 2001): in addition, Malaysian employees are not keen to participate in survey research (Idris et al., 2015).

Secondly, the research relied only on self-rated questionnaires. Future research should use objective measurements which may best capture the essence of the variables, especially for job performance (Vance et al., 1988). Using supervisor ratings or actual performance assessment may fulfil this criterion. Using a multi-source evaluation is strongly recommended as it touches on real scores and not solely on an individual's perception. For example, climate could be measured using supervisor ratings, mediation variables by employees' ratings and outcome variables by objective job performance.

The snowball sampling method is common in multilevel studies (Arnauld & Schminke, 2012; Idris et al., 2014) given the restrictions that can apply in obtaining an appropriate sample from within respective teams/departmental units. Even using this method, there may be a tendency for the organizational head to choose employees

who favor the organization. However, given that there is no appropriate method, especially in Malaysia, when the response rate is relatively low and employees are not keen to be involved in a survey (Idris et al., 2015), we expect that not many issues will arise as a result of using this method.

With PSC regarded as one organizational initiative that is driven from a high level in the organization and team climate, as a climate, being concerned with team process, both PSC and team climate are considered to be crucial. This is especially the case in the Asian context which places emphasis on the power structure and on the team as a collective, rather than on individual efforts (Lu et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2005; Zhong et al., 2015). In addition, “taking care of others’ needs” is a crucial aspect for Malaysian employees (Hassan et al., 2010), and PSC, by its nature, represents a policy, driven by management, within a caring organization. The implementation of PSC in organizations is able to boost employees’ engagement and performance. This would be achievable as Asian managers always have the right to make corporate decisions (Lu et al., 2000) and would be able to align PSC with values such as interpersonal harmony and relational hierarchy. As a consequence, the implementation of PSC would lead to positive work outcomes and would enhance employees’ health.

3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the current study has shown that PSC and team climate are two positive types of organizational climate that are able to boost job engagement and job performance. However, each of these types of climate has its own route and direction. Further research could explore the possibility of PSC as an antecedent to team climate, or the interaction between them in predicting employees’ behaviour at work.

University of Malaya

CHAPTER 4

Article 2

The Effects of Psychosocial Safety Climate on Employees' Job Engagement and Personal Initiative: A Longitudinal Multilevel Study

Abstract

The existing body of studies adequately explains the influence of psychosocial safety climate (PSC) on enhancing employees' job engagement. However, the mechanism behind PSC in facilitating employees' personal initiative (PI), especially through job resources, has been inadequately investigated. Using the model of proactive motivation (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010), the research proposes an integrated multilevel model which investigates the processes involved from PSC to employees' personal initiative (PI). This study utilizes a longitudinal multilevel study amongst Malaysian private employees ($N=134$; 28 organizations) over a one-year gap. It was hypothesized that PSC increases employees' PI through job resources (i.e. personal development) and job engagement. Using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM), results reveal that PSC significantly relates to personal development, job engagement, and personal initiative (PI). In addition, personal development mediates the relationship between PSC and job engagement. The results show that although job engagement mediates the personal development and PI relationship, job engagement does not mediate between PSC and personal initiative (PI). The study suggests that PSC is an important organizational climate in enhancing employees' motivation (i.e. job engagement) and PI, particularly through personal development. Hence, it is suggested that organizations implement PSC to produce a conducive working environment for their employees.

Keywords: psychosocial safety climate, personal development, job engagement, personal initiative, Malaysia

4.1 Introduction

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is an organizational climate construct that has recently emerged in the literature. It is defined as the “policies, practices, and procedures for the protection of psychological health and safety of workers” (Dollard & Bakker, 2010, p. 580). It is argued that PSC is a crucial organizational climate that is enacted by managers to protect employees from any psychosocial harm at work, especially the threat from negative job demands as a potential cause for employees’ burnout and psychological injury (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Idris, Dollard, & Yulita, 2014). Consequently, organizations that prioritize PSC will also boost employees’ job engagement and positive work outcomes, such as productivity and job performance, by providing job resources (Idris, Dollard, & Tuckey, 2015). Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) is considered to be a unique organizational climate as it is viewed as a precursor to working conditions, mainly through the enactment of managers who create conducive working conditions for their employees (Dollard & McTernan, 2011; Idris, Dollard, Coward, & Dormann, 2012; Law, Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2011).

Although PSC is mainly an extension of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) which has often been tested using both job demands and job resources, there are a few studies that have used only job demands (Garrick et al., 2014) or only job resources (Idris et al., 2015) in their research framework. In the context of the current study, the research is only interested in how PSC influences job resources, particularly through personal development variables in the proposed research framework. Furthermore, the research argues that PSC is able to enhance some positive work outcomes particularly when mediated by job resources

and job engagement. While previous studies have relied on job performance as the work outcome, the research has tested how PSC may influence personal initiative (PI) as an indicator of positive work output.

Considerable evidence supports the notion that job resources mediate the relationship between PSC and job engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Dollard & McTernan, 2011; Law et al., 2011), and that job engagement mediates the relationship between PSC and job performance (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2011). However, no studies have explored how PSC may lead to PI, particularly through two important mediation variables, namely, personal development and job engagement. Thus, in the current study, using the theory of proactive motivation (Parker et al., 2010) which states that contextual factors affect employees' PI through the presence of motivational states, the research tested the linkage between PSC→job resources→job engagement→PI. The research model is illustrated in Figure 1.

The study contributes to the literature in several ways. Firstly, although several studies have investigated the linkage between PSC and job engagement (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Idris & Dollard, 2011), no studies using the PSC framework have focused on PI as an outcome. Heeding Parker et al.'s (2010) recommendation that more distal antecedents should be investigated when looking at employees' PI, the current study investigates the mechanisms involved from PSC to personal initiative (PI). This is important as job engagement and PI may share similarities, and both concepts reflect employees' energetic process (Bakker, 2009; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). However, Bindl and Parker (2010) argue that PI is a work-related behavior while job engagement refers to a motivational state. Scholars believe that PI is driven from a motivational state, and not vice versa. Secondly, while previous studies using PSC have relied on several types of job resources, for example, decision

authority and skill latitude (Dollard & Bakker, 2010), procedural justice, supervisory support, and organizational rewards (Law et al., 2011), the current study explains the mechanism between PSC, job engagement and PI via another type of job resource, namely, personal development. Thirdly, existing studies in this area are framed in a Western context and lack adequate investigation in Eastern countries. The research employed longitudinal research in Malaysia, as an example of one emerging economy in the Asian region (Yol & Ngie, 2009).

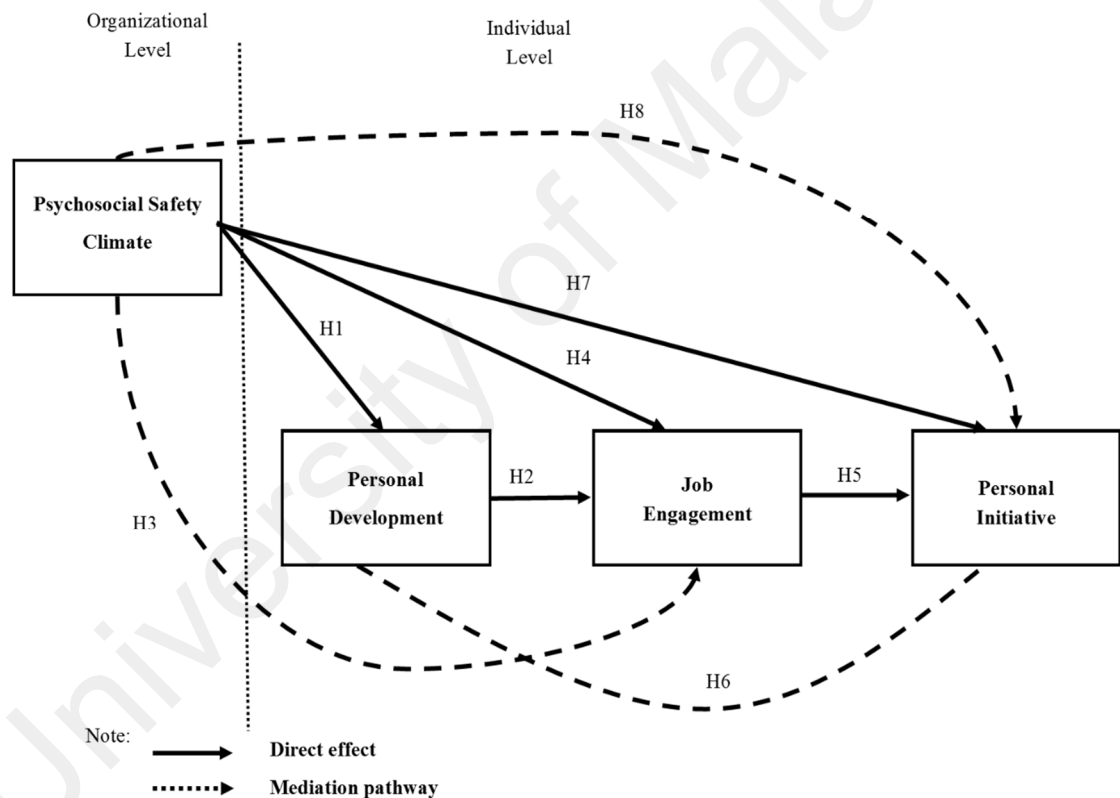


Figure 4.1. Research Model

4.2 Literature Review

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) as a precursor to employees' job engagement

As previously mentioned, the PSC framework is an extension of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In their seminal work on PSC, Dollard and

Bakker (2010) explain how PSC is a precursor to job characteristics (e.g. job demands and job resources). There are reasons to believe that job characteristics strongly affect employees' well-being, for example, low job control and high psychological demands increase strain (Theorell, Karasek, & Eneroth, 1990), or job resources increase job engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) represents an organizational factor that serves as an antecedent to job characteristics, that is, the working conditions created by upper-level management (Johns, 2010; Lewandowski, 2003; Shannon, Robson, & Sale, 2001). As a specific organizational climate that is able to protect employees' well-being from any threat of psychosocial harm, PSC is actually driven by the notion of leaders' or managers' intention to focus on creating conducive working conditions (i.e. fewer job demands, higher job resources) through four components. These comprise the following interrelated principles: (1) the level of senior management commitment and support for stress prevention; (2) the priority given by management to the preservation of psychological health and safety versus productivity goals; (3) organizational communication educating employees on psychological health and safety; and (4) the extent of participation and involvement by managers and workers in relation to psychological health and safety (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Hall, Dollard, & Coward, 2010).

Empirical evidence supports the idea that PSC positively influences the variety of job resources at work, such as job control, personal development, and social support (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Idris et al., 2015). In the context of the current study, the main aim was to see how PSC influences PI and job engagement, especially through personal development. The research considers personal development to be a type of job resource as has been reported previously (Bakker, Demerouti, & Ten

Brummelhuis, 2012). In general, job resources are defined as “any physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job which reduce job demands and associated costs, are functional in reaching goals, or stimulate personal growth, learning and development” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 296).

The presence of PSC allows employees to feel safe. In addition, organizations with a high level of PSC understand that it is necessary to make employees feel safe so they can work in an optimum environment to reach organizational objectives (Law et al., 2011). In addition, PSC encourages employees to develop and grow as individuals. As PSC is associated with job resources, organizations with a high level of PSC would allow their employees to develop their skills at work so they could perform better. To date, at least one study has supported the linkage between PSC and personal development (Idris et al., 2015). Therefore, the research expects that:

Hypothesis 1: Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at Time 1 (T1) positively relates to personal development at Time 2 (T2).

Job engagement resulting from higher job resources has been widely supported in previous studies using the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006) and in the PSC literature (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Hall et al., 2010). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) defined job engagement as “a positive fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption” (p. 74). According to conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), job resources function as a pool of energy that sustains employees particularly in conditions with high demands. Job resources are able to keep employees motivated and focused on their job, and they have the ability to buffer the negative effect of work, thus serving as a type of coping strategy (Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou, & Bakker, 2010).

In the context of the current study, the research expects personal development to be one of the job resources that is able to increase employees' job engagement. The reason is that personal development is able to create more self-learning opportunities for employees, enabling them to reach their personal goals (Idris et al., 2015). Employees would also feel a sense of mastery and would have better control over their job (Bakker et al., 2012), and, indirectly, this would make their job more challenging and highly valued. Research to date has found support for the way in which job resources lead to job engagement (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2007).

A high level of PSC, on the other hand, will increase job engagement via the enhancement of job resources. Organizations which prioritize employees' well-being will support their employees by providing the necessary support so their employees feel valued by their employer. This is in agreement with the principal argument that caring relationships nurture meaningfulness, safety, and availability, with a high level of PSC supporting employees to perform their work roles freely without fear of negative consequences (Kahn & Heapy, 2014). Caring organizations, such as those with a high level of PSC, will set tasks with higher clarity, and employees may feel that the organization cares about their interests (Carmeli, Jones, & Binyamin, 2015). Therefore, the research proposes the following:

Hypothesis 2: Personal development at Time 1 (T1) positively relates to job engagement at Time 2 (T2).

Hypothesis 3: Personal development mediates psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at Time 1 (T1) and job engagement at Time 2 (T2).

Hypothesis 4: Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at Time 1 (T1) positively relates to job engagement at Time 2 (T2).

Job engagement versus personal initiative (PI)

While both job engagement and PI consist of motivational elements (see Bakker, 2009; Parker et al., 2006), they are two distinct constructs. As previously mentioned, job engagement represents an affective and motivational state (Schaufeli et al., 2002), while PI refers to employees' proactive behavior and how employees actively handle challenges to achieve organizational goals (Baer & Frese, 2003; Koys, 2001; Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). By definition, PI refers to "a behavior syndrome resulting in an individual taking an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is normally required in a given role" (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996, p. 38). Rather than employees simply passively performing a task, PI moulds employees into an action state, where they have long-term goals and perfect the tasks which they are carrying out, even when the tasks are challenging, and ensuring the quality of the work outcomes they produce (Fay & Sonnentag, 2002).

In other words, while job engagement refers to an individual's inner state, PI is related to performance-related behavior, being both goal-directed and action-oriented (Fay & Sonnentag, 2002; Frese et al., 1996). Using the cognitively-oriented motivational process (Mitchell & Daniels, 2003), Bindl and Parker (2010) proposed that enacting and reflections are two important elements in personal initiative (PI). As job engagement also involves a high level of cognitive focus when doing a task, it is then proposed that job engagement increases personal initiative (PI) (Sonnentag, 2003). The rationale for this is that when the employee feels engaged, indirectly, this will increase their energetic process so they initiate a task and maintain their focus to achieve the organization's vision and goals (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997; Hockey, 2000). Thus, employees aim to perform well when accomplishing tasks and to contribute more effort at work than they would normally be required to do (Fay & Frese, 2001).

Hakanen, Perhoniemi, and Toppinen-Tanner's (2008) study supported the notion that PI results from higher job engagement, and not vice versa. Taking a similar view, Bakker (2011), Parker (2000), and Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) proposed that, in the presence of job engagement, the individual is intrinsically motivated to be proactive in the workplace in seeking out challenges and opportunities through changing their work environment. The linkage between job engagement and PI can be explained by using broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001). According to this theory, when employees feel good, this will boost new ideas and solutions. Research to date has found the linkages between job engagement and several positive job outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior (Macey & Schneider, 2008), and intention to quit (Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne, & Rayton, 2013). Therefore, the research expects that:

Hypothesis 5: Job engagement at Time 1 (T1) positively relates to personal initiative (PI) at Time 2 (T2).

Hypothesis 6: Job engagement mediates personal development at Time 1 (T1) and personal initiative (PI) at Time 2 (T2).

Frese et al. (1996) acknowledged the role of the environment in affecting employees' outcomes. Specifically, they looked at the influences of the organizational environment as it affected employees' motivational and skill development process (Frese, 1982). The previous literature has found a relationship between PSC and positive aspects at work, such as job performance (Idris et al., 2015), productivity (Idris et al., 2011), and job satisfaction (Hall, Dollard, Winefield, Dormann, & Bakker, 2013).

The theory of proactive motivation (Parker et al., 2010) presents an overall model on how the presence of one's motivational state moving to a higher level of PI

begins with contextual factors, such as organizational climate. In the context of the current study, the research expects that PSC would also increase PI over time. Personal initiative (PI) is regarded as part of the extra role performance concept (Fay & Sonnentag, 2002) as individuals set to work and drive themselves to work harder to achieve personal and work goals, beyond what is expected from the organization. As an important organizational climate, PSC channels a safety signal for employees to feel safe (Dollard & Karasek, 2010) and valued (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). In return, employees put in extra effort as part of the exchange relationship process between organization and employees.

Hypothesis 7: Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at Time 1 (T1) is positively related to personal initiative (PI) at Time 2 (T2).

Hypothesis 8: Job engagement mediates the relationship between psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at Time 1 (T1) and personal initiative (PI) at Time 2 (T2).

4.3 Method

Participants

The current study employed a multilevel longitudinal design with 134 employees from private organizations in Malaysia using the snowball sampling method. This method was considered appropriate as Malaysian employees do not tend to be very willing to participate in surveys (Idris et al., 2014). The time lag between Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2) was one year. To initiate the study, the researcher sent emails to heads of departments to ask their approval to participate in the study. Upon their consent to participate in the study, arrangements were made to meet with them to brief them on the purpose of the study and to provide instructions on completing the questionnaires. At T1, 60 organizations were approached and 44 organizations

(73%) agreed to participate (N (of employees) =256, 62% response rate). At T2, these same organizations were approached again, with 134 employees from 28 organizations returning the questionnaires. The number of participants in each team ranged from four to nine.

Instruments

For measurement, the current study used instruments described in English. To ensure that participants had adequate ability to understand English, prior to questionnaire completion, the researcher asked the heads of departments to only select employees who were fluent in English.

Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) was measured by using four sub-scales of 12 items from Hall et al. (2010), consisting of management commitment (e.g. 'Senior management acts decisively when a concern of an employee's psychological status is raised'); management priority (e.g. 'Psychological well-being of staff is a priority for this organization'); organization communication (e.g. 'There is good communication here about psychological safety issues which affect me'); and organization participation (e.g. 'Employees are encouraged to become involved in psychological safety and health matters'). The rating scale used was a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) with this measurement having adequate psychometric properties (Hall et al., 2010). Reliability for the scale was excellent (T1, $\alpha=.94$; T2, $\alpha=.92$)

Personal development was measured using the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) (Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005). The scale ranges from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very large extent). One example of an item is 'Can you use your skills or expertise in your work?' (T1, $\alpha=.88$; T2, $\alpha=.81$).

Job engagement was measured using the nine items of the short version Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). This consists three sub-scales, namely, vigor (e.g. 'At work, I feel full of energy'); dedication (e.g. 'My work inspires me'); and absorption (e.g. 'I focus on my work'). Reliability for the scale was excellent (T1, $\alpha=.93$; T2, $\alpha=.89$).

Personal initiative (PI) was measured using a seven-item scale from Frese et al. (1997). The author measured participant PI, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). One example of a question is 'I take initiative immediately even when others don't'. The scale had good reliability properties (T1, $\alpha=.88$; T2, $\alpha=.86$).

Analysis strategy

To evaluate the suitability of PSC as a multilevel construct, the research ran inter-rater agreement, that is, $r(WG)(J)$ (see James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The value for PSC was .91; thus, it was higher than the .70 recommended by Mathieu, Maynard, Taylor, Gilson, and Ruddy (2007) to show the suitability of PSC for aggregation at team levels. The research also evaluated the intraclass coefficient (I) (ICC[I]) for PSC at Time 1 (T1) and it produced a value of .14, indicating that 14% of the variance in PSC was due to organizational factors. Values ranging from .05 to .20 are considered acceptable (Bliese, 2000). The research also ran a one-way random effect analysis of variance (ANOVA) for PSC, and the research found that $F_{(III)}$ for PSC=2.15 and $p < .001$, thus indicating that the variance in PSC was due to organizational levels.

Three types of analyses were used in this study to test the hypotheses: lower-level direct effects, cross-level direct effects, and mediation effects. The research initiated our analysis by regressing the lower-level direct effects variables, followed

by cross-level direct effects (Mathieu & Taylor, 2007). In each test, the research controlled at the T1 variables.

An example of an individual-level equation is as follows:

$$\text{Engagement T2} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Personal Development T1}) + \beta (\text{Engagement T1}) + r$$

Following is an example of a cross-level effect equation:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Engagement T2} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Engagement T1}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{PSC T1}) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = G_{10} + G_{11} * W1j + u_{1j}$$

For lower-level direct effects (Hypotheses 2 and 5), the lower-level variable's T2 dependent variable was regressed on the Time 1 (T1) predictor, controlling for the dependent measure at Time 1 (T1). For example, for Hypothesis 2, personal development at T1 predicts job engagement at T2; therefore, job engagement at T2 is regressed on personal development at Time 1, controlling for job engagement at T1 (see Model 5). For Hypothesis 5, job engagement predicts PI; therefore, PI at T2 is regressed on job engagement at T1, controlling for PI at T1 (see Model 1).

Finally, to test the mediation effects (Hypotheses 3, 6, and 8), a split longitudinal design was used to test each part of the mediation pathway ab using estimates of path a ($X \rightarrow M$) and path b ($M \rightarrow Y$) as lagged effects (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). For example, to test Hypothesis 3, the following mediation steps needed to be fulfilled, with this also noted by Baron and Kenny (1986). There is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow Y$ (PSC at T1 \rightarrow Job engagement at T2) (Models 8 and 2). There is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow M$ (PSC at T1 \rightarrow Personal development

at T2) (Models 10 and 3). There is a significant relationship between $M \rightarrow Y$, after controlling for M at T1 and for X at T1 (personal development at T1 \rightarrow Job engagement at T2, after controlling job engagement at T1 and PSC at T1) (Model 9). Provided step 3 is not fulfilled, then this is considered to be partial mediation. A Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) was used over the Sobel test as it was suggested that the former is more applicable for mediation in multilevel analyses (Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006). The Monte Carlo test revealed a 95% confidence interval (CI) and was tested on 20,000 repetitions.

To see whether job engagement at T1 predicted PI at T2, analysis was also implemented to complete the testing by regressing job engagement at T1 to PI at T2, after controlling for job engagement at T2; however, the result showed an insignificant relationship ($\beta=.08$, *non-significant [ns]*). This supports the idea that job engagement leads to PI and not vice versa.

4.4 Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive analysis and correlations between all measures at level 1 and level 2. Results for hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analyses are shown in Tables 2 and 3. A summary of the findings is presented in Figure 2.

Table 4.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Pearson's Bivariate Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	No. Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	F	ICC(I)
1. Psychosocial safety climate (T1)	3.20	0.69	12	1						2.147**	0.1402
2. Personal development (T1)	15.11	3.04	4	.34**	1					1.502**	0.0684
3. Personal development (T2)	16.11	3.54	7	.34**	0.05	1				2.433**	0.1763
4. Job engagement (T1)	31.00	6.01	9	.42**	.41**	.33**	1			2.372**	0.1832
5. Job engagement (T2)	32.73	5.47	4	.17**	.19**	.24**	.24**	1		2.416**	0.1905
6. Personal initiative (T1)	25.03	5.77	7	.30**	.32**	.27**	.51**	.07	1	1.730**	0.1365
7. Personal initiative (T2)	25.21	4.28	9	.24**	.20**	.16**	.13**	.54**	.05	1.740**	0.1048

Notes: ICC(I) = intraclass correlation(I); SD = standard deviation; T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; ** $p < .05$. $N = 134$ (28 teams).

Table 4.2: HLM Analysis of Lower-Level Outcomes

Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	Personal Initiative T2	Personal Initiative T2	Personal Initiative T2	Personal Initiative T2	Job EngagementT2
Lower-Level effects					
Personal Initiative T1	.05(.06)	.03(.07)		.07(.08)	
Job Engagement T1	.24(.06)*		.03(.07)	.18(.08)*	.18(.07)*
Personal Development T1		.17(.07)*	.18(.07)*	.15(.07)*	.15(.06)*

Notes: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error; $N=134$ (28 teams);

* $p<0.05$.

Table 4.3: HLM Analyses of Cross-Level Effect of PSC on Lower-Level Outcomes

Model	6	7	8	9	10
	Personal Initiative T2	Personal Initiative T2	Job Engagement T2	Job Engagement T2	Personal Development T2
Lower-level effects					
Personal Initiative T1	.03(.07)	.08(.06)			
Job Engagement T1		.22(.08)*	.20(.07)*	.18(.08)*	
Personal Development T1				.15(.06)*	.23(.08)*
Cross-level effects					
PSC T1	.31(.09)*	.12(.07) ⁺	.14(.08) ⁺	.13(.08)	.27(.07)*

Note: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error; PSC = psychosocial safety climate; $N=134$ (28 teams); ⁺ significant at one-tailed; * $p<0.05$.

Hypothesis 1 predicts PSC at Time 1 (T1) to be positively related to personal development at Time 2 (T2). There is a significant cross-level lagged effect (see Model 10). Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at T1 is significantly associated with personal development at T2, after controlling for personal development at T1 ($\gamma=.27$; $p < .05$); thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicts personal development at T1 to be positively related to job engagement at T2. There is a significant lagged effect, as indicated in Model 5. Hypothesis 2 is supported as there is a significant relationship between personal development and job engagement ($\beta=.15$; $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3 predicts that personal development mediates PSC at T1 and job engagement at T2. In testing the hypothesis, the conditions as stipulated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. The mediation effect was tested using the parameter estimate from Model 10 as the value for the direct effect between PSC at T1 and personal development at T2 ($\gamma=.27$; standard error [SE]=.07), and using the parameter estimate from Model 9 for the relationship between personal development at T1 and job engagement at T2 with PSC at T1 in the model, ($\beta=.15$; SE=.06). Subsequently, the significance of the indirect parameter estimate was evaluated using a Monte Carlo test to interpret the significance of the indirect parameter estimate. Results revealed that PSC at T1 had a significant lagged effect on job engagement at T2 through personal development at T1 (95% confidence interval [CI]; lower level [LL]=.00725; upper level [UL]=.08463). As PSC at T1 did not have a significant effect on job engagement at T2 in the presence of the mediator, personal development, at T1, this indicates that the effect is fully mediated.

Hypothesis 4 predicts PSC at T1 is positively related to job engagement at T2. There is a significant cross-level lagged effect (see Model 8). Psychosocial safety

climate (PSC) at T1 is significantly associated with job engagement at T2, after controlling for job engagement at T1 ($\gamma=.14$; one-tailed); thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicts that job engagement at T1 will show a positive relationship with PI at T2. There is a significant lagged effect, as indicated in Model 1. Hypothesis 5 is supported as there is a positive significant relationship between job engagement and PI ($\beta=.24$; $p<0.01$).

Hypothesis 6 predicts that job engagement mediates personal development at T1 and PI at T2. In testing the hypothesis, the conditions as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. The mediation effect was tested using the parameter estimate from Model 5 as the value for the direct effect between personal development at T1 and job engagement at T2 ($\gamma=.15$; $SE=.06$). The parameter estimate from Model 4 was used for the relationship between job engagement at T1 and PI at T2 with personal development at T1 in the model ($\beta=.18$; $SE=.08$). The significance of the indirect parameter estimate was tested using a Monte Carlo test. Results revealed that personal development at T2 has a significant lagged effect on PI at T2 through job engagement at T1 (95% confidence interval [CI]; lower level [LL]=.00120; upper level [UL]=.06626). As personal development at T1 on PI at T2 is significant in the presence of the mediator and job engagement at T1 in the model, this is indicative that the effect is partially mediated.

Hypothesis 7 predicts PSC at T1 is positively related to PI at T2. There is a significant cross-level lagged effect (see Model 6). Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) at T1 is significantly associated with PI at T2, after controlling for PI at T1 ($\gamma=.31$, $p<.001$); thus, Hypothesis 7 is supported.

Hypothesis 8 predicts that job engagement mediates the relationship between PSC at T1 and PI at T2. In testing the hypothesis, the conditions as stipulated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. The mediation effect was tested using the parameter estimate from Model 8 as the value for the direct effect from PSC at T1 to job engagement at T2 ($\gamma=.14$, $SE=.08$), and the parameter estimate from Model 7 for the relationship between job engagement at T1 and PI at T2 with PSC at T1 in the model ($\beta=.22$; $SE=.08$). Subsequently, the significance of the indirect parameter estimate was evaluated using a Monte Carlo test. Results revealed that PSC at T1 did not have a significant lagged effect on PI at T2 through job engagement at T1 (95% confidence interval [CI]; lower level [LL]=-.00390; upper level [UL]=.08269). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is not supported.

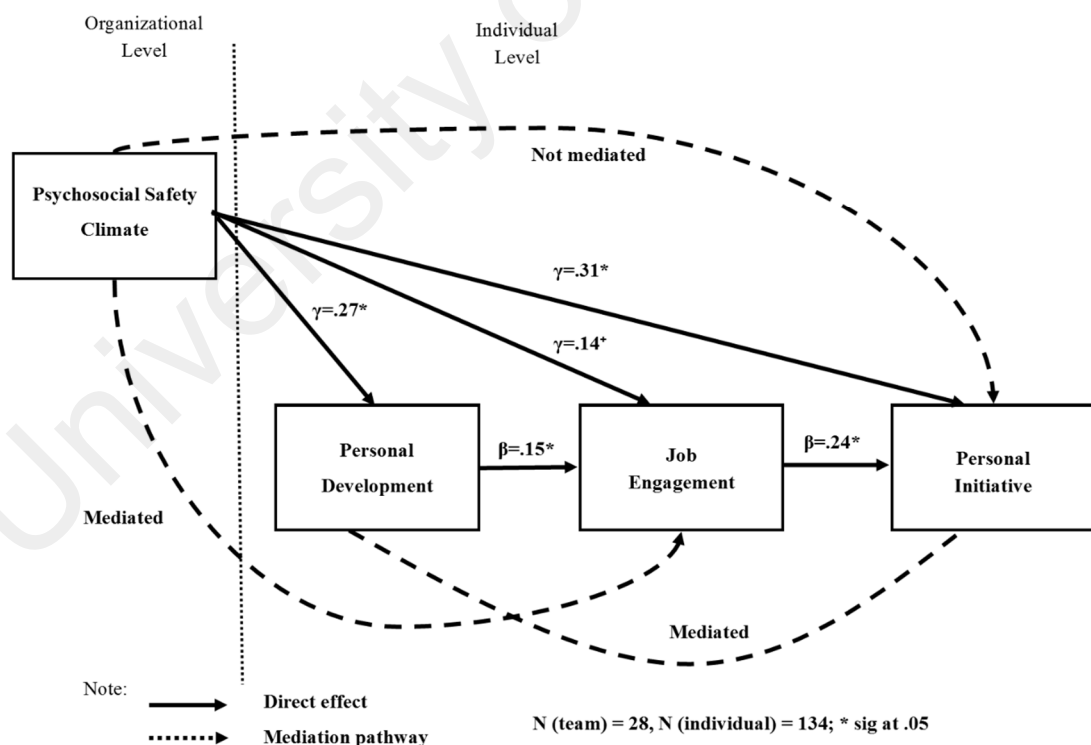


Figure 4.2. Final Model

4.5 Discussion

The main objectives of the current study were to investigate the cross-level effects of PSC on employees' PI, particularly through personal development and job engagement. We tested the research model by using longitudinal multilevel analyses among 134 employees, in 28 private organizations in Malaysia. This is the first study to test how PSC leads to PI, particularly through personal development and job engagement.

Overall, the current study supported the theory of proactive motivation (Parker et al., 2010), which states that contextual factors are able to influence employees' personal initiative (PI). The study showed that PSC improves employees' PI at work, particularly through job resources and job engagement. The findings supported the notion that in high PSC organizations, managers are more likely to provide employees with the necessary resources that enable them to obtain more opportunities for self-improvement and self-development (Idris et al., 2015). Consequently, working in good conditions (i.e. a high level of PSC), employees are more engaged and, as a result, this will trigger a higher level of PI within employees.

The effect of PSC on PI can be explained using a similar assumption on how PSC enhances job performance and productivity (Idris et al., 2011; 2015). As explained previously, PI is considered a performance-related behavior and is action-oriented (Fay & Frese, 2001; Frese et al., 1996). When employees work in conducive conditions where the employer looks after their well-being, they are likely to invest more effort in their job to achieve organizational goals (Dollard & Karasek, 2010). This situation occurs when employees perceive that their employers not only treat them well at work, but also care for their psychological needs to grow and master their work skills.

Previous studies have shown that employees who work in high PSC conditions are more engaged and productive (Idris et al., 2011). Put another way, a higher level of PSC will lead to positive outcomes at work. In the context of the current study, the research has seen that the presence of personal development for employees enhances their competencies and self-efficacy. As a result, this benefits both the employees and the organization. According to conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001), resources are observed as being present when employees possess the ability to add to these resources, thus, leading to higher productivity and job satisfaction.

Personal development refers to the ability to carry out work through the usage of the employees' skills that translate to a level of competency, leading to a higher level of job engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Clayton, Blom, Meyers, & Bateman, 2003). Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000) shows that basic psychological needs exist even in organizational settings. Psychosocial safety climate (PSC) shows significant cross-level lagged effects on lower levels suggesting that PSC is an antecedent and a positive spiral agent affecting the employee and their positive work outcomes (Idris et al., 2012; Law et al., 2011). In agreement with the motivational pathway indicated in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), the current study finds that PSC increases employees' personal development. Despite using a one-year gap between T1 and T2, the effect of PSC on employees remained significant. Thus, this provides evidence to support the ability of PSC to protect employees' well-being, particularly through personal development.

The current study also supports the idea that job engagement leads to PI, and not vice versa (Hakanen et al., 2008; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008; Sonnentag, 2003). Although both job engagement and PI are positive consequences of working conditions, in the current study, the research found that PI was an outcome of job

engagement. This supports the argument that job engagement is more related to an affective characteristic than a behavior (Sonnentag, 2003). Indirectly, employees who feel engaged are not only happy with their job, but will invest more effort beyond what is expected from their organization (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011).

Despite the significant results between PSC, personal development, job engagement, and PI, unfortunately, job engagement did not mediate the relationship between PSC and personal initiative (PI). This can be explained when the relationships between them are too distant for effects to be observed (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). The possibly incorrect time frame of a one-year time gap may also have led to the insignificant result. It may either be that the time gap was too long and that the effects have worn off (Frese & Zapf, 1998), or that the time gap was too short so the effects have not yet been shown (Kinnunen, Kokkonen, Kaprio, & Pulkkinen, 2005).

Strengths, limitations, and future research

The research utilized a longitudinal multilevel design on 134 employees, in 28 private organizations in Malaysia. While most organizational climate research has used a cross-sectional approach (see review, Clarke, 2010), the research was innovative, firstly, by employing a multilevel and longitudinal study that enabled the research to see the effect of PSC beyond a short period of time. Although some studies on PSC have used a longitudinal approach (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Garrick et al., 2014), most have only tested over a short time frame between T1 and T2 (e.g. a three-months' gap in Idris et al., 2014).

As argued by Zapf et al. (1996), some psychological phenomena need a longer time to show their effects; therefore, the research found that by using a longer time gap (i.e. the one-year gap in this study), the effects of PSC were seen with greater accuracy. Dormann and van den Ven (2014) have argued that a longer time gap allows

control of the time of the year and of the memory efforts, and is especially useful when effects are not immediately observed. These factors apply in the current study as the study tested mediation analyses which require a longer time period to observe the effects.

Secondly, while most previous studies on PSC were tested in a Western context and especially in Australia, the current study was conducted in Malaysia, one of the emerging economies in South East Asia. Although using a sample from a different culture, the research found that PSC remained significant in its positive effects on job resources, job engagement, and personal initiative (PI). This shows that PSC can be generalized globally: in the Western context (e.g. Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Law et al., 2011) and in the Eastern context (e.g. Idris et al., 2011).

However, the current study has some limitations. Although using a one-year gap is one of the best solutions to avoid common method variance, this also leads to a higher drop-out rate among participants in the sample. At T1, the researcher was able to survey 256 employees from 44 teams, but, at T2, due to high drop-out rate, the researcher only managed to approach 134 employees from 28 teams. The best possible approach to control the high drop-out rate is by using three or four waves of data collection. Therefore, at least, the research still managed to have a reasonable response with a one-year gap.

It is necessary to note that the current study has only adopted a two-wave longitudinal design. Although the study used a one-year interval, variable analyses were done on only a selection of the multiple variables: for example, PSC at T1→PI at T2, and personal development at T1→job engagement at T2 does not depict the entire model in a single instance (PSC at T1→personal development at T2→job engagement at T3→PI at T4). Although this approach is commonly used (e.g.

Demerouti, Shimazu, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2013; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009), problems exist when interpreting a real mediation effect among the variables tested. In addition, Cole and Maxwell (2003) recommended the use of a three-wave longitudinal design when testing a mediation model. On the other hand, by using a one-year gap, it was determined that this study was able to counter issues on self-report bias and common method variance (Spector, 2006).

The current study only used PSC as an antecedent to job resources, job engagement, and personal initiative (PI). However, working conditions are created by organizational factors (Johns, 2010); therefore, future research should consider comparing PSC with other climate constructs, or with other multi-level variables. For instance, Tuckey, Bakker, and Dollard (2012) found that empowering leadership at the upper level also acts as a precursor to job engagement. Thus, there are reasons to believe that job resources are not only influenced by PSC, but also by other organizational factors.

Practical implications

The role of PSC serves not only as a positive spiral agent to employees' outcomes, but is also seen to work as a buffering agent against the negative effects of job demands (Biron, Karanika-Murray, & Cooper, 2012; Garrick et al., 2014; Hall et al., 2013). In order to achieve optimal working conditions, organizations need to realize the importance of implementing PSC within the organization. Ultimately, organizations would prefer to have employees who are high in personal initiative (PI). Generally speaking, recruiting employees might be easy but retaining employees who are productive and engaged is challenging: it remains a distinctive feature that may translate from failure to organizational success (Ulrich, 1997). Hence, organizations play an important role in influencing their employees' personal initiative (PI). As PSC

has been shown as an antecedent to employees' personal development, job engagement, and PI, it is something that warrants the attention of management. Organizations will benefit tremendously if they have employees who are high in PI, who willingly exert more effort, and who display organizational citizenship (OCB) behaviors—characteristics that organizations need to sustain in the current competitive atmosphere.

4.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the current study has shown PSC to be a multilevel factor influencing employee behavior through job resources and job engagement. The findings suggest that PSC indicates significant lagged cross-level direct and indirect effects on job resources, job engagement and personal initiative (PI). Job resources and job engagement are also found to be mediators in the proposed model. This signifies that the model is one step further ahead from the commonly known models in PSC studies through its exploration of the motivational processes involved. The findings strengthen the applicability of PSC in the Asian context. In addition, understanding the importance of multilevel PSC may help employees in their job engagement and PI at their workplace.

CHAPTER 5

Article 3

Transformational leadership and its effect on job performance in the context of hierarchical culture among Malaysian employees

Abstract

The impact of transformational leadership (TFL) on employees' positive outcomes has often been discussed in Western contextual, but its Eastern counterpart remains silent. The present study seeks to understand the ability of TFL in influencing employees' job resource (i.e. performance feedback) and work outcome (i.e. job performance) in Malaysia. The study also seeks to understand the applicability of this leadership style in a hierarchical culture (HC) context. It was hypothesized that TFL leads to higher levels of performance feedback and job performance. Performance feedback is also hypothesized to mediate TFL and job performance. In addition, the presence of HC leads to lower performance feedback and job performance. In order to test the hypotheses, this study implements a multilevel cross-sectional approach. 60 private organizations were approached and 44 teams (68%) agreed to participate (n=256, 62% of response rate). Results reveal that TFL led to higher performance feedback and job performance. Performance feedback also mediated TFL and job performance. However, within the HC context, it led to lower performance feedback and job performance. The results suggest that organizations in Eastern countries need to be aware of the negative effects HC may incur, and it is recommended that organizational culture and leadership style should be aligned so that employees have clearer direction at work in order to perform well.

Keywords: transformational leadership, hierarchical culture, performance feedback, job performance, multilevel

5.1 Introduction

The linkage between job resources and positive work outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior has been discovered in several studies (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013). By definition, job resources refers to the 'physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: (1) functional in achieving goals, (2) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development' (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Since job resources vary, we only used performance feedback (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) as an indicator of job resources. However, what remains unclear are the precursors to job resources. Research so far has supported the notion of job resources as a part of job characteristics and its relation to job engagement and performance (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Nevertheless, it seems that there are only a few discussions to explain the antecedents of job resources (cf. Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012). In line with the argument that job characteristics are created by the management (Johns, 2010; Dollard & Karasek, 2010), we examine the possibility of transformational leadership indirectly increasing job performance, particularly through job resources. In other words, if the management or leadership in organizations prioritises their employees' well-being, it will in turn enhance job resources which will then help employees to become more motivated (Schaufeli et al., 2009) and perform better (Salanova et al., 2005).

In the current study, we also examine how hierarchical culture (HC) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and job resources. Hierarchical culture is important, as it influences human management practices and

work outcomes (Aycan et al., 2000). HC emphasizes high rigidity, control, and low empowerment for its employees (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Given the high level of control by the management, employees are expected to be reactive rather than proactive in the workplace. Literature on hierarchical organizational culture has also highlighted the fact that it is commonly practiced across conservative societies, especially in the Asian regions (Foley, Ngo, & Wong, 2006; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012).

The current study's contribution to the literature is threefold. Firstly, it emphasizes the importance of context. Although past literature on transformational leadership has shown numerous positive outcomes for employees such as autonomy and personal development (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), it does not consider the context in which it functions (i.e. organizational culture). Hence, the current study contributes by permitting observations on how hierarchical culture may play a role in interfering with the role of transformational leadership since both are considered as organizational contexts (Schein, 2010). Secondly, while previous literature has looked at social support, supervisory support, and autonomy as different types of job resources (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), the current study seeks to understand the mechanism behind transformational leadership in enhancing employees' job performance through performance feedback as a type of job resource. This is especially important as performance feedback is seen as an important feature in reaching a high level of job performance (Huang, 2012). Thirdly, since Malaysia is a country with high power distance (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), the use of Malaysian samples will allow better observations of the effects of hierarchical culture on employees, which is not widely available in the Western context and in its literature

(i.e. Deshpande, Farley, & Webster Jr., 1993; Tseng, 2011). Figure 1 illustrated the proposed model.

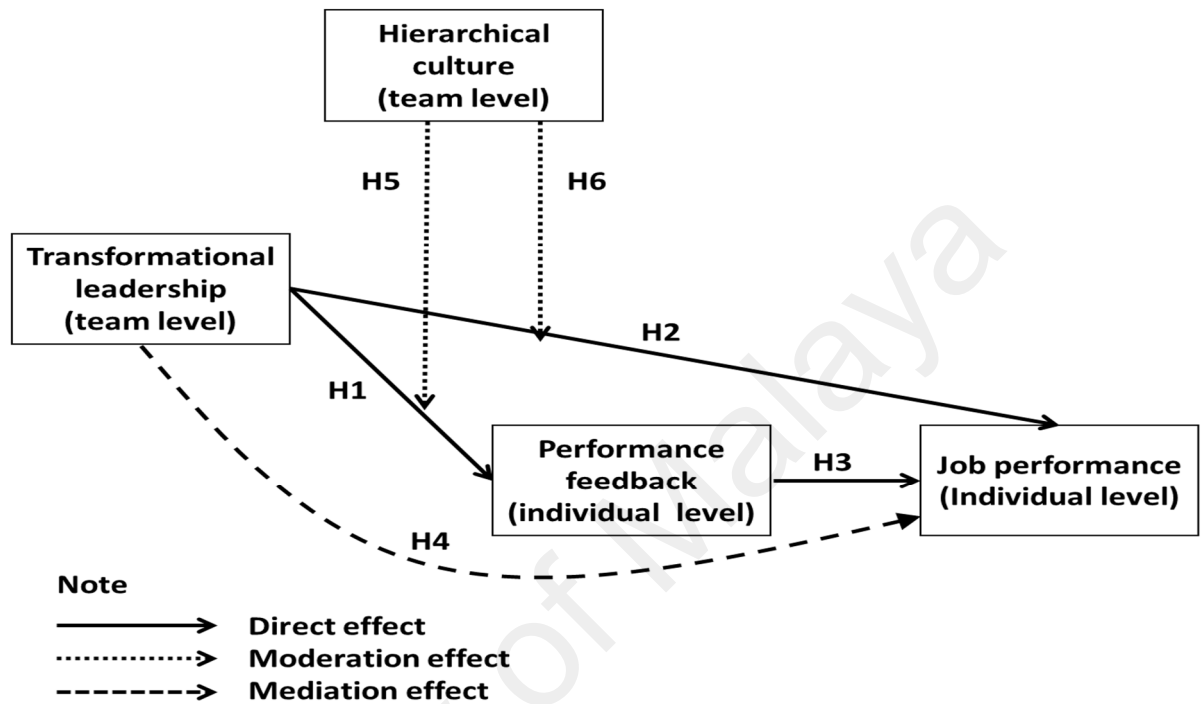


Figure 5.1. Hypotheses and research model

5.2 Literature Review

Transformational leadership on performance feedback and job performance

Transformational leadership (TFL) is defined as when ‘leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation’ (Burns, 1978, p. 20). It is commonly described as an idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1985; 1999). Viewing it as a global construct, research so far has discovered that TFL has an influence on some positive work outcomes such as increasing employees’ self-efficacy (Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011), creativity (Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009), and enhancing service performance (Liao & Chuang, 2007). Transformational leaders inspire their

employees at work through participative discussion, in addition to reducing the gap between the employees' abilities and those required by the organization through offering performance feedback and personal development (Bass, 1990).

In the context of the current study, we expect that TFL increases the possibility of providing performance feedback to employees due to the aspects of individual consideration and inspirational motivation (Bass, 1985; 1999). Performance feedback refers to the 'information about an employee's past behaviors with respect to established standards of employee behaviors and results' (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2012). TFL places personal consideration on each employee, where every individual is seen as unique in terms of personality and also the skills, knowledge, and talents that they possess (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000). Employees who feel that their well-being is looked after and that the leader pays attention to their personal needs and goals, tend to respond better to the workplace and their job. TFL takes into consideration that each employee is different and unique which then allows them to improve themselves according to their present state and needs (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). In such an environment, employees have opportunities to find specific gaps to improve themselves in the workplace. The motivation to improve is increased through performance feedback given by their leader (Atwater & Waldman, 2008; Shea & Howell, 1999).

Moreover, performance feedback can increase employees' enthusiasm and enjoyment at work, which in turn will lead to higher levels of employee job performance and work quality (Furham & Stringfield, 1998; Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). Seeing each employee as a unique individual with special capabilities, the leader addresses each employee differently and conveys relevant information needed for employees to improve themselves (Levy, Cober, & Miller, 2002). Without

feedback, improvements rarely can be made as there are no specific standards to gauge one's performance level (McCarthy & Garavan, 2001). According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), employees will feel motivated if they receive feedback on where their autonomy and competency needs can be fulfilled. The need for autonomy is fulfilled as the employees are given the space within the context of the tasks. The competency need is fulfilled when employees are able to use their skills and subsequently show their value to the organization. It translates into a sense of worthiness for their existence in the organization.

However, performance feedback is not only provided by the leader, but also by fellow employees. For example, where employees in the same project cannot physically meet each other due to the geographical distance and has to be in contact virtually, the presence of TFL in virtual teams encourages higher levels of feedback positivity among team members (Huang, Kahai, & Jestice, 2010). This is possible through strong team cohesion and a high level of team perceived self-efficacy which is attributed by the leader. A recent meta-analysis by Anseel, Beatty, Shen, Lievens, and Sackett (2015) has also shown that feedback seeking behavior is highly correlated with TFL. Hence,

H1: Transformational leadership (TFL) positively relates to performance feedback.

H2: Transformational leadership (TFL) positively relates to job performance.

Performance feedback on job performance

Performance feedback is often seen as containing both informative and evaluative components: informative in which it provides 'information concerning performance and the manner by which the work performer implements a work strategy'

and evaluative which is 'more specific and informative with regard to how the individual might alter performance strategies' (Earley, Northcraft, Lee, & Lituchy, 1990, p. 88). This is important as it allows the employee to know what is expected of them in terms of work behaviors and work outcomes (Jawahar, 2006; Ridley, 2007). As mentioned earlier, performance feedback has shown numerous positive outcomes. This includes higher job satisfaction, higher commitment to the organization, and eventually higher job performance (see Sommer & Kulkarni, 2012).

Performance feedback allows employees to be self-aware of their current state and the state in which they should be in (Asumeng, 2013). Hence, they will find ways and methods to modify their behaviors in order to reach goals. This is becoming so important to the extent that performance feedback is now regarded as a fundamental aspect in achieving a high level of job performance (Huang, 2012). Performance feedback leads them to be intrinsically motivated as they identify themselves with the work. Intrinsic motivation allows employees to perform better compared to extrinsic motivation, as intrinsic motivation arises from within the individual and not initiated by external influences (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000). Intrinsic motivation affects employees through their cognition, affect, and connotation (Reeve & Cole, 1987). Performance feedback derives from job characteristics that are beneficial to employees (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007) because this allows them to be more motivated and take control of their work. Such a presence of motivation levels make employees perform better at work.

H3: Performance feedback positively relates to job performance.

Performance feedback mediates transformational leadership and job performance

Employees who experienced a high level of performance feedback also portray high levels of empowerment, which serves as a force for them to perform better at work (Huang, 2012). In relation to TFL, the presence of individualised consideration allows employees to feel empowered and offer opportunities for them to take charge of their job (Campbell, 2000). Such employees have also reported higher levels of affection and passion towards their job (De Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Buyens, 2011). More importantly, performance feedback allows employees to pursue organizational goals where it is more organization focused as compared to similar constructs such as job engagement, which is more focused on individuals (Tummers & Knies, 2013).

H4: Performance feedback mediates the relationship between transformational leadership (TFL) and job performance.

Hierarchical culture moderates the effects of transformational leadership

While leadership may function as a direct influencer to employees' work behaviors, hierarchical leadership may function as a distant influencer to employees' work behaviors (Schein, 2004). By definition, hierarchical organizational culture (HC) is 'a workplace with formalized and structured procedures which govern what people what do' (Tseng, 2011, p. 597). It consists of consistency, predictability, and functions through a chain of command (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Most management that practices this culture has higher regard for position and status and exerts control through power and position (Panatik, 2012). As such, the management has the final say in every decision made. Employees are not encouraged to voice out or to provide opinions which are different from those stated by the management (Summereder, Streicher, & Batinic, 2014). Moreover, the employees are often seen as a commodity

of the organization. They are to do tasks required by the organization without their opinions being taken into consideration (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Such a culture is often observed in Asian countries, which are considered to be collectivistic societies (Realo, Allik, & Vadi, 1997) that rely on centralised power structures. Malaysia, which emphasizes respect, authority, and harmony, has also been identified as one of the countries which practices hierarchical culture (HC) (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010).

However, in some ways, employees may not achieve a high level of job performance within an autocratic management culture. For example, HC maintains a distance with employees through social position and authority (Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thakor, 2006). The practice of HC results in the neglect of employees' thoughts, ambitions, plans, and ideas. Such factors as well as the obstacles in allowing employees to show their competencies, autonomy, and relatedness has a debilitating effect on the employees' ability to obtain performance feedback at the workplace. Since performance feedback is considered as a job resource, a lack of performance feedback signifies low job resources (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). With low job resources, employees are not intrinsically motivated in carrying out their daily tasks (Drake, Wong, & Salter, 2007; Owens, Baker, Sumpter, & Cameron, 2015). Consequently, it makes employees perceive a distance between themselves and their jobs as they cannot fully immerse in their job and do it well because it is controlled and segregated by the management.

While organizational culture initiates the intended behaviors of the employees, the leader functions to carry out the appropriate behaviors in order for the culture to be practiced (Bass, 1997). Given that the leaders are more closely related to the employees of the organization than the organizational culture which is rather distant,

the leaders seek to maintain the commitment of how the organizational culture ‘runs’ the organization (Shao, Feng, & Liu, 2012; Wilderom, van den Berg, & Wiersma, 2012). Often, the required leadership style is influenced by the organizational culture (Giritli, Oney-Yazici, Topcu-Oraz, & Acar, 2013). Leaders who are not able to synchronise their style to that of the organizational culture are deemed ineffective.

The integration of the negative view of HC and the positive view of TFL on performance feedback and job performance is hypothesized to present environment factors that may contribute to employees’ behavior and outcomes (see Gokce, Guney, & Katrinli, 2014). As TFL supports and provides a context for performance feedback while HC does not, we assume that the presence of HC in TFL will affect the positive impacts of TFL on employees. Perhaps it is because employees may receive contradictory information that can create confusion on what is the right information to follow. Overall, in an environment where the practice is hierarchical-based, employees will have less work affinity resulting in a lack of performance feedback. This, in turn, will cause a lower level of job performance.

H5: Hierarchical culture (HC) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and performance feedback.

H6: Hierarchical culture (HC) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance.

5.3 Methods

Participants

The current study employed a cross-sectional multilevel design among 256 employees from 44 teams in private organizations in major cities in Malaysia. Organizations were approached using a snowballing sampling method (Idris, Dollard, & Yulita, 2014). The majority of participants were females (N=138, 53.9%), and most

of them were Malaysians (N= 248, 96.9%). Participants were working in several types of industries: the service industry (65.2%), consumer product industry (18%), with the rest from other types of industries. The number of participants per team ranged from four to 11.

Instruments

We used English questionnaires to retain its original meaning and purpose. Hence, to ensure that participants have reasonable English ability, we asked the head of the department to only select employees who had an adequate ability to understand English.

Hierarchical organizational culture is measured using six items from Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). An example of an item is 'The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies'. The variable is measured by allocating a score up to 100 among the four types of organizational cultures (clan culture, adhocracy culture, market culture, and hierarchical culture). Higher scores on hierarchical culture represent higher levels of hierarchical organizational culture within the organization.

Transformational leadership is measured using 23 items from Transformational Leadership Inventory (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). The scale consists of six aspects of transformational leadership: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, individualised support, and intellectual stimulation. This scale has been tested as being one-dimensional, hence it is a one-factor construct (Podsakoff et al., 1990). The scale ranged from 1 'Strongly disagree' to 7 is 'Strongly Agree'. An example of the item is 'My leader has a clear understanding of where we are going'.

Performance feedback is measured using three items adapted from Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, and Schreurs (2003). The variable is measured using a 5 point Likert scale from 1 to 5 where 1 is 'Never' and 5 is 'Always'. An example of the items is 'I receive sufficient information about the goal of my work'.

Job performance is measured using six items from Hochwarter, Treadway, Witt, and Ferris (2006). The variable is measured using a 5 point Likert scale where 1 is 'Strongly disagree' and 5 is 'Strongly agree'. Examples of the items are 'I find creative and effective solutions to problems' and 'I assume a sense of ownership in the quality of personal performance'.

Analysis strategy

To evaluate the suitability of hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership as multilevel constructs, we ran an inter-rater agreement, that is, $r(WG)(J)$ (see James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The values for hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership were .94 and .95, fulfilling the criteria recommended by Mathieu, Maynard, Taylor, Gilson, and Ruddy (2007) which states that the value must be higher than .70 to show the suitability of hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership for aggregation at organizational levels. We also evaluated the intraclass coefficient (I) ($ICC[I]$) for hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership at Time 1 (T1), producing a value of .13 and .18 respectively. The results indicated that 13% of the variance in hierarchical organizational culture and 18% of the variance in transformational leadership was due to organizational factors. Values ranging from .05 to .20 are considered acceptable (Bliese, 2000). We also ran a one-way random effect analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership. We found that the $F_{(III)}$ for hierarchical organizational

culture=1.74 and the transformational leadership=2.23 with both $p < .001$, thus indicating that the variance in hierarchical organizational culture and transformational leadership was due to organizational levels.

To test our hypothesis, first we regressed lower level outcomes variables level on lower level independent variables. Then, we evaluated a cross level effect (i.e. L2 predict L1) (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006).

An example of an individual-level equation is as follows:

$$\text{Job Performance} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Performance Feedback}) + r$$

Following is an example of a cross-level effect equation:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Job Performance} = \beta_0 + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{Transformational leadership}) + u_{0j}$$

For lower-level direct effect (Hypothesis 3), the lower-level variable's dependent variable was regressed against the independent variable. For example, for hypothesis 3, job performance is regressed against performance feedback (see Model 1).

To test moderation effects (Hypothesis 5 and 6), for example on hypothesis 5, first we regress the lower variable dependents (performance feedback) against the independent variable (transformational leadership) at lower level. After that, we add transformational leadership on level 2 on the first line, followed by the moderator (hierarchical culture) on the second line of level 2 (see Model 6).

An example of a moderation analysis HLM equation is as follows:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Performance feedback} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Transformational leadership}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{Transformational leadership}) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = G_{10} + G_{11} (\text{Hierarchical culture}) + u_{1j}$$

Finally, to test the mediation effects (Hypotheses 4), a split design was used to test each part of the mediation pathway *ab* using estimates of path *a* ($X \rightarrow M$) and path *b* ($M \rightarrow Y$) (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). For example, to test Hypothesis 6, the following mediation steps needed to be fulfilled, as noted by Baron and Kenny (1986). In step 1, there is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow Y$ (Transformational leadership \rightarrow Job performance) (Model 3). In step 2, there is also a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow M$ (Transformational leadership \rightarrow Performance feedback) (Model 5). In step 3, we also found a significant relationship between $M \rightarrow Y$, in the presence of X (Transformational leadership + Performance feedback \rightarrow Job performance) (Model 2). As indicated in step 3, if the relationship from X to Y remains significant with the inclusion of M , then it is partial mediation. If the addition of M produces an insignificant relationship from X to Y , it can be considered as full mediation. To confirm the mediation pathway relationship, we used the Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) as this has been suggested as more applicable for multilevel analyses. We tested the mediation pathway by using estimates of Path *a* ($X \rightarrow M$) and Path *b* ($M \rightarrow Y$). The mediation effect is confirmed if the values of lower level (LL) and upper level (UL) do not contain zero (0) (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). The Monte Carlo test was conducted using a 95% confidence interval (CI) and was tested on 20,000 repetitions.

5.4 Results

Table 1 shows descriptive analysis and correlations between all variables at levels 1 and 2. Results for HLM analyses are shown in Table 2. A summary of the findings is illustrated in Figure 2.

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Table 5.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Pearson Bivariate Correlations

Variables	Mean	S.D.	α	No. Items	1	2	3	4	F	ICC(I)
1. Transformational leadership	3.02	0.63	0.87	23	1				2.231*	0.1839
2. Hierarchical culture	26.53	8.51	0.78	6	-.18*	1			1.738*	0.1325
3. Performance feedback	9.2	2.50	0.83	3	.49*	-.25*	1		2.352*	0.1854
4. Job performance	7.3	1.25	0.86	4	.31*	-.15*	.30*	1	1.524*	0.0378

Note. * $p < .05$, $N=256$, team = 44

Table 5.2: HLM Analyses of Cross-Level Effects of HC and TFL on Lower Level Outcomes

	Job Performance	Job Performance	Job Performance	Job Performance	Performance Feedback	Performance Feedback
Model	1	2	3	4	5	6
Lower Level Effects						
Performance feedback	.22(.08)*	.23(.07)*				
Cross Level Effects						
Transformational leadership		.31(.08)*	.37(.08)*		.46(.07)*	
Transformational leadership x Hierarchical culture				-.12(.07)*		-.15(.04)*

Hypothesis 1 proposes that transformational leadership (TFL) positively relates to performance feedback. The findings showed that transformational leadership is positively related to performance feedback ($\gamma=.46$, $p<0.05$) (see Model 5). Hence, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposes that transformational leadership (TFL) positively relates to job performance. We found that transformational leadership is positively related to job performance ($\gamma=.37$, $p<0.05$) (see Model 3). Hence, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that performance feedback positively relates to job performance. Performance feedback is positively related to job performance ($\beta=.22$, $p<0.05$) (see Model 1). Hence, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4 proposes that performance feedback mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. To evaluate the mediation hypothesis, we used the parameter estimate value for Model 5 as the value for the direct effect from transformational leadership to performance feedback ($\gamma=.46$, $SE=.07$) and the parameter estimate value from Model 2 for performance feedback \rightarrow job performance with transformational leadership in the model ($\beta=.23$, $SE=.07$). Again, our analysis confirmed the mediation effect from transformational leadership to job performance via performance feedback (95% CI, $LL=.03897$, $UL=.1822$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5 proposes that hierarchical culture (HC) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and performance feedback. The presence of hierarchical culture with transformational leadership showed negative effect on performance feedback ($\gamma=-.12$, significant at one-tailed) (see Model 6). Hence, hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6 proposes that hierarchical culture (HC) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. The presence of hierarchical culture with transformational leadership showed negative effect on job performance ($\gamma = -.15$, $p < 0.05$) (see Model 4). Hence, hypothesis 6 is supported.

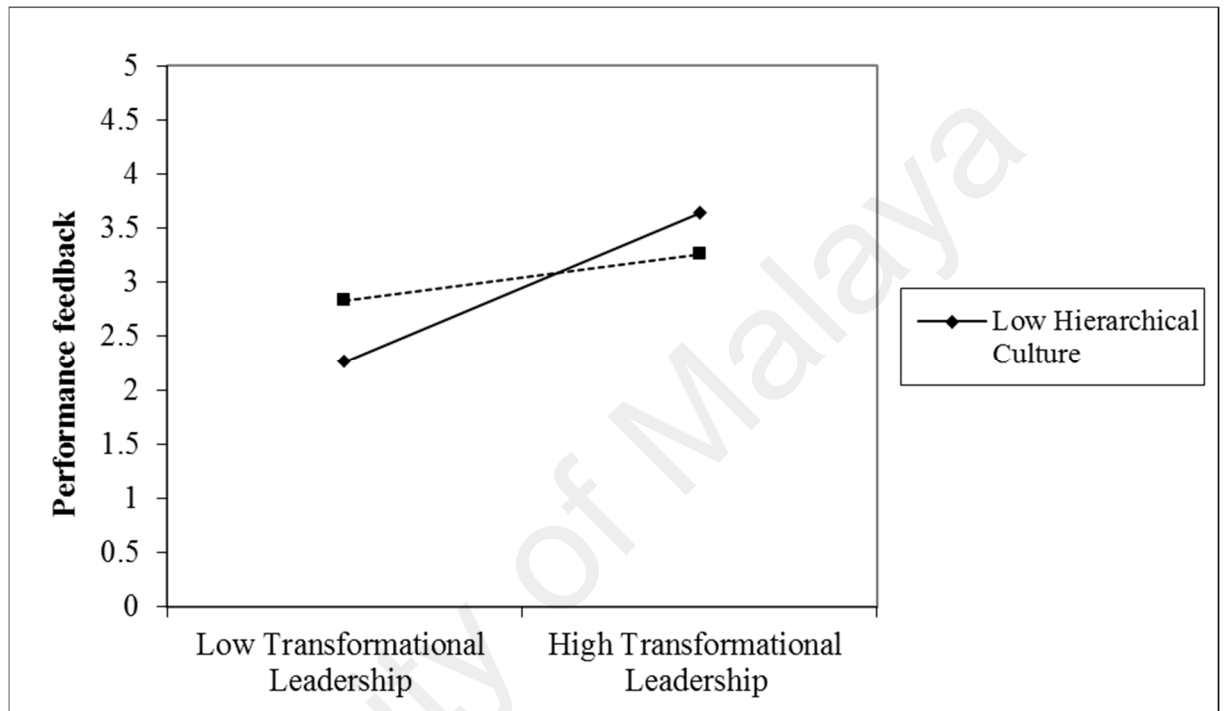


Figure 5.2. Interaction between transformational leadership and hierarchical culture on performance feedback

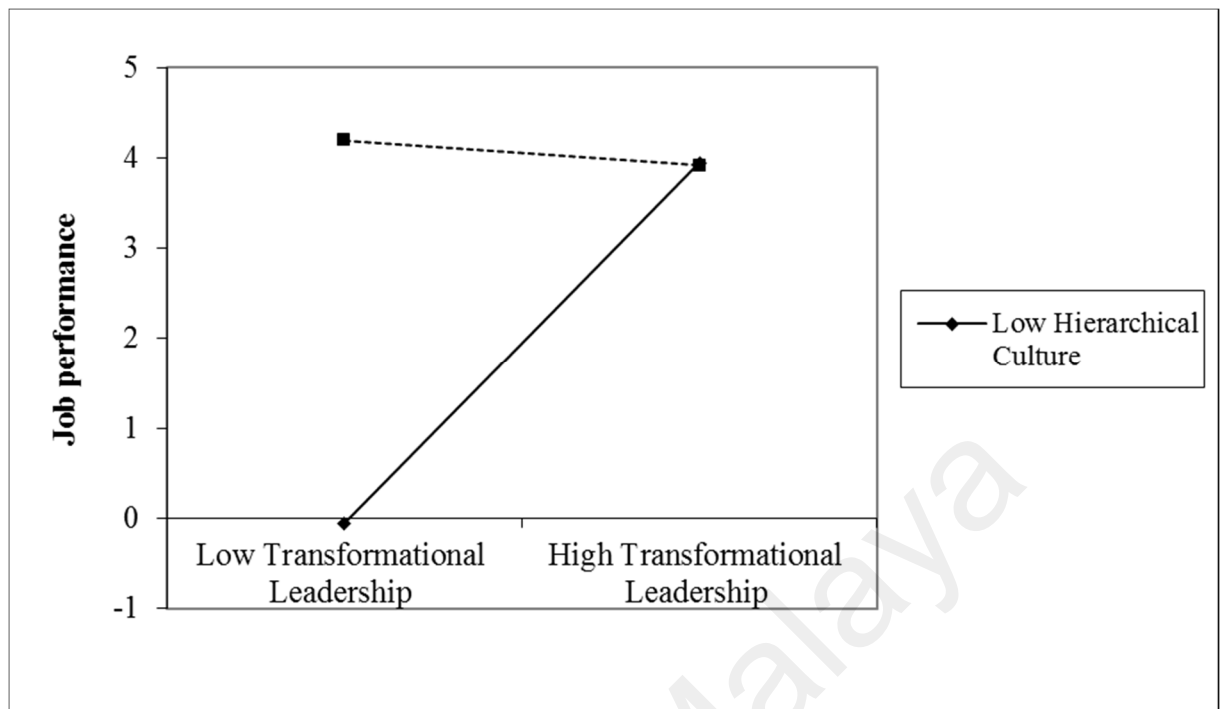


Figure 5.3. Interaction between transformational leadership and hierarchical culture on job performan

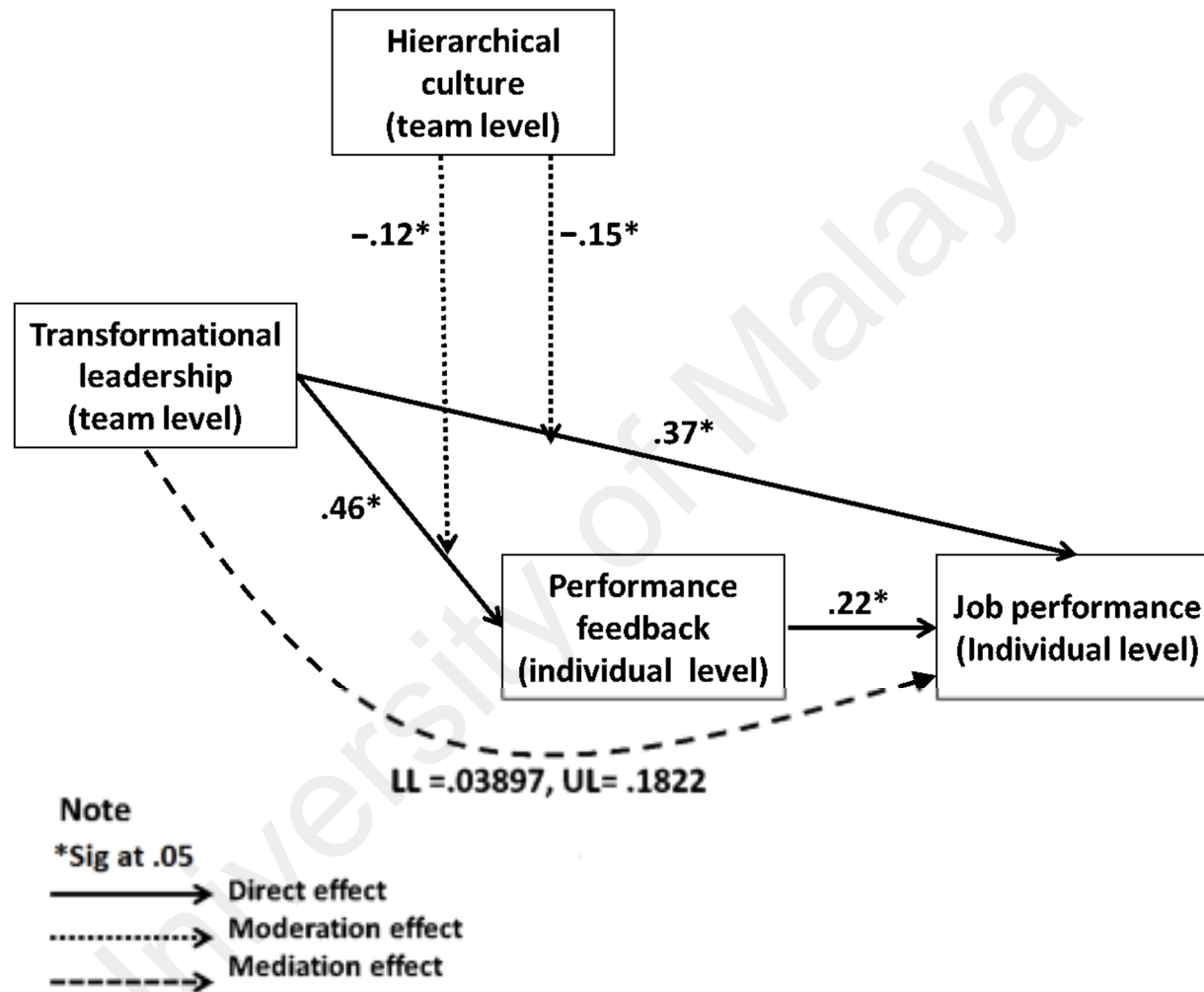


Figure 5.4. The final model

5.5 Discussion

The main objective of the current study is to evaluate the effects of transformational leadership (TFL) on employees' performance feedback and job performance. In addition, we investigated how hierarchical culture (HC) moderated the relationships between them. Overall we found that, although TFL leads to a higher level of performance feedback and job performance, their relationships become negative in the presence of HC.

In essence, we found that TFL leads to a higher level of employee job performance, consistent with previous literature that suggested numerous positive outcomes that TFL provides (see Chi & Pan, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Transformational leadership (TFL) stirs motivation within employees by taking into consideration each employee's capabilities and skills (Bass, 1999). It is possible to increase employees' motivation provided that they are offered sufficient feedback on their performance. With performance feedback, employees acknowledge their current state and the anticipated state, creating a gap that promotes the intrinsic motivation to perform better at the workplace (Carpentier & Mageau, 2013). All in all, the presence of a higher level of job performance strongly suggests the role of performance feedback as a type of job resource provided to the employees through transformational leadership (TFL).

In relation to the aspect of organizational culture, our study identified the negative effects of HC on TFL and its effects on employees. However, while TFL has shown higher levels of performance feedback and job performance, HC moderated these relationships. The presence of HC has turned the relationship into a negative relationship. Stated otherwise, the presence of HC has led to a lower level of performance feedback and job performance. This is evident in Figure 2 and Figure 3

that presented the interaction effects between hierarchical culture and transformational leadership on performance feedback and job performance. Hierarchical culture (HC) which emphasizes the stability within the organization, does not allow freedom for the employees. Instead, it restricts the employees' freedom by not giving them autonomy (Cameron et al., 2006). Previous literature on hierarchical organizational culture (HC) suggested negative relationships with job resources and job performance (Deshpande & Farley, 2004; Pool, 2000). Malaysia, with perceived high collectivistic and power distance characteristics, has a lower level of trust among individuals (Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Nevertheless, although their trust level is low, the employees still exhibit loyalty towards higher authorities (Jen, Chou, Lin, & Tsai, 2012). The type of culture where authorities withhold information from one another in the form of power and position creates an environment that is not conducive to provide sufficient performance feedback. This will limit the ability of employees to improve themselves in the workplace. As a result, the employees' job performance is reduced (Gillet, Gagne, Sauvagere, & Fouquereau, 2013).

Putting them all together, it can be seen that both factors play important roles in influencing employees' outcomes. To be specific, TFL is a positive antecedent, whereas HC turns it into a negative relationship. These observations can be explained through social exchange theory (Crozanpano & Mitchell, 2005) which basically explains how employees behave according to their surroundings. If their surroundings are positive and the employer treats the employees with care, the employees in return will perform better at work. This, in turn, will benefit the organization.

Having said that, more importantly, looking at the interactions between organizational culture and leadership style, the results of the current study suggest that the structure of organizational aspects, namely organizational culture and leadership

style, should be aligned and made coherent to avoid confusion among employees on how the organization is run. The existence of conflicts disrupts the effective and productive running of operations (Tanghe, Wisse, & van der Flier, 2010).

5.6 Conclusion

The current study employed a recent multilevel approach in testing the relationships between organizational levels and individual levels (see Bliese & Jex, 2002). Considered as a new approach emerging in literature, this approach is still rare among scholars, albeit promising. Multilevel approach begins through a consideration that social contexts such as organizational leadership, organizational climate, and organizational culture may affect individuals (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). They are seen as higher level influencers as they command a top-bottom influence on employees (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Schwartz, 1999).

Future studies may also employ a longitudinal method coupled with a multilevel approach in observing the effects that are due to environment factors (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). Zapf, Dormann, and Frese (1996) recommend the use of a longitudinal approach to counter the weakness of a cross-sectional approach. The gap when adopting a longitudinal approach may range from three months (i.e. Idris et al., 2014) to two years (i.e. Jimmieson, Terry, & Callan, 2004).

The current study conveys the negative impacts of HC on employees. This is applicable in Eastern countries that are famously known as having a collectivistic and hierarchical workspace (Naor, Linderman, & Schroeder, 2010). These organizations should place more attention on the possible negative impacts of hierarchical culture. Individuals tend to be appreciative when given job resources such as performance feedback, as this may help them in completing their work (Greve, 2003; McFarland & Buehler, 1995).

In comparing organizational culture and leadership style, organizational culture dictates and influences expected behavior more than the leaders do (Bass & Avolio, 1993). In circumstances where organizational culture is more difficult to change compared to leadership styles, using the concept of leader-culture fit (Nieminen, Biermeier-Hanson, & Denison, 2013), leaders may seek to align their leadership style in order to fit organizational values. However, there may be dire consequences from having leaders that do not conform to the values of organizational culture as they can diverge from organizational objectives rather than adding synergy to the organization (Aryee, Walumbwa, Zhou, & Hartnell, 2012; Nieminen et al., 2013). Hence, although transformational leadership is associated with positive influences on employees, we suggest organizations adopt a leadership style that can fit the hierarchical organizational culture and be practised in collectivistic societies such as Malaysia and other Asian countries.

CHAPTER 6

Article 4

The Linkages between Hierarchical Culture and Empowering Leadership on Employees' Job Engagement: Work Meaningfulness as a Mediator

Abstract

This research stems from the notion that organizational factors, such as leadership styles and organizational culture, can influence employee behavior. Although empowering leaders have been shown to have a positive influence effect on their employees, hierarchical culture can also influence employees' behavior in the opposite direction. In order to investigate their concurrent effects on employees, this study tested the effect of hierarchical culture and empowering leadership on job engagement, via work meaningfulness. The study was undertaken among 134 employees from 28 teams from private organizations using a longitudinal survey. We hypothesized that, while hierarchical culture at Time 1 (T1) would decrease work meaningfulness at Time 2 (T2), empowering leadership at T1 would enhance work meaningfulness at T2. We also predicted that work meaningfulness would mediate empowering leadership and job engagement. Overall, the results supported the notion that empowering leadership increases job engagement, via work meaningfulness. However, we were unable to find support for the view that hierarchical culture reduces job engagement.

Keywords: hierarchical culture, empowering leadership, work meaningfulness, engagement, longitudinal

6.1 Introduction

For several decades, research on occupational psychology and job stress has principally focused on the negative side of employees' well-being. More recently, scholars argue that insufficient attention has been directed towards the positive features of jobs including the level of employee engagement (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). As a result, job engagement is now a topic that has been receiving increasing attention in the field of management and organizational psychology because of its positive association with job performance (Idris, Dollard, & Tuckey, 2015); organizational commitment (Vecina, Chacón, Sueiro, & Barrón, 2012); employees' intention to stay (Parkes & Langford, 2008); and job satisfaction (Giallonardo, Wong, & Iwasiw, 2010). Although the concept of job engagement is considered to be a new topic in the job stress literature (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), scholars have suggested that it is a core construct that can be positioned as the polar alternative to burnout (Bakker et al., 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Since employees who are engaged are considered to experience less burnout (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), both concepts are seen to belong to the same continuum (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Accordingly, consistent with this view, psychometric tools have recently been developed to measure both burnout and job engagement simultaneously, with the consideration that employees who experience less burnout can be treated as highly engaged employees (Demerouti & Bakker, 2008).

Several factors have been identified as being predictors of job engagement. One of the most important of these is the availability of sufficient job resources (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As confirmed in one meta-analysis study (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010), job resources have a strong influence on employee engagement. However, while these findings have contributed useful knowledge to our understanding of job engagement, most explanations have relied heavily on a job

characteristics model and have tended to neglect the importance of organizational factors as precursors to job engagement. Some of the most important of these factors include the presence of a hierarchical culture and empowering leadership and particularly in relation to the extent to which they can influence the meaningfulness of work. In our view, such factors are likely to work in opposite directions. Specifically, while empowering leaders can foster employees' motivation, hierarchical culture may decrease employees' job engagement. These basis for these conclusions is provided in the review which follows.

6.2 Literature Review

Work meaningfulness and job engagement

The relationship between job resources and job engagement has been extensively discussed in the literature (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), but how work meaningfulness may be able to increase job engagement is less clear. Engagement is defined as '*a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption*' (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). It represents a state of mind in which employees experience their work with a sense of stimulation and energy while carrying out their tasks (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Previous studies have revealed that engaged employees feel happier and are more effective in their job in comparison to employees with a low level of engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009; Xanthoupoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009).

The Job Demands–Resources (JD–R) model highlights how job engagement is a consequence of better organizational support and a conducive working environment. In other words, job engagement results from higher job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources refers to '*those physical, psychological,*

social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands at the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth development' (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001, p. 501). Bakker and Demerouti (2008) argue that job resources may function as a motivational pathway as they can direct positive-gain spiral effects onto the individual.

In the research study which follows, meaningfulness is conceptualised as an indicator of job resources. We argue that in conditions where employees perceive their job to be meaningful, indirectly employees are more engaged, as meaningfulness makes them feel they are appreciated (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). This is consistent with the notion that work meaningfulness provides employees with intrinsic motivation as they have a sense of being valuable and appreciated (Morrison, Burke, & Green, 2007).

Although discussion about the term “work meaningfulness” has been mentioned in some studies (see Grant, 2007; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), it remains uncommon in the literature for work meaningfulness to be explored as an antecedent to job engagement. According to Seligman (2002), work meaningfulness allows individuals to find purpose, significance, and importance in their jobs. Work meaningfulness also permits employees to take ownership and gain a sense of responsibility, leading to them being more empowered in doing their tasks. Employees who feel that their job is meaningful, also feel that they can achieve better work outcomes and invest their full effort to fulfill organizational tasks (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

In addition, there are several reasons to believe that work meaningfulness represents a job resource. First, employees' ability to feel a sense of work

meaningfulness includes fulfillment, autonomy, satisfaction, and the ability to learn (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Steger & Dik, 2010). Similarly, Idris et al. (2015) found that the ability to learn and have the freedom to explore possibilities while working makes employees feel more engaged. Second, work meaningfulness fulfills psychological needs. Self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000) argues that fulfilling psychological needs is one of the intrinsic aspects that increases employee motivation. This theory indeed points to work meaningfulness as a job resource that functions in a similar way to other job resources, which can then lead to job engagement (Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). As meaningfulness is also a fundamental human need (Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001), indirectly it will help employees to feel better and motivated while carrying out their job. For these reasons, we anticipate finding a positive relationship across time between work meaningfulness and subsequent job engagement.

Hierarchical Culture and Empowering Leadership and their Relationship to Job Engagement

In general, organizational culture is defined as the shared beliefs, perceptions, and expectations that characterize how the organization came to solve problems in a particular way (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013, p. 371). Hierarchical culture sets the rules and expected behaviors among employees with guidelines to behave in a certain way. Although there are many types of organizational culture, hierarchical culture is seen as the one that has the most control over its employees (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Hierarchical culture also places emphasis on stability, is inward-focused and system-oriented, and has a high level of internal maintenance. In addition, it is regarded as a strong culture due to the high centralization and formalization of its structure (Martins & Martins, 2003). Although hierarchical culture is able to manifest

the positive aspects of work, scholars argue that some negative consequences in terms of employee well-being are due to having a high hierarchical culture at work (Biong, Nygaard, & Silkoset, 2010). This scenario is becoming more apparent in specific cultures, in particular, in the Malaysian workplace culture which exhibits a high power distance (Abdullah, 1996) and in which employees are expected to behave according to management rules (Idris, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010).

A good culture normally supports adaptability (Chatman, Caldwell, O'Reilly, & Doerr, 2014). Hierarchical culture, in its dimensions of internal focus and rigidity, does not allow much freedom for its employees (Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Bhuian, & Taylor, 2009). The imbalance of authority and power is represented through this culture's restriction of the level of communications among employees (Friebel & Raith, 2004). Hence, employees will not be able to obtain the information needed to make a better evaluation and judgment in relation to their tasks. When employees do not have opportunities to communicate appropriately and tasks are controlled and restricted, they are less likely to be engaged at work.

While hierarchical culture can affect employees' performance in negative ways, empowering leadership may enhance job engagement. By definition, empowering leadership can be described as '*behaviors whereby power is shared with subordinates and that raise their level of intrinsic motivation*' (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006, p. 1240). When subordinates are given freedom and autonomy, these become motivational factors for them to be more proactive in their work. It has been found that highly motivated subordinates are emotionally engaged in their work (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000). Empowering leaders also encourage self-development and provide support for learning opportunities (Pearce & Sims, 2002).

The rationale behind the mechanism of empowering leadership can be explained through the context of self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986) which would suggest that employees might obtain a sense of confidence through doing their job. Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp (2005) discovered in their study that empowering leadership enhances employees' self-efficacy due to the leaders' behavior that creates an atmosphere of self-efficacy where employees can effectively carry out their tasks. In these conditions, employees will exert a higher level of effort and become more persistent in their behaviors which can lead to the accomplishment of goals (Chebat & Kollias, 2000). Empowering leadership styles also appreciate the talents, abilities, and capabilities of every employee and makes use of them through synergy. With reference to the present research, these findings suggest that one would expect a negative relationship across time between hierarchical organizational culture and job engagement, whereas one would expect empowering leadership to be positively related to job engagement.

Influence of Hierarchical Culture vs. Empowering Leadership on Work Meaningfulness

Although not often discussed in previous studies, hierarchical culture and empowering leadership may create different working conditions. In other words, whereas hierarchical culture may affect work in negative ways, empowering leadership may create positive working conditions. Specifically, the reason why hierarchical organizational culture may reduce job meaningfulness can be explained through the Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). Hierarchical organizational culture implies very much a top to bottom system of hierarchy, with all processes required to go through a very systematic procedure without being questioned. Hierarchical culture also means that only upper

management is allowed to make final decisions, thus creating less flexibility in the work (Giberson et al., 2009). Daniels and Greguras (2014) argue that inequality is often present in hierarchical settings, which then affects most organizational processes. Employees feel that they lack the autonomy to do their work and feel restrained by conditions and rules imposed by higher management (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Unlike hierarchical culture that focuses very much on results or outcomes, empowering leadership focuses on employees' well-being (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012) and organizational effectiveness (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011). With this less-structured leadership, leaders create work that is more meaningful. Studies have found that certain types of leadership style, such as transformational leadership, will result in employees perceiving their job to be more meaningful (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). In the context of empowering leadership, the leader delegates power, authority, decision making, and competency to the employees (Pearce, 2004). With such an approach, the leader expects a level of self-management, independent thought processes, the ability to perceive problems as challenges, and the seeking out of opportunities for learning. As a result, employees possess self-confidence and are willing to be accountable for the actions and decisions taken while, at the same time, feeling acknowledged with their successes rewarded (Burke et al., 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Empowering leadership also possesses characteristics, such as consulting, task nurturing, and delegation (Hoch, 2014). In summary, we anticipated in our research that hierarchical culture would be negatively related to work meaningfulness across time, whereas empowering leadership would be positively related to work meaningfulness.

Work Meaningfulness as Mediator between Empowering Leadership and Job Engagement

The relationship between empowering leadership and job engagement has been found in a previous study (Tuckey et al., 2012). Although these authors have used cognitive resources rather than work meaningfulness, it appears that empowering leaders may create working conditions that can enhance employees' well-being, rather than creating working conditions that are less interesting. Similarly, by using transformational leadership, Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, and MacKee (2007), for example, found that leaders who are focused on employees' well-being potentially will provide their followers with meaningful tasks. These findings led us to predict that work meaningfulness would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership and subsequent job engagement.

The Present Study

In this paper, we present the findings of a longitudinal study that examines the extent to which future job engagement can be predicted using prior measure of organizational culture. A summary of the specific hypotheses we sought to investigate are summarised in Figure 1. We argue that our research contributes to the literature in several ways. First, most research studies on job engagement have been derived from the individual-level approach (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2009) and, in particular, have used job resources as an antecedent. Although a few studies have used empowering leadership as an antecedent to job engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), less is known about how hierarchical culture may also influence job engagement at the individual level. Second, while most studies have used various types of job resources, such as supervisor support (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009) and social support (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005), as indicators, few studies have attempted to explain how work meaningfulness is able to boost job engagement. Third, whereas previous studies on leadership and organizational culture have been

Western-dominated, this study seeks evidence from an Eastern culture, that is, in Malaysia. This is important to the literature as Malaysia is regarded as one of the countries that exhibit a high power distance and a highly collectivistic work culture (Abdullah, 1996; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

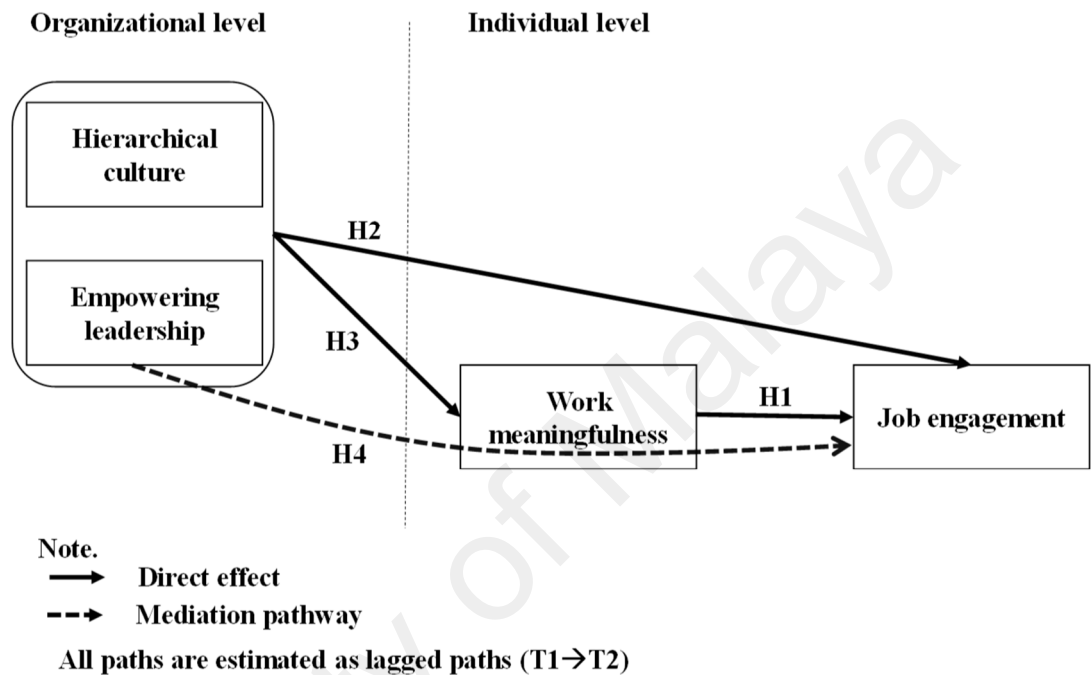


Figure 6.1. Hypotheses and research model

From a methodological perspective, this research is progressive in that it treats both hierarchical culture and empowering leadership as multilevel variables, as both represent employees' "shared" perception of their own organization's culture and leadership style (Schein, 2010; Tuckey et al., 2012). This is important as each team or organization basically has its own unique organizational culture (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006) and leadership practice (Day & Harrison, 2007; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Thus, by using the multilevel approach, it is possible to detect how organizational factors (upper level) influence the psychological process at the employees' level (lower level) (Bliese & Jex, 2002; Mathieu & Chen, 2010).

6.3 Methods

Participants

The current study employed a multilevel longitudinal (Time 1 and 2) design with 134 employees from 28 teams from private organizations in Malaysia by using a snowball sampling method. This method was considered appropriate as Malaysian employees are not very willing to participate in surveys (Idris, Dollard, & Yulita, 2014). The time lag between Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2) was one year. To initiate the study, emails were sent to heads of departments seeking their approval to participate in the study. Upon receiving their consent to participate, arrangements were made to meet with them to brief them on the purpose of the study and to provide instructions on completing the questionnaires. At T1, 60 organizations were approached and 44 teams (73%) agreed to participate (N=256, 62% response rate). At T2, these same teams were approached again, with 134 employees from 28 teams returning the questionnaires (52.3% response rate). The number of participants in each team ranged from four to nine.

Instruments

Hierarchical organizational culture was measured using the relevant six of 24 items from the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). This measure has previously been used in several studies (Lau & Ngo, 2004; Naranjo-Valencia, Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011; Obenchain & Johnson, 2004) and has been found to have good psychometric validity (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). The OCAI measures four types of organizational culture, focusing on the following six aspects: dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. However, some scholars have only used the relevant organizational culture in

their studies (Lau & Ngo, 2004; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2011; Obenchain & Johnson, 2004). In the context of the current study, as our interest was only in hierarchical organizational culture, only the six items that measure each aspect of hierarchical organizational culture were used. Within each aspect, there are four statements, with each one requiring participants to allocate a rating of a number of points up to 100, according to the relative significance of each statement to their assessment of organizational culture. In this way, more points were allocated to statements considered more relevant, with fewer points allocated to statements deemed to be less relevant to participants' organizational experience. Examples of these statements include 'The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency' and 'The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships'. The reliability of the scale was established (T1 $\alpha=.78$; T2 $\alpha=.81$).

Empowering leadership was measured using six items from the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (Pearce & Sims, 2002). Examples of these items include 'My team leader encourages me to find solutions to my problems without his/her (their) direct input.' and 'My team leader encourages me to develop my skills and abilities.' The scale ranged from 0 (never) to 4 (always). The reliability of the scale was established (T1 $\alpha=.87$; T2 $\alpha=.86$).

Work meaningfulness was measured using three items from the Meaningfulness of Work subscale derived from the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) (Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005). The scale ranged from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very large extent). Examples of the

items include 'Is your work meaningful?' and 'Do you feel that the work you are doing is important?' The reliability of the scale was established (T1 $\alpha=.88$; T2 $\alpha=.81$).

Job engagement was measured using nine items from the short version of the Utrecht Job Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). This consists of three subscales, namely: vigor (e.g., 'At work, I feel full of energy'), dedication (e.g., 'My work inspires me'), and absorption (e.g., 'I focus on my work'). The scale ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The UWES-9 displays high convergent validity with the original scale whereby correlations for each dimension range from .90 to .95 (Schaufeli et al., 2006). The reliability of the scale was established (T1 $\alpha=.93$; T2 $\alpha=.89$).

Analysis strategy

To evaluate the suitability of hierarchical culture and empowering leadership as multilevel constructs, we checked inter-rater agreement, that is, $r_{WG(J)}$ (see James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984), and found that the values for hierarchical culture and empowering leadership were .95 and .93. Thus, they were higher than the cut-off of .70 as recommended by Mathieu, Maynard, Taylor, Gilson, and Ruddy (2007). We also evaluated the intraclass coefficient ($ICC[I]$) for hierarchical culture and empowering leadership at T1. The $ICC(I)$ for hierarchical culture was .12 and for empowering leadership .17, indicating that 12% and 17% of the variance of both variables were due to organizational factors. Values ranging from .05 to .20 are considered acceptable (Bliese, 2000). We also ran a one-way random effect analysis of variance (ANOVA) for hierarchical culture and empowering leadership, with the result of $F_{(III)}=2.31$ ($p<.001$) for hierarchical culture, and for empowering leadership $F_{(III)}=2.12$ ($p=.02$), indicating justification of the aggregation for these variables.

To test the hypotheses, three types of analyses were used comprising lower-level effects, cross-level effects, and mediation effects. Our analysis was initiated by regressing the lower-level direct effects variables, followed by the cross-level direct effects variables (Mathieu & Taylor, 2007). In each test, we controlled the variables at T1 for the outcomes variable.

An example of an individual-level equation is as follows:

$$\text{Job engagement T2} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Work meaningfulness T1}) + \beta (\text{Job engagement T1}) + r$$

Following is an example of a cross-level effect equation:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Job engagement T2} = \beta_0 + \beta (\text{Job engagement T1}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{Hierarchical culture T1}) + G_{02} (\text{Empowering leadership T1}) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = G_{10} + G_{11} * W1j + u_{1j}$$

For lower-level direct effects (Hypothesis 1), the lower-level variable's T2 dependent variable was regressed on the T1 predictor, controlling for the dependent measure at T1. For example, for Hypothesis 1, work meaningfulness at T1 predicts job engagement at T2; therefore, job engagement at T2 is regressed on work meaningfulness at T1, controlling for job engagement at T1 (see Model 1, Table 2).

For cross-level effects (Hypotheses 2 and 3), the lower-level variable's T2 dependent variable was regressed on the T1 predictor, controlling for the dependent measure at T1. For example, for Hypothesis 2, hierarchical culture and empowering leadership at T1 predict job engagement at T2; job engagement at T2 is regressed on hierarchical culture at T1 and empowering leadership at T1, controlling for job engagement at T1 (see Model 2, Table 2).

Finally, to test the mediation effects (Hypothesis 4), a split longitudinal design was used to test each part of the mediation pathway ab using estimates of path a ($X \rightarrow M$) and path b ($M \rightarrow Y$) as lagged effects (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). For example, to test Hypothesis 4, the following mediation steps were needed (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, there is a significant relationship from $X \rightarrow Y$ (empowering leadership at T1 \rightarrow job engagement at T2) (see Model 4, Table 2). Second, there is a significant relationship from $X \rightarrow M$ (empowering leadership at T1 \rightarrow work meaningfulness at T2) (see Model 1, Table 2). Third, there is a significant relationship from $M \rightarrow Y$, after controlling for M at T1 and for X at T1 (work meaningfulness at T1 \rightarrow job engagement at T2, after controlling for job engagement at T1 and empowering leadership at T1) (see Model 3, Table 2). Provided the third step is not fulfilled, this is then considered to be partial mediation. A Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) was used over the Sobel test as it was suggested that the former is more applicable for mediation in multilevel analyses (Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006). The Monte Carlo test revealed a 95% confidence interval (CI) and was tested on 20,000 repetitions.

Table 6.1: Means, standard deviations, reliability, and Pearson's bivariate correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	α	No. Items	1	2	3	4	5	F	ICC(I)
1. Hierarchical culture at Time 1	27.39	9.08	0.81	6	1					2.31***	0.1707
2. Empowering leadership at Time 1	22.51	4.10	0.86	6	-0.06	1				2.12**	0.1200
3. Work meaningfulness at Time 1	15.11	3.04	0.88	4	-.18*	.42***	1			1.50*	0.0684
4. Work meaningfulness at Time 2	15.11	3.04	0.81	4	-.13*	.40***	.56***	1		2.43***	0.1763
5. Job engagement at Time 1	31.01	6.02	0.93	9	-.17**	.37***	.48***	.41***	1	2.37***	0.1832
6. Job engagement at Time 2	32.74	5.47	0.89	9	-.03	.18**	.19***	.20***	.24***	2.42***	0.1905

Note: Bivariate correlations only between lower-level variables; SD=standard deviation; N (individuals)=134; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 6.2: Hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) analyses of lower-level outcomes and cross-level effects of hierarchical culture and empowering leadership on lower-level outcomes

Effect	Job engagement at T2	Job engagement at T2	Job engagement at T2	Work meaningfulness at T2
Model	1	2	3	4
Lower-level effects				
Job engagement at T1	.18(.07)**	.18(.07)*	.13(.05)*	
Work meaningfulness at T1	.11(.07) [†]		.21(.10)*	.09(.06)
Cross-level effects				
Hierarchical culture at T1		-.12(.08)	-.12(.08)	-.16(.06)*
Empowering leadership at T1		.19(.10) [†]	.19(.10) [†]	.43(.06)*

Note: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error (SE).
N (individuals)=134; N (teams)=28; [†] significant at one-tailed; * p<.05; ** p<.01.

6.4 Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, reliability, and Pearson's bivariate correlations between the study variables. The first hypothesis was that work meaningfulness at T1 would positively relate to job engagement at T2. As indicated in Model 1 (Table 2), there was a relationship between work meaningfulness and job engagement ($\beta=.17$; $p=.01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Hypothesis 2 predicted that hierarchical culture at T1 would be negatively related to job engagement at T2, whereas empowering leadership at T1 would be positively related to job engagement at T2. As indicated in Model 2 (Table 2), the study found that hierarchical culture at T1 was not significantly associated with job engagement at T2, after controlling for job engagement at T1 ($\gamma=-.12$; $p>.05$). However, empowering leadership at T1 was positively related to job engagement at T2, after controlling for job engagement at T1 ($\gamma=.19$; $p<.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that hierarchical culture at T1 would be negatively related to work meaningfulness at T2, whereas empowering leadership at T1 would be positively related to work meaningfulness at T2. The results suggest that hierarchical culture at T1 was negatively related to work meaningfulness at T2, after controlling for work meaningfulness at T1 ($\gamma=-.16$; $p=.01$). As expected, empowering leadership at T1 was also significantly related to work meaningfulness at T2, after controlling for work meaningfulness at T1 ($\gamma=.43$; $p<.001$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported (see Model 4, Table 2).

Hypothesis 4 predicted that work meaningfulness would mediate the relationship between empowering leadership at T1 and job engagement at T2. In testing the hypothesis, the current study followed Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendation. The mediation effects were tested using the parameter estimate from

Model 4 (Table 2) as the value for the direct effect from empowering leadership at T1 to work meaningfulness at T2 ($\gamma=.43$; standard error [SE]=.09), and the parameter estimate from Model 3 (Table 2) was used to estimate the relationship between work meaningfulness and job engagement with empowering leadership at T1 in the model ($\beta=.21$; SE=.10). The significance of the indirect parameter estimate was tested using a Monte Carlo test. Results revealed that empowering leadership at T1 had a significant lagged effect on job engagement at T2 through work meaningfulness (90% CI; lower level [LL]=.005494; upper level [UL]=.1924). As the effect of empowering leadership at T1 on job engagement at T2 is not significant in the presence of the mediator (work meaningfulness), this indicates full mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

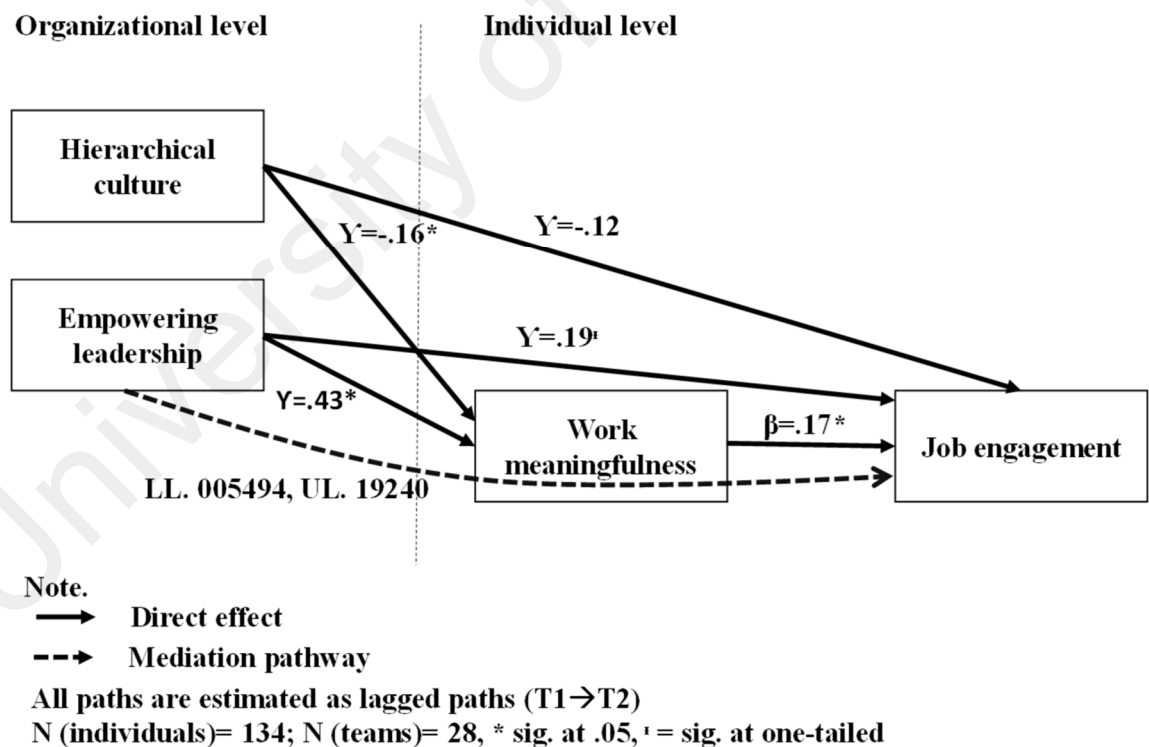


Figure 6. 2. The final model

6.5 Discussion

The main objectives of the study were to investigate the effect of hierarchical culture and empowering leadership on job engagement, particularly through work meaningfulness.

Overall, we found that only empowering leadership, and not hierarchical culture, has an effect on job engagement over time. Although we expected that hierarchical culture may reduce job engagement, this did not feature in our study. Organizational culture may play an important role in employees' behavior and motivation (Erez, 2010), but it seems that hierarchical culture does not necessarily influence job engagement. Studies to date on job engagement have discovered that aspects of job characteristics, such as supervisory support, job control, reward, and learning opportunities, are among the antecedents to job engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), as these factors interact with employees on a daily basis. Culture, however, only promotes imitation (Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2011) and does not indirectly influence employees' engagement.

However, as expected, we found that the leader's behavior plays an important role in enhancing employees' job engagement, even when this was tested over a one-year time lag. Leaders not only influence but also have direct interactions with their employees through verbal communication and bi-directional feedback (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel, & Martínez, 2011), thus boosting employees' engagement through trust and a mutual relationship. Empowering leaders also equip their employees with opportunities to learn new things (Tuckey et al., 2012); thus, employees feel a sense of belongingness. In the context of the current study, we found that employees' engagement is associated with leaders' behavior.

This is consistent with previous studies (Tuckey et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010) which have shown how leaders may increase employees' motivation, particularly through providing empowerment to their employees. It appears that empowering leaders enhance motivational forces within employees. While previous studies in this area have focused on psychological empowerment, mainly measured at the level of individual perception (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997), the current study goes beyond this explanation by using leadership as a key for job engagement. Although we replicated the assumption that empowering leadership enhances job engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010), through our comparison with hierarchical culture, we found that the effect of empowering leadership remains strong in contrast to that of hierarchical culture.

Interestingly, although only empowering leadership has an effect on job engagement, both empowering leadership and hierarchical culture were found to influence work meaningfulness, even if in opposite directions. We found that while empowering leaders create more meaningful jobs, hierarchical culture appears to create work conditions that are less meaningful. Our results are consistent with our earlier prediction as we expected leadership that prioritizes employees' well-being (Nielsen & Munir, 2009) to also provide conducive working conditions. We discovered that empowering leaders will take care of their employees by providing more resources to help them learn and to have a sense of appreciation. The reason this was expected was that these leaders empower employees to be responsible for their tasks through the autonomy given and more assured self-confidence (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). However, hierarchical culture that asserts its dominance by control over tasks (Magee & Galinsky,

2008) makes a job less meaningful. In other words, hierarchical culture tends to make tasks more bureaucratic and forces employees to obey rigid rules.

At the individual level, the current study found that work meaningfulness has a positive effect on job engagement, thus supporting the idea that work meaningfulness may enhance employee engagement (Hirschi, 2011). We found that when employees receive appropriate support from their organization, particularly through a positive job resource, this appears to increase employees' enthusiasm; a finding which is consistent with the conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 2001). The body of empirical research supports the notion that meaningful work provides a source of psychological empowerment, and indirectly job engagement (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Quinones, Van den Broeck, & De Witte, 2013).

As we tested our model in Malaysia, a country that is considered high in power distance and in terms of hierarchical structure, we saw that the effect of empowering leadership is more significant in fostering employees' job engagement. This reveals the necessity of implementing good leadership practice, even in a culture that emphasizes control and restricts the freedom of employees.

Limitations and future research directions

Although the current study used a longitudinal approach that was able to reduce some issues related to common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), we only tested our hypotheses using two waves of data collection. There are suggestions that the use of three waves is more appropriate in longitudinal design (Cole & Maxwell, 2003), especially when testing a mediation pathway.

In addition, the number of participants in the current study is relatively small, as it has been suggested by some scholars (Kreft & de Leeuw, 1998; Maas & Hox, 2005) that at least 30 teams be used at the upper level. However, the exact number remains unresolved because, as revealed in a simulation study (Mathieu, Aguinis, Culpepper, & Chen, 2012), as few as 25 teams at the upper level is at times reasonable. Moreover, taking into consideration the one-year gap between T1 and T2, the study suffered a high number of teams dropping out at T2 as some teams had dissolved, with the original 44 teams at T1 reduced to only 28 at T2. However, in line with some previous studies, our sample size is considered appropriate. Previous studies, for example, Hofmann, Morgeson, and Gerrass (2003) used 25 teams and 94 individuals, while Dollard, Tuckey, and Dormann (2012) used 23 teams and 139 individuals. Considering that Malaysian employees are not keen to participate in organizational research (Idris et al., 2014), we expect that the small number of participants did not overly affect our results.

In the current study, we used a single variable, work meaningfulness, to represent job resources. As indicated by previous studies, there are various types of job resources, such as social support (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), performance feedback (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003), and coaching (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009): future studies should also include other potential job resources. The current study's results would be different if we had used different types of job resources. In addition, in the context of the current study, we used hierarchical culture and empowering leadership as our upper-level variables. As transformational leadership may share similarities with empowering leadership (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Pearce & Sims, 2002), future research should

also test the effect of both these important types of leadership and how they influence job engagement.

It should be noted that the current study relied on employees' perceptions of the leadership style and organizational culture within their own organization. Future research should consider measuring leadership style by using supervisors' ratings, with job engagement measured by employees' self-rating. This approach may be more accurate, particularly in assessing leadership behavior and employees' motivation.

Theoretical and practical implications

We examined whether hierarchical culture and empowering leadership play a unique role in employees' job engagement, particularly through work meaningfulness. Although the presence of job resources has always been linked to job engagement, the antecedents to a specific job resource, namely, work meaningfulness, remain unclear. With both upper-level antecedents significantly influencing work meaningfulness, we found that they influenced work meaningfulness in opposite ways. While empowering leadership makes a job more meaningful, hierarchical culture seems to make a job less interesting.

Although we were unable to find support for the view that hierarchical culture leads to lower job engagement, it is interesting to note that we have at least shown that empowering leadership may increase job engagement. Empirical evidence to date on job engagement seems to have neglected the role of leaders by placing too great a focus on job conditions. The current study found that empowering leadership may create conducive job conditions for employees. Future research could also explore the possibility of good working conditions creating a good leader and how this occurs.

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979) has captured the individual's presence and existence in relation to others and to society. Employees' search for identity in life and at work go hand in hand, as finding meaning at work defines employees and drives them to be engaged in their workplace (Wrzesniewski, 2003). If an employee's work involves having a job which defines their self-identity, in a form which respects, values, and cherishes their individuality, talents, and skills, ongoing positive outcomes are the result for both the individual and the organization (Earl & Bright, 2007).

Organizations may take note that, despite the negative impacts of hierarchical organizational culture, the presence of empowering leadership allows employees to have higher work meaningfulness and to be more engaged with their work (Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2007). As work meaningfulness has been found to be an important element in employees' working lives (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003), organizations may realize the importance of helping to make employees' work more meaningful. The presence of work meaningfulness may, not only increase job engagement, it might also assist to reduce negative aspects of work, such as work stress. This study resonates with the work of Vecchio, Justin, and Pearce (2008) on the applicability of empowering leadership within a hierarchical power structure to reduce dysfunctional resistance towards the organization and to increase job performance.

6.6. Conclusion

The current study showed that organizational culture and leadership style are related to both work meaningfulness and job engagement. Thus, by understanding the importance of multilevel organizational culture and leadership styles and how these are perceived, it may be possible for organizational management to influence employee

engagement. Strategies may be used to provide employees with a greater sense of engagement and ownership over decisions which are made. For example, management might seek to engage employees at different levels of an organisation with opportunities for consultation, feedback, and various forms of inputs into higher-level management processes. Greater transparency might be used in the communication of changes, of management decisions, and how employees might be affected. Future research could, therefore, be usefully directed towards the evaluation of strategies that might be used to examine the perceived effects of changes in management style and communication on job engagement and other indicators of employee satisfaction and well-being.

CHAPTER 7

Article 5

Transformational versus Transactional Leadership on the Providence of Job Resources

Abstract

This research stems from the notion that leadership plays an important role in employees' behavior. While both transformational leadership and transactional leadership have been shown to have positive effects on employees, it is unclear which leadership style may have a larger influence on employees' job resources. In order to investigate their concurrent effects on employees, this study tested the effects of transformational leadership and transactional leadership on job satisfaction and turnover intention, via supervisory coaching and performance feedback. The study was undertaken using a cross-sectional survey among 500 employees from 65 teams from mainly private organizations in Malaysia. We hypothesized that transformational leadership would lead to higher supervisory coaching and performance feedback, but that transactional leadership would not. Supervisory coaching and performance feedback have been proposed as mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, while job satisfaction serves as a mediator between supervisory coaching and performance feedback, and turnover intention. Overall, the results supported the notion that transformational leadership boosts employees' job satisfaction, via supervisory coaching and performance feedback. The study also showed that higher job satisfaction reduces employees' turnover intention.

Keywords: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, supervisory coaching, feedback, job satisfaction

7.1 Introduction

Introduction

The role of leadership styles as predictors of several positive outcomes for employees has been discussed intensively in the human resource management, organizational behavior, and psychology literature. Although the concept of leadership has itself been examined from several perspectives, the literature thus far reveals that transformational leadership is one of the most popular leadership concepts to have been investigated (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). Although several studies found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees' outcomes such as job satisfaction (Butler Jr, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999) and intention to stay (Schneider & George, 2011), the literature has remained silent on the process through which leaders can create conducive working conditions that enable employees to feel more attached to their organization. Thus, suggestions have been made to investigate the mechanisms through which transformational leaders influence employees' outcomes (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Yukl, 2010). In addition, although most leadership styles introduced in the literature are assumed to be universal (Liden, 2012) and can be applied in work settings in different cultures, most of these studies were conducted in the Western business or work context. Only a few studies have been conducted on the applicability of Western leadership in the Asian context or other similar Eastern (or non-Western) contexts (i.e. Singh & Krishnan, 2005; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005).

Driven by the assumption that working conditions can be created (Morgeson, Diedorff, & Hmurovic, 2010), we expected that transformational leadership, in comparison to transactional leadership, would be more likely to provide better job resources to employees. For example, Tuckey, Bakker and Dollard (2012) recently highlighted how an empowering leadership style reduces negative job conditions (i.e. emotional demands). Although their study highlighted the importance of the leader's influence on working conditions, transformational leadership was not used as part of their investigation. We, however, postulated that transformational leaders would be expected to make employees feel satisfied with their job and, thereby, overall, to reduce employment turnover especially by offering employees' positive job resources such as supervisory coaching and performance feedback. Instead of using only transformational leadership, we compared it to transactional leadership as previous studies have suggested that transformational leadership influences employees' job performance, while transactional leadership does not (Howell & Avolio, 1993). However, this result remains debatable as some studies have revealed that transactional leaders are also positively related to employees' work outcomes such as job satisfaction and job performance (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Despite suggestions that both leadership styles play important roles in employees' positive work outcomes, the two leadership styles have not been simultaneously tested in most of these studies (House, 1996). Although we did not rule out the effect of transactional leadership on employees' outcomes, the magnitude of this effect may be different to that achieved through transformational leadership which most previous studies have suggested is among the most effective leadership styles (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang,

2013). Thus, we have reasons for believing that transformational leadership may be more effective in providing relevant job resources, such as supervisory coaching and performance feedback for employees' personal development, enabling them to perform well at work (Gillespie & Mann, 2004).

Our study contributes to the body of knowledge in several ways. Firstly, although many studies have been conducted on the topic of leadership, most research has used an individualized approach rather than looking at leadership from a multilevel perspective (Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & DeChurch, 2006; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007). In the context of the current study, we believe that the multilevel approach is appropriate in investigating the effects of leadership styles on employees as the leadership process is largely a top-down process (Wang et al., 2013) and varies from one organization to another (Antonakis & House, 2014). Secondly, while most previous studies have been conducted in the Western context (i.e. García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2014), the current study investigated the role of both transformational leadership and transactional leadership in the Asian context, specifically in Malaysia. Although some relevant studies from Asia and Asian countries have been grouped together due to their similarities in culture, these studies mainly revolve around Confucian culture, especially in mainland China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. Malaysia, however, is considered to be an Islamic country which has adopted some Western aspects in the organization of work and workplaces, with these aspects stemming from Malaysia's status as a British colony before gaining independence. This provides the current study with opportunities to explain the applicability of transformational and transactional leadership in Islamic countries.

Thirdly, except for Tuckey et al.'s (2012) study, this is the first study that investigates how leadership may precede some positive employees' outcomes through job resources. The overview of our research model is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

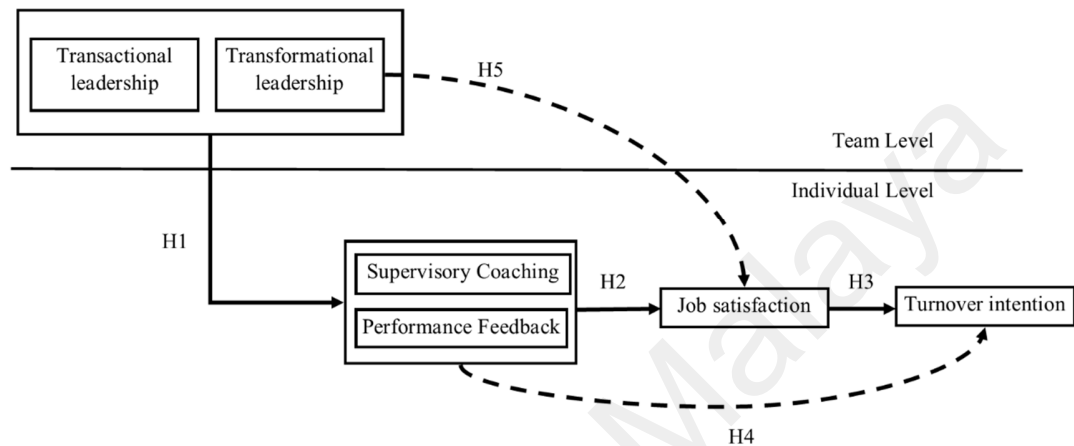


Figure 7.1. Research model

7.2 Literature Review

Despite the fact that both transformational and transactional leaders influence their employees to achieve expected goals, there are differences in the way they motivate their employees. While transformational leaders focus on employee development, transactional leaders focus on the exchange process between leaders and employees (Bass et al., 2003). Transformational leaders motivate employees to go beyond what they are expected to accomplish, but transactional leaders will only reward their employees when the goal is met (Breevart, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2014). Although both types of leaders will reward their employees, the types of reward distributed are different. For example, while transformational leaders provide praise, support, and encouragement, transactional leaders revolve around the use of incentives

and punishment (Breevaart et al., 2014). Using this approach, we expected that transformational leaders and transactional leaders would support their employees in different ways.

In the context of the current study, we expanded the concept of 'reward' by using job resource variables as a central notion for how leaders motivate their employees. To be specific, we expected that transformational leaders would provide important job resources to motivate their employees, but that this would not be the case for transactional leaders. In other words, while transformational leaders would provide job resources without employees having something to exchange with them, transactional leaders may not react in a similar way.

In general, job resources are defined as "as any physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job which reduce job demands and associated costs, are functional in reaching goals, or stimulate personal growth, learning and development" (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Due to this broad classification of job resources, more than 30 variables representing job resources appear in the literature (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

In the context of the current study, only supervisory coaching and performance feedback were used as being indicative of job resources. These two components of job resources are believed to be closely related to leadership. Supervisory coaching is defined as a process by which a leader helps employees to improve themselves through opportunities which enable them to perform better at work and have better job skills (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2005). As leaders are agents who ensure that organizational objectives are achieved, supervisory coaching has gained attention in

the literature in recent years as the role of leaders now encompasses the development of employees to ensure these objectives are met (Thornhill & Saunders, 1998).

Another job resource closely related to employee performance is performance feedback (Locke & Latham, 2002). Performance feedback is defined as “information provided by an agent regarding aspects of one’s performance and understanding” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Although feedback may come from different sources, such as from colleagues or third parties, performance feedback has been suggested as one of the more important types of feedback on which employers need to improve (Bailey & Fletcher, 2002). One possible explanation is that leaders may be perceived as more powerful individuals in terms of their effect on employees’ work outcomes: this becomes more apparent in the Asian context (Kim & Nam, 1998).

Transformational leaders represent four main values: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). All of these values refer to leadership characteristics that focus attention on the needs of individuals, particularly by using appropriate mentoring methods. In addition, transformational leaders pay attention to using creative solution paths for problem solving (Bass et al., 2003). Based on these points, transformational leaders would be expected to provide more supervisory coaching and to pay attention to employees’ performance feedback in order to assist employees to do the right thing to achieve organizational targets. In other words, transformational leaders place emphasis on “a new vision” and have a “shared” orientation with their employees (Wang et al., 2013) rather than influencing them in traditional ways.

On the other hand, transactional leaders, although not necessarily negative, do not provide as strong an influence on employees as transformational leaders (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In other words, transactional leaders will ensure organizational targets are met, but transformational leaders will motivate employees to achieve something more than what was expected (Breevart et al., 2014).

Hypothesis 1: Transformational leadership (but not transactional leadership) increases supervisory coaching (a) and performance feedback (b).

How transformational leadership influences job satisfaction: Job resources

Job satisfaction is defined as an emotional response by an individual in evaluating their job using a standard which rates their job as good or bad, beneficial or harmful. Employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job may come from various factors such as achievement, respect, and justice. In Asia specifically where business, work, and relationships are closely intertwined (Yum, 1988), support and feedback play an important role in ensuring employee job satisfaction.

According to social exchange theory (SET) (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), the relationship between employers and employees can be explained by using an exchange process. In other words, if an organization provides employees with reasonable resources and treats them well, employees will, in turn, invest more effort to fulfill organizational expectations. As job resources are well recognized as motivational agents (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), employees who receive more job resources are expected to feel more satisfied with their job. When supervisory coaching is provided, employees are more satisfied with their job (Ellinger et al., 2005). It has also been suggested that performance feedback is essential in maintaining employees'

motivation and job satisfaction (Lam, Yik, & Schaubroeck, 2002). The importance of both supervisory coaching and performance feedback reflects the point that high-quality communication between employers and employees results in a higher level of job satisfaction (Miles, Patrick, & King, 1996).

This explanation is consistent with several job-stress theories such as the Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI) model (Siegrist, 2002) and Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Employees will feel satisfied if their needs are well recognized by their employer (i.e. high reward) or if they are provided with organizational support (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). Research to date supports the idea that job resources increase both employee commitment (Bakker, Demerouti, & De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003) and employee job engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Although these two constructs are different from job satisfaction, scholars have suggested that job satisfaction implies a common element of job-related wellbeing (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013).

Hypothesis 2: Supervisory coaching (a) and performance feedback (b) positively relate to job satisfaction.

Supervisory coaching and task support (i.e. performance feedback) have been suggested as forms of support that are provided by employers to employees. While many types of support (e.g. organizational support and colleagues' support) are provided within the organization, supervisory support has been shown to be the most effective type of support in encouraging employees' job satisfaction (Harris, Winkowski, & Engdahl, 2007). It has been proposed that transformational leadership leads to higher levels of supervisory coaching and performance feedback due to its

inherent components of the capacity for intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. This means that transformational leaders *are “helping employees [to] emphasize rational solutions and challenge old assumptions” and “developing employees and coaching”* (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996, p. 827). The provision of these job resources by the transformational leader allows employees to improve their job performance with their skills remaining relevant in today’s world, making them feel happy and satisfied. In Chen et al.’s (2012) study, which looked at Chinese hotel employees, the presence of transformational leadership was also shown as being able to moderate job demands (i.e. emotional labor). However, with transactional leadership, its contingent reward component is based only on a transactional relationship in the form of payment for services performed. Hence, our study proposes that:

Hypothesis 3: Supervisory coaching (a) and performance feedback (b) mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (but not between transactional leadership and job satisfaction).

Job resources reduce turnover intention through job satisfaction

For several decades, ample evidence has shown the correlation between job satisfaction and the intention to leave employment (Mobley, 1977; Tett & Meyer, 1993), with this topic remaining of interest in more recent research (Tschopp, Grote, & Gerber, 2014). Decisions by employees to remain with or leave their organization are very much affected by their happiness with and commitment to their job. This means that employees who are satisfied with their job tend to have more positive emotions in

relation to their job (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Kirk-Brown and Van Dijk (2016) and Rosenhan, Underwood, and Moore (1974) have argued that these emotions bring employees psychologically closer to other employees within the organization and to the organization itself, resulting in their increased identification with the organization and greater willingness to allocate extra time and resources to their co-workers and their organization. This behavior also suggests indirectly that employees who are satisfied have less inclination to want to change jobs.

Empirical evidence to date has explained why job withdrawal symptoms are more related to employees with low job satisfaction (Bakker et al., 2003) and also to those who are failing to cope with job stress. This suggests that absenteeism is not only a reaction but also a form of coping strategy to deal with job dissatisfaction. In the context of the current study, instead of using absenteeism as a consequence of job satisfaction, we relied on turnover intention. However, unlike absenteeism, turnover intention refers to “conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262), and occurs within the individual’s cognitive process.

Hypothesis 4: Job satisfaction negatively relates to turnover intention.

The reviewed research to date has indicated that dissatisfaction with working conditions (i.e. high job demands) and stressors may predict turnover intention. For example, Schaubroeck, Cotton, and Jennings (1989) argued that stressors indirectly lead to turnover intention through less job satisfaction. In another study, using the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, it has been argued that job demands lead to higher turnover intention as they drain employees emotionally: on the other hand, job resources, such as organizational support, reduce turnover intention (Knudsen,

Ducharme, & Roman, 2009). Scholars believe that the presence of job resources is important in reducing turnover intention (Shahpouri, Kamdari, & Abedi, 2016). Employees who feel in control of their work also show a lower level of turnover intention (De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Mäkikangas, 2011).

Hypothesis 5: Supervisory coaching (a) and performance feedback (b) reduce turnover intention via job satisfaction.

7.3 Method

Participants

The current study employed a cross-sectional multilevel design with 500 employees (average age=31.11 years; standard deviation [SD]: 8.47) from 65 organizations (private organizations=95.6%) in Malaysia. The mean length of working experience was 4.65 years (SD=5.05). The majority of participants were female (N=283, 56.6%) and most were Chinese (70%), followed by Malay (18.4%), and Indian (1.6%). Most participants were single (N=297, 59.4%), followed by those who were married (N=190, 38%), while the remainder were divorced, separated, and widowed (N=13, 2.6%). The number of participants per organization ranged from five to 26.

Instruments

The reliability for the scales described below is as indicated in Table 1.

Transformational leadership and *transactional leadership* were measured using 28 items from the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), of which 23 items measured transformational leadership (e.g. “has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things”) while five items

measured transactional leadership (e.g. “frequently does not acknowledge my good performance”). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (strongly disagree) to ‘7’ (strongly agree).

Supervisory coaching was measured using five items from Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (very often). An example of one item is as follows: “My supervisor uses his/her influence to help me solve problems at work”.

Performance feedback was measured using three items from Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, and Schreurs (2003). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (very often). An example of one item is as follows: “I receive sufficient information about the results of my work”.

Job satisfaction was measured using three items from Hackman and Oldman (1976). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (strongly disagree) to ‘5’ (strongly agree). An example of one item is as follows: “I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for, over other organizations”.

Turnover intention was measured using three items from O’Driscoll and Beehr (1994). The scale ranged from ‘1’ (never) to ‘5’ (all the time). An example of one item is as follows: “Thoughts about quitting this job cross my mind”.

Analysis strategy

Prior to undertaking multilevel analyses, the upper-level variables (i.e. transformational leadership and transactional leadership) were analyzed to ascertain if they possessed group-level properties, and whether they could be aggregated as group-level variables. Overall, the $r(WG)(J)$ (index of agreement) values for transformational leadership and transactional leadership were .93 and .95, respectively, indicating a

high level of within-organization agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC[I]) value for transformational leadership was .15, and was .13 for transactional leadership. These values indicated that variance in both leadership constructs was due to organizational factors. Bliese (2000) suggested ICC(I) values should be between .05 and .20. The $F_{(III)}$ values were found to be significant (transformational leadership=2.35, $p<.001$; transactional leadership=2.14, $p<.001$).

To test our hypotheses, we used hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) software (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). Three types of analyses were conducted comprising: lower-level direct effects, cross-level direct effects, and mediation effects. Lower-level direct effects and cross-level direct effects were tested using Mathieu and Taylor's (2007) recommendation. Firstly, we ran the analysis for lower-level direct effects (i.e. regressing the lower-level outcomes' variable on lower-level independent variables), followed by conducting a cross-level direct effects analysis (i.e. regressing lower-level variables on transformational leadership and transactional leadership).

An example of a cross-level HLM equation is as follows:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Job satisfaction} = \beta_0 + \beta(\text{supervisory coaching}) + \beta(\text{performance feedback}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{psychosocial safety climate [PSC]}) + G_{01} (\text{team climate}) + u_{0j}$$

For lower-level direct effects (Hypotheses 2 and 3), the lower-level dependent variable was regressed on the independent variables. For example, in Hypothesis 3, turnover intention was regressed on the variable, job satisfaction (see Model 1).

An example of a lower-level HLM equation is as follows:

$$\text{Turnover intention} = \beta_0 + \beta(\text{Job satisfaction}) + r$$

Finally, to test the mediation hypotheses, we followed the testing steps as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986). Firstly, we found that there is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow M$ (supervisory coaching/performance feedback \rightarrow job satisfaction) (Model 5). Secondly, there is a significant relationship between $M \rightarrow Y$, in the presence of X (supervisory coaching/performance feedback + job satisfaction \rightarrow turnover intention) (Model 4). As indicated in the second step, if the relationship from X to Y remains significant with the inclusion of M , then it is partial mediation. If the addition of M produces an insignificant relationship from X to Y , it is considered to be full mediation. To confirm the mediation pathway relationship, we used the Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) as this has been suggested as more applicable for multilevel analyses. We tested the mediation pathway by using estimates of Path a ($X \rightarrow M$) and Path b ($M \rightarrow Y$). The mediation effect is confirmed if the values of lower-level (LL) and upper-level (UL) variables do not contain zero (0) (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). The Monte Carlo test was conducted using a 95% confidence interval (CI) and with 20,000 repetitions.

7.4 Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive analysis and correlations between all measures at Level 1. The results from the HLM analysis are shown in Tables 2 and 3. A summary of the findings is presented in Figure 2.

University of Malaya

Table 7.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Pearson's Bivariate Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	α	No. of Items	1	2	3	4	5	F	ICC(I)
1. Transformational Leadership	4.82	0.90	0.91	23	1					2.348***	0.1472
2. Transactional Leadership	4.81	1.05	0.86	5	.81***	1				2.138***	0.1295
3. Supervisory Coaching	3.34	0.89	0.89	5	.50***	.49***	1			2.068***	0.1291
4. Feedback	3.36	0.88	0.85	3	.39***	.35***	.56***	1		1.611**	0.0782
5. Job Satisfaction	3.55	0.79	0.82	3	.47***	.43***	.34***	.31***	1	1.663**	0.0845
6. Turnover Intention	2.80	1.41	0.90	3	-.25***	-.25***	7-.13**	-.13**	-.342***	1.906***	0.1163

Notes: SD = standard deviation; ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient; ; N (individual) = 500; **p<.05; ***p<.001.

Table 7.2: Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) Analysis of Lower-Level Outcomes

Effect	Turnover intention	Turnover intention	Turnover intention	Turnover intention	Job satisfaction
Model	1	2	3	4	5
Lower-Level Effects					
Supervisory coaching		-.04(.04)		-.01(.06)	.21(.07)**
Feedback			-.07(.07)	-.06(.07)	.20(.07)**
Job satisfaction	-.26(.08)***	-.25(.09)**	-.24(.09)**	-.24(.09)**	

Notes: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error (SE); **p<.01; ***p<.001; N (individual) = 500; N (team) = 65

Table 7.3: Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) Analyses of Lower-Level Outcomes and Cross-Level Effect of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership on Lower-Level Outcomes

Effect	Job satisfaction	Job satisfaction	Supervisory coaching	Feedback
Model	6	7	8	9
Lower-Level Effects				
Supervisory coaching	.21(.07)**			
Feedback	.20(.08)**			
Cross-Level Effects				
Transformational leadership	.39(.07)***	.38(07)***	.19(.10)**	.35(.11)**
Transactional leadership	-.07(.07)	-.07(.07)	.13(.10)	-.11(.10)

Notes: The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parentheses is the standard error (SE); N (individual) = 500; N (team) = 65; + = significant at one-tailed; *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that transformational leadership, but not transactional leadership, would be positively related to supervisory coaching and performance feedback. As indicated in Model 8, our result suggests that there is a significant cross-level effect of transformational leadership on supervisory coaching ($\gamma=.19$, one-tailed), while transactional leadership is not associated with supervisory coaching ($\gamma=.13$, *ns* [not significant]). Similarly, as indicated in Model 9, our result suggests that there is a significant cross-level effect of transformational leadership on performance feedback ($\gamma=.35$, $p<0.05$), while transactional leadership is not associated with performance feedback ($\gamma=-.11$, *ns* [not significant]). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that supervisory coaching and performance feedback would show positive relationships with job satisfaction. As indicated in Model 5, our analysis suggests that there are positive significant relationships between supervisory coaching ($\beta=.21$, $p<0.05$) and performance feedback ($\beta=.20$, $p<0.05$) on job satisfaction. Hence, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that supervisory coaching and performance feedback would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (but not the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction). In testing the hypothesis, the conditions stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. Firstly, we found a direct effect only from transformational

leadership→job satisfaction. However, transactional leadership did not have a significant direct effect on job satisfaction (see Model 7). In addition, as there was an insignificant relationship from transactional leadership to the mediator variables (supervisory coaching and performance feedback; see Models 8 and 9), and with only transformational leadership having a significant relationship ($X \rightarrow M$), we only proceeded to test for the mediation effect using the path from transformational leadership→supervisory coaching/performance feedback→job satisfaction. We analyzed a mediation effect by using the Monte Carlo test. Specifically, we used the parameter estimate from Model 8 as the value for the direct effect from transformational leadership to supervisory coaching ($\gamma=.19$, standard error [SE]=.10) and the parameter estimate for Model 6 (supervisory coaching→job satisfaction; $\beta=.21$, SE=.07) with transformational leadership and transactional leadership in the model. Monte Carlo bootstrapping indicated that transformational leadership has a significant effect on job satisfaction through supervisory coaching (95% confidence interval [CI], lower level [LL]=.0.1331, upper level [UL]=.07121).

We repeated the same procedure to see the effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction through performance feedback. Thus, we used the parameter estimate from Model 8 as the value for the direct effect from transformational leadership to performance feedback ($\gamma=.35$, SE= .11) and the parameter estimate from Model 6 (performance feedback→job satisfaction) with

psychosocial safety climate (PSC) and team climate in the model ($\beta=.20$, $SE=.07$).

Again, Monte Carlo bootstrapping supported the mediation process (95% CI, $LL=.01543$, $UL=.1470$). Thus, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that job satisfaction would negatively relate to turnover intention. Our analysis found that there is a significant effect, as indicated in Model 1 ($\beta=-.26$, $p<0.001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship between supervisory coaching/performance feedback and turnover intention. To evaluate the mediation testing, we used the parameter estimate value for Model 5 as the value for the direct effect from supervisory coaching/performance feedback to job satisfaction ($\beta=.21$, $SE=.07$ / $\beta=.21$, $SE=.07$) and the parameter estimate value from Model 4 for job engagement \rightarrow turnover intention with supervisory coaching/performance feedback in the model, ($\beta=-.24$, $SE=.09$). Again, our analysis confirmed the mediation effect from supervisory coaching to turnover intention via job satisfaction (95% CI, $LL=-.1550$, $UL=-.0222$), and the mediation effect from performance feedback to turnover intention via job satisfaction (95% CI, $LL=-.1479$, $UL=-.01768$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported.

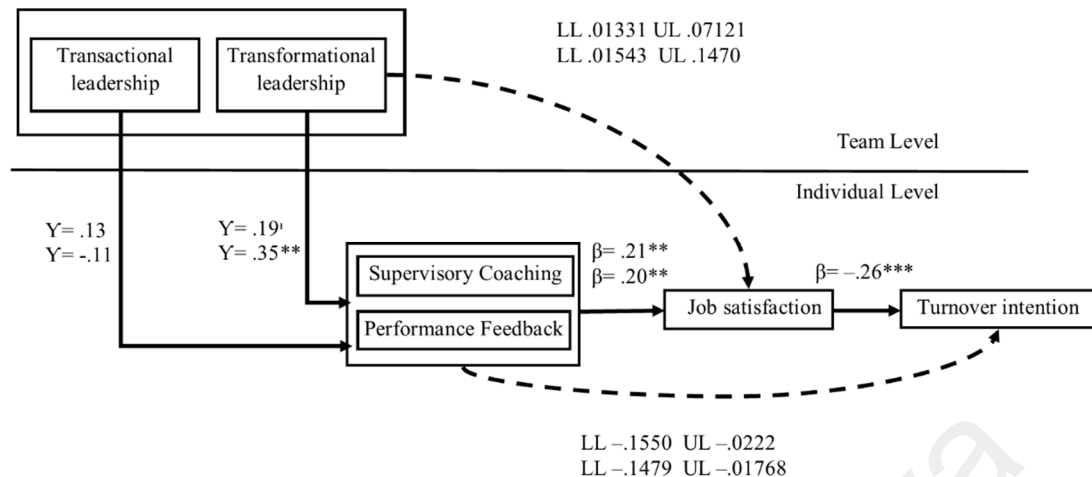


Figure 7.2. The final model. N= 500, N organization = 65

7.5 Discussion

The main purpose of the current study was to investigate the influence of transformational leadership and transactional leadership on employees' outcomes, particularly through job resources. Secondly, we sought evidence on how leaders boost job satisfaction and turnover intention through two main job resources, namely, supervisory coaching and performance feedback.

As expected, we found that transformational leadership has a unique influence on employees' positive outcomes, when compared to transactional leadership. This is consistent with previous studies showing that transformational (and not transactional) leadership influences some positive aspects of employees' outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and job engagement (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Using a diary method to record how transformational leaders affect employees, Breevaart et al. (2014), after controlling for transactional leadership, found that transformational leaders influence daily job engagement. Similarly, the effect of transformational leadership on employees' work engagement was also supported in the study by Tims et al. (2011).

In the current study, we can conclude that transformational leaders provide more job resources to their employees whereas transactional leaders do not.

While transformational leadership may not be linked to job resources in the literature, some studies have shown the positive resources given to employees. For example, as transformational leadership emphasizes employee progress and development, this style of leadership tends to communicate with and listen more to employees' needs (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). On the other hand, although transactional leadership may recognize employees' needs, this style of leadership tends to become involved with employees' needs using its bureaucratic authority and relying on rewards and punishment (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998).

Interestingly and consistent with our earlier prediction, we found that supervisory coaching and performance feedback play an important role in increasing employees' job satisfaction. Transformational leaders influence and motivate employees by providing supervisory coaching and performance feedback to their employees. This is consistent with the argument that transformational leaders influence their employees to do work beyond what employees are expected to do. As our participants were Asian, the current study expected that they would have experiences of dealing with transactional leadership rather than transformational leadership (Kamisan & King, 2013): however, our study found that, in Malaysia, this was not the case. Malaysian employees are believed to have been influenced by Western leadership styles as has been found in some other studies carried out, for example, in Hong Kong (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2002) and Taiwan (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003). In addition, the findings of the current study supported the idea that transformational leadership can be applied in an Asian setting, whether this is in a Confucian-based culture such as in Japan or Taiwan, or in a country such as

Malaysia with its Islamic culture. Thus, although Asian countries are considered to be conservative, transformational leadership remains an important element for creating a positive attitude among employees towards their job and their intention to stay in their job.

Theoretical implications

The current study's findings have several implications. Firstly, although the working environment has been found to be associated with job satisfaction (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), and although previous literature has placed much more emphasis on factors in relation to the individual (McGonagle, Fisher, Barnes-Farrell, & Grosch, 2015), we found that transformational leadership plays an important role as a precursor to positive working conditions. For a long time, scholars have been urged to examine how work design contributes to employees' wellbeing. By not limiting its focus to individual characteristics (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001), the current study uncovers the 'cause of the causes' for employees' positive attitude. The use of transformational leadership in work settings will indirectly create conducive working conditions (i.e. high levels of supervisory coaching and performance feedback). This is consistent with the argument that working conditions are created (Johns, 2010) through management initiative. Although transactional leadership is not deemed to be a negative leadership style, it seems there are several reasons why transformational leadership is more effective in creating a positive work attitude among employees, especially through the provision of high job resources. As working conditions consist of not only job resources, but also job demands (e.g. high workload, high role conflict), future research should also emphasize job demands. The current study, however, did not measure whether transformational leadership contributes to job demands.

Strengths and limitations

Although this study is novel in that it employed a cross-sectional approach, we were unable to claim causality due to its cross-sectional nature. Future research should examine longitudinal effects to see whether there are any changes due to the influences of transformational leadership or transactional leadership on employees over time. This is important, especially in conditions where several mediators are used in the research model (Maxwell & Cole, 2007). With the current study which had two mediating processes, at least three times the amount of data collected would be required in order to see the effect from Time 1 (T1) (independent variables) → mediators (Time 2 [T2]) → dependent variables (Time 3 [T3]).

While the current study has shown how leadership may affect employees' job resources, future studies may want to also include job demands using the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The reason is that job demands have been shown to work in opposition to job resources. As many other studies have found (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005), it could be assumed that transformational leadership may reduce employees' job demands and that job resources provided by transformational leadership may serve as a buffer system for job demands.

Although the use of hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) software enabled us to analyze multilevel data, there are some limitations especially in the accuracy of parameter estimations (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010). Due to these limitations, we were only able to test the data as individual variables, rather than treating them as a latent construct as is often done in structural equation modelling (SEM) software. Although there are recommendations to use multilevel SEM software such as Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 1998), this software may require a larger sample size, especially

for upper-level data (i.e. 100). In the context of the current study, we were only able to assume that this model works and we may need to retest it through Mplus.

Practical implications

Leaders within organizations may consider adopting the practice of transformational leadership as it helps to make employees more satisfied with their jobs. In addition, it reduces turnover costs for the organization. As leadership styles can be cultivated (Bass & Avolio, 1990), an organization could conduct workshops for leaders within the organization to assist them in learning about and adopting a transformational leadership style when dealing with employees. The importance of the leadership style in terms of the quality of the supervisory coaching and performance feedback provided also shows the quality of communication and the relationship that the leader has with employees.

7.6 Conclusion

The current study has supported the applicability of transformational leadership as a cross-level antecedent for employees' job resources, namely, supervisory coaching and performance feedback. The study's findings suggest that transformational leadership shows significant cross-level direct and indirect effects on supervisory coaching and performance feedback, and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has also been identified as mediating job resources and turnover intention. The study's findings have strengthened the applicability of transformational leadership as a cross-level antecedent in job resources and job satisfaction. Understanding the importance of multilevel organizational leadership styles may help management within organizations in observing and addressing employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention.

CHAPTER 8

Article 6

The Effects of Management Trust Climate on Individuals' Well-Being through Job Resource: A Cross-Sectional Multilevel Approach

Abstract

Adopting the notion that environmental factors affect employees, we conceive that management trust climate acts as an antecedent to the providence of job resources and positive work outcomes. A total of 377 employees from 44 private organizations (62% response rate) in Malaysia participated in the current study. Using multilevel analyses, results found that management trust climate led to higher levels of personal development and job performance. However, it showed no relationship to sleeping problems. In addition, job resources (i.e. personal development) mediated management trust climate and job performance, while engagement mediated personal development and job performance. Higher burnout also leads to higher sleeping problems. The study showed that organizational level is the antecedent of job resources and its job resource-engagement model. Since trust conveys a soft psychological contract between two parties, organizations should be aware of the trust level that occurs within the organization. This is to ensure that employees are able to grow within organizations, carry out their tasks effectively, and without reprisals from higher management. This may be an effective strategy in ensuring employees perform at work.

Keywords: management trust, personal development, job performance, multilevel, Malaysia

8.1 Introduction

Every year in the United States, approximately USD240 billion in productivity was lost due to health-related costs (Mattke, Balakrishnan, Bergamo, & Newberry, 2007). This astonishing amount leads Loeppke et al. (2009) to propose that management plays a significant role in reducing this number and turning it into real productivity again. One of the ways management can do this is to instil a positive trust climate within the organization.

The mutual relationship between organizations and employees has been explored extensively, particularly through organizational trust literature. So far, researchers have discovered that trust plays an important role in boosting employees' well-being, job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job satisfaction (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Daley & Pope, 2004; Luria, 2009; Scott, 1995; Westin, 2003). Studies also show trust between organizations and employees leads to better work outcomes, as it enables employees to keep focusing on their tasks with the opportunity to learn (Li, Wang, & Lim, 2009; Shelton 2002). In general, trust is defined as '... willingness to increase one's resource investment in another party, based on positive expectation, resulting from past positive mutual interactions.' (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004, p. 126). In other words, it refers to mutual interaction between employees and employers in completing their tasks.

Unfortunately, although extensive research has been conducted around trust phenomenon in organizations, the majority of the previous studies only focuses on horizontal trust climate (i.e. employee-employee trust), rather than vertical trust climate (employer-employee trust) (Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2004). Hence, to fill the gap, the present study investigates the mechanism behind how management trust may influence job performance and health problems, particularly through

motivational and health erosion processes as indicated in the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). We illustrate our research model as indicated in Figure 1 below.

In the context of the current study, we investigate Malaysian employees, representing the Asian region which has always been considered low in trust (Huff & Kelley, 2003). Since Malaysians are being regarded as collectivistic (Abdullah, 1996), we expect that the presence of management trust may significantly impact employees' performance and well-being.

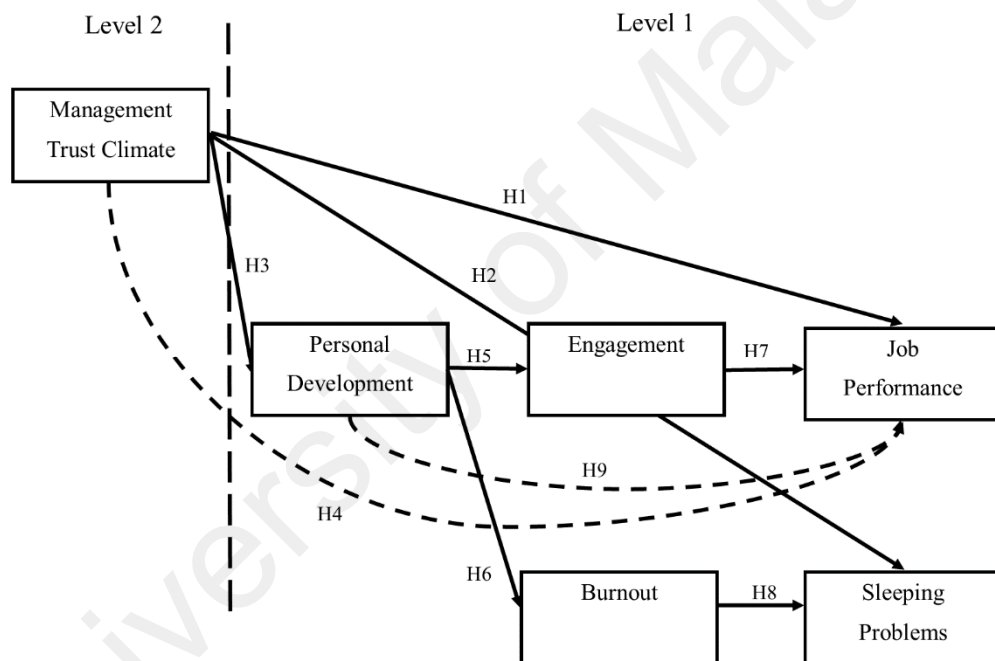


Figure 8.1. Research model

8.2 Literature Review

Management trust, job performance, and sleeping problems

Thus far, research evidence revealed how the presence of trust by the management towards their employees will lead to some positive employee outcomes,

especially job performance. This is due to the fact that employers' trust entails a sense of empowerment for employees (Cho & Poister, 2013). Management with high trust is more likely to be less controlling on employees' behavior (Kramer, 1999). Employees are entitled to have more influence in decision making, more open communication with employers and have the ability to develop self-confidence as a member of the organization (Ben-Ner & Putterman, 2009; Parks & Hulbert, 1995).

Given the trust entrusted by the higher management, employees feel a sense of responsibility to perform well on the work they are entrusted with. As a result, this will trigger employees' happiness and make them perform better at work (Antoni & Hertel, 2009). This is consistent with the social exchange theory (SET; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) which describes human relationships as a reciprocal relationship. This means that when the management treats employees well, the organization will also benefit from the effort of task completion by their employees. To explain this, Carter and Mossholder (2015) clarify how trust congruence between managers and employees may develop intimate relationships that will lead to higher job performance. Although the question to which the direction of trust revolves within organization remains, for example whether trust among managers emerges due to group consistency of positive work outcomes or that the manager's trust will make employees contribute more effort (Carter & Mossholder, 2015), Zapata, Olsen, and Martins (2013) assert that when subordinates trust their supervisor, the supervisor will also trust them in return. In addition, as trust may also facilitate goal accomplishment norms over time (Drescher et al., 2014), these relationships will perhaps lead to more positive work outcomes.

Hypothesis 1: Management trust climate positively relates to job performance.

In addition, we also expect that management trust will enhance employees' well-being. So far studies have discovered that a conducive working environment will improve employees' health, especially where there is a good relationship between employers and employees (Dollard & Bakker, 2010; Wilson, DeJoy, Vandenberg, Richardson, & McGrath (2004). A good management practice through organizational support has been found to reduce some negative psychological and health problems such as anger and depression among employees (Richardson, Yang, Vandenberg, DeJoy, & Wilson, 2007). Some job stress theories such as the job demands-control (Karasek, 1979) and the job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) highlighted how working with low supervisory support can be detrimental to one's psychological health. Using a similar argument, we expect that a high trust level between employers and employees through open communication and honesty (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998) will create a good working environment that will reduce some health problems.

Hypothesis 2: Management trust climate negatively relates to sleeping problems.

Management trust and job resources

As discussed previously, the linkage between management trust and employees' job performance has been found in several studies (Colquitt et al., 2007; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Dirks and Ferrin's study (2002) discovered that trust affects employees' job performance, as it constituted higher reciprocal care and concern in a relationship and that employees showed a high level of confidence in their leader's character. However, how management trust may boost job performance through the enhancement of job characteristics remains unanswered in most literature. Previous studies have found that several organizational contexts such as organizational

leadership (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012), and organizational climate (Dollard & Bakker, 2010) may function as antecedents to job characteristics. Using a similar argument, we argue that managers who are concerned with placing sufficient trust in employees will provide a better working environment for them. This also translates to protecting employees from possible psychosocial harms, and indirectly enhancing their job performance. In the context of the current study, we expect managers who are concerned with trust relationships will provide better job resources to enable employees to achieve work goals. Job resources are defined as ‘any physical, psychological, social or organizational of the job that are functional and beneficial in achieving work goals, reduce job demand, or any which that is associated with the physiological or psychological cost to it, in addition to stimulating individual growth, learning and development’ (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; p. 312).

Since job resources vary, in the context of the current study, we use personal development as an indicator to job resources. We proposed personal development as an outcome since management trust climate is proposed to be ‘a valued resource of any organization and is a necessary component of a positive, healthy work environment’ (Lambert, Hogan, Barton-Bellessa, & Jiang, 2012, p. 938). This is consistent with the argument that higher trust climate prioritises growth and learning among employees (Costigan, Liter, & Berman, 1998). In other words, higher management trust on employees’ ability to utilize their skills (Tansky & Cohen, 2001). A study by Kiffin-Peterson and Cordery (2003) among 218 employees in 40 teams, for example, has discovered that working in a high trust environment led employees to have higher levels of teamwork, as they became more aware of opportunities for their skills to be utilized.

How management trust may enhance personal development can be explained using a model of group development which suggests the way supervisors and subordinates trust each other may develop a proper process and structure for task completion (see Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999). It involves task-related group development that emphasises knowledge sharing and brushing-up skills as part of workgroup processes. The development will occur repeatedly, especially when the group needs to solve complex problems (Kozlowski et al., 1999).

This leads to

Hypothesis 3: Management trust climate positively relates to personal development.

Hypothesis 4: Personal development mediates the relationship between management trust climate and job performance.

A plethora of studies have discovered that job resources act as triggers to better job performance, especially through the increment of job engagement (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). In addition, it also has been found that job resources are able to reduce job burnout, especially in situations where employees are suffering from high job demands (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005). Since engagement and burnout are two opposite antipodes, as employees who are suffering from burnout are unlikely to have higher job engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002), we expect that employees who perceive that they receive higher job resources (i.e. personal development) will experience higher levels of job engagement and less burnout. According to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2001), an individual will protect his/her resources as resources are able to protect the individual from suffering in harmful situations. If the individual feels that there is sufficient resources to cope with strain, these resources will serve as buffers and shield the

individual from the negative impacts of unnecessary threats (i.e. job demands). Studies found a combination of high job resources and low job demands predicted lower levels of burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenan, 2009), and acted as a trigger to higher job engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) argue that burnout exists not only because of the presence of high job demands, but also when there is a lack of job resources. Hence, given that personal development is a type of job resource, it also has the ability to reduce burnout among employees through building up resources over time. We propose that

Hypothesis 5: Personal development positively relates to engagement.

Hypothesis 6: Personal development negatively relates to burnout.

Sufficient support to show that engagement affects job performance has been found in several studies. Research by Owens, Baker, Sumpter, and Cameron (2015); and Schaufeli et al. (2002) found that employees who are engaged are psychologically energized and are emotionally positive. Hence, they are able to perform at work. Moreover, engagement has been characterised as a positive spiral agent and serves as a mediator between job resources and job performance (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005).

While engagement is linked to positive outcomes, scholars argue that burnout may lead to negative aspects of work, including health problems (Ekstedt, Soderstrom, Nilsson, Perski, & Akerstedt, 2003, Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Several researchers have discovered that burnout increases health problems. For example, a study by Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola (2008) which studied 2555 samples found that burnout led to higher levels of depression over time due to low resources and high demands. Similarly, Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) study on 1698 samples found that burnout led to higher levels of health problems, which was also due to the lack of job

resources and a high level of job demands. This scenario can be explained using the health erosion pathway (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) on how negative demands at work overtaxes employees' physical bodies, which then use up employees' energy resources and cause negative responses.

Hypothesis 7: Engagement positively relates to job performance.

Hypothesis 8: Burnout positively relates to sleeping problems.

Hypothesis 9: Engagement mediates personal development and job performance.

8.3 Methods

Participants

The current study employed a cross-sectional multilevel design with 377 employees (average age=37.42 years old; standard deviation [SD]: 18.53) from 44 private organizations in Malaysia using a snowballing sampling method. The majority of participants were females (N=222, 53.9%), and most were Malaysians (N=398, 96.7%). Most participants were married (N=296, 71.8%), followed by those who were single (N=113, 27.4%), while the remainder were divorced (N=3, 0.7%). Participants were working in several types of sectors, including the service industry (62.3%) and consumer product industry (20.3%), with the remainder from other industries. The number of participants per team ranged from four to 14.

Instruments

Management trust climate was measured by using four items from the 'Trust Regarding Management' subscales of the short version Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire II (COPSOQ II; Pejtersen, Kristensen, Borg, & Bjorner, 2010). The scale ranged from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very large extent). An example

of the items is ‘Does the management trust you to do your work well?’ Alpha cronbach for this scale is .73.

Personal development was measured by using 4-items of ‘Possibility for Development’ (COPSOQ; Kristensen & Borg, 2003). The scale ranged from 1 (to a very small extent) to 5 (to a very large extent). An example of the items is ‘Can you use your skills or expertise in your work?’ The reported alpha reliability is .88.

Engagement was measured using 9 items of the short version Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) which consists of three subscales, namely vigour (e.g. “At work I feel strong and energetic.”), $\alpha = .84$, dedication (e.g. ‘I am proud of the work I do.’), $\alpha = .88$; and absorption (e.g. ‘I get carried away while at work.’), $\alpha = .84$. Factor analysis was conducted, all 9 items showed high correlations and principle component analysis showed engagement as a one factor component. Its overall alpha reliability is .93.

Burnout was measured using 16 items from the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI) by Demerouti, Bakker, Vardakou, and Kantas (2003). The scale is divided into two subscales: exhaustion and disengagement with seven items each. These items are coded based on a Likert-type scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Four items of each subscale is reversed coded so that higher scores indicate more burnout (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010). An example of the items is ‘After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary’. Previous studies have found the OLBI to have acceptable internal consistency and convergent validity with other scales that are commonly used to measure burnout (Demerouti et al., 2003; 2010). The reported alpha reliability is .80.

Job performance was measured using three items from the World Health Organization Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) (Kessler et al.,

2003) ranging from 1 (worst job performance anyone could have) to 10 (performance of a top worker). Respondents were asked to rate themselves in terms of their usual performance and also rank their performance over the past 28 days using the 10-point scale. An example of the items is 'How would you rate the usual performance of most workers in a job similar to yours?' The reported alpha reliability for the scale is .76.

Sleeping problems was measured using 'The Sleeping Troubles' dimension of the Health and Well-being domain in the COPSOQ II (Kristensen, Hannerz, Hogh, & Borg, 2005). It was measured by using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 (not at all) and 5 (all the time). An example of the items is 'How often have you slept badly and restlessly?' The reported alpha reliability is .91.

Statistical Analyses

Prior to multilevel analyses, the upper level, management trust climate, was analyzed to ascertain whether it possessed group level properties and was suitable to be aggregated. Within-organization agreement, $r(WG)(j)$ (see James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984), showed a value of .96, indicating a high level of within-organization agreement (LeBreton, & Senter, 2008). We also tested ICC(I) to check between organizational variance for management trust climate Time 1 and it showed .19, indicating that 19% of the variance in management trust climate is due to organizational factors. A range between .05 to .20 is acceptable for aggregation (Bliese, 2000). $F(III)$ for management trust climate = 1.85, $p < .01$ indicating further support for between organization differences for management trust climate. We then employed Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) software to test all hypotheses.

Three types of analyses were used in this study to test the hypotheses: lower levels direct effects, cross level direct effects, and mediation effects. Lower levels direct effects and cross level direct effects were tested using Mathieu and Taylor's

(2007) recommendation. First, we ran cross level direct effects analysis (Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3), which is the testing of cross level effects of management trust climate on personal development, engagement, and job performance controlling for the dependent variable.

An example of a cross level HLM equation is as follows:

Level 1 Model

$$\text{Job performance} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Job performance}) + r$$

Level 2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = G_{00} + G_{01} (\text{Management Trust}) + u_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = G_{10} + G_{11} * W_{1j} + u_{1j}$$

For lower level direct effects (Hypothesis 5, 6, 7, and 8), the lower variables dependent variable was regressed on predictor controlling for dependent measure.

$$\text{Engagement} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{Personal Development}) + \beta (\text{Engagement}) + r$$

Finally, to test mediation effects (Hypothesis 4 and 9), each part of the mediation pathway ab was tested using estimates of path a ($X \rightarrow M$) and path b ($M \rightarrow Y$) For example, to test hypothesis 4, the following steps must be fulfilled (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, there is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow Y$ (Management trust climate \rightarrow job performance) (Model 7); 2) There is a significant relationship between $X \rightarrow M$ (management trust climate \rightarrow personal development) (Model 10); and 3) There is a significant relationship between $M \rightarrow Y$, controlling Y , M and X (personal development \rightarrow job performance, controlling job performance, personal development and management trust climate) (Model 8). Provided step 3 doesn't meet, then it's considered a partial mediation. Monte Carlo test (Selig & Preacher, 2008) was used over the Sobel test, as it had been suggested to more applicable for medications in

multilevel analyses (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Monte Carlo was tested at 95% confidence interval and on 20,000 repetitions.

8.4 Results

Table 1 presents a descriptive analysis and correlations between all measures at level 1. Results for HLM analysis are shown in Tables 2 and 3. A summary of the findings is presented in Figure 2.

University of Malaya

Table 8.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Pearson Bivariate Correlations

Variables	Mean	S.D.	α	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	F	ICC(I)
1. Management Trust Climate	13.38	2.29	0.73	4	1						1.850**	0.1905
2. Personal Development	9.06	2.52	0.88	3	.39**	1					2.473***	0.0684
3. Engagement	31.01	6.02	0.93	9	.34**	.41**	1				2.200***	0.1832
4. Burnout	20.81	2.93	0.80	8	-.41**	-.34**	-.50**	1			1.796**	0.0742
5. Job Performance	21.93	3.80	0.86	4	.36**	.44**	.51**	.31**	1		1.524*	0.0378
6. Sleeping Troubles	9.77	3.75	0.91	8	-0.10	-.16**	-.12*	.38**	-.14**	1	1.913**	0.0529

N=377, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Table 8.2: HLM Analysis of Lower Level Outcomes

Effect	Job Performance	Job Performance	Sleeping Troubles	Engagement	Burnout
Model	1	2	3	4	5
Lower Level effects					
Engagement	.51(.06)*	.43(.06)*			
Burnout			.42(.06)*		
Personal Development		.25(.07)*		.33(.07)*	-.30(.05)*

Note. The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parenthesis is the standard error. N=377, 44 organizations; * $p < .001$

Table 8.3: HLM Analyses of Cross-Level Effect of Management trust climate on Lower Level Outcomes

Effect	Job Performance	Job Performance	Sleeping Troubles	Personal Development
Model	6	7	8	9
Lower Level effects				
Engagement				
Burnout				
Personal Development		.40(.07)*		
Cross-level effects				
Management Trust Climate	.34(.07)*	.35(.06)*	-.07(.09)	.46(.09)*

Note. The first value is the unstandardized parameter estimate, and the value in parenthesis is the standard error. N=377, 44 organizations, * $p < .001$.

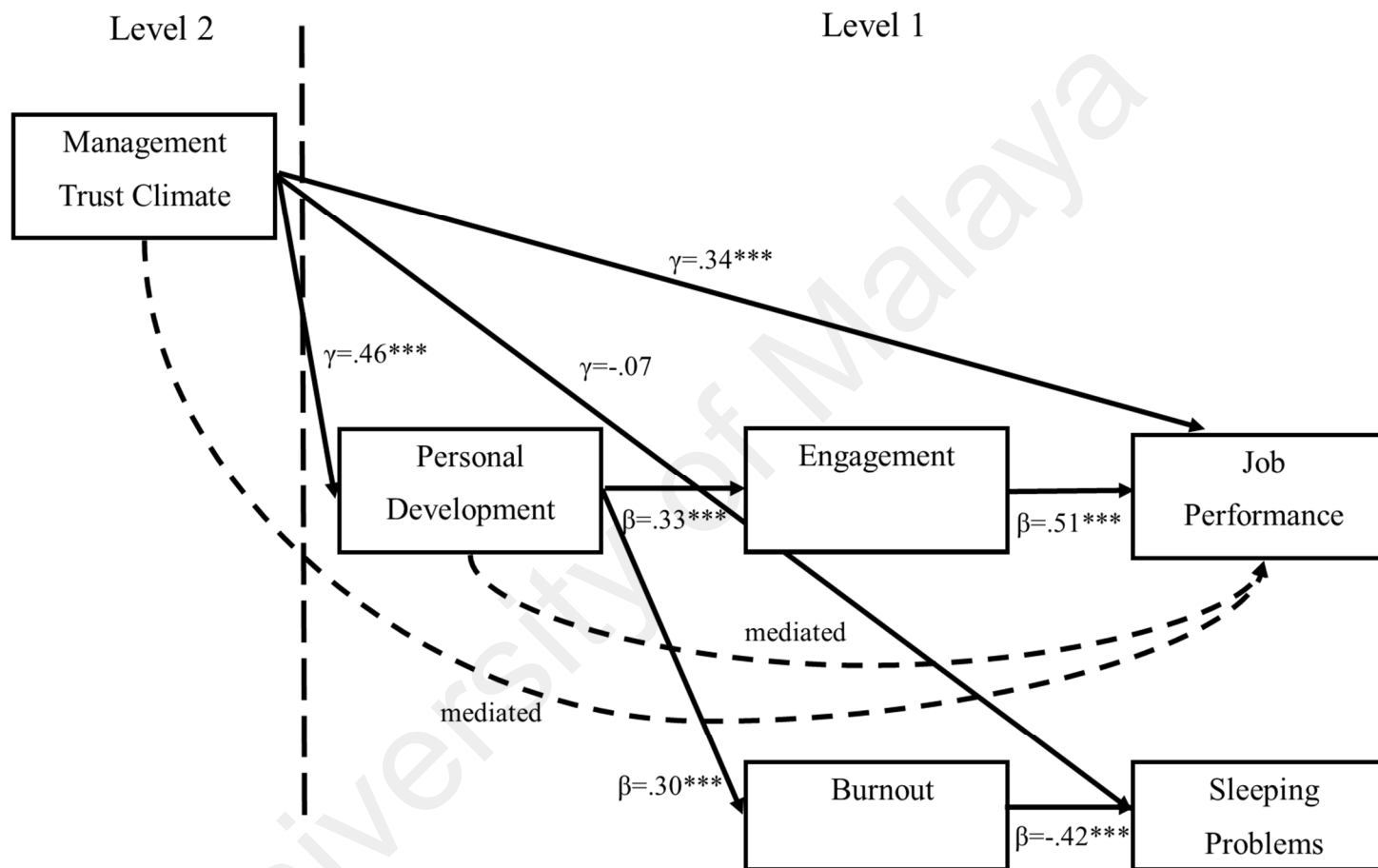


Figure 8.2. The final model. N= 377, N organization = 44

Hypothesis 1 predicted management trust climate positively relates to job performance. There was a significant effect, as indicated in Model 6. Hypothesis 1 was supported ($\gamma=.34$, $p<0.001$).

Hypothesis 2 predicted management trust climate negatively relates to sleeping problems. There was no significant effect, as indicated in Model 8. Hypothesis 2 was not supported ($\gamma=-.07$, $p>.05$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted management trust climate positively relates to personal development. There was a significant effect, as indicated in Model 10. Hypothesis 3 was supported ($\gamma=.46$, $p<0.001$).

Hypothesis 4 predicted that personal development mediates management trust climate and job performance. In testing the hypothesis, conditions as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. The only exception was that the main effect of management trust climate on job performance was still significant when personal development was added in the model, indicating that the effect was only partially mediated. Mediation effect was tested using parameter estimate from Model 10 as the value for the direct effect between management trust climate to personal development ($\gamma=.35$, $SE=.06$), and parameter estimate from Model 7 estimating for relationship between personal development and job performance with management trust climate in the model, ($\beta=.40$, $SE=.07$). We tested the significance of the indirect parameter estimate using a Monte Carlo test to test the significance of the indirect parameter estimate. Results revealed that management trust climate Time 1 has a significant lagged effect on job performance Time 1 through personal development Time 2 (95% confident interval [CI], lower level [LL] $=.0976$, upper level [UL] $=.2886$). As management trust climate on job performance was significant in the presence of

the mediator, personal development, in the model; this indicates that the effect was partially mediated.

Hypothesis 5 predicted personal development positively relates to engagement. There was a significant effect (see Model 4). Hypothesis 5 was supported ($\beta=.33$, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 6 predicted personal development negatively relates to burnout. There was a significant effect (see Model 6). Hence, hypothesis 8 was supported ($\beta=-.30$, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 7 predicted engagement positively relates to job performance. There was a significant effect, as indicated in Model 1. Hypothesis 6 was supported ($\beta=.51$, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 8 predicted burnout positively relates to sleeping problems. There was a significant effect, as indicated in Model 3. Hence, hypothesis 8 was supported ($\beta=.42$, $p<.001$).

Hypothesis 9 predicted that engagement mediates personal development and job performance. In testing the hypothesis, conditions as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) were fulfilled. Mediation effect was tested using parameter estimate from Model 4 as the value for the direct effect between personal development to engagement ($\gamma=.25$, $SE=.07$), and parameter estimate from Model 2 estimating for relationship between engagement and job performance with personal development in the model, ($\beta=.43$, $SE=.06$). We evaluated the significance of the indirect parameter estimate using a Monte Carlo test was used to test the significance of the indirect parameter estimate. Results revealed that personal development has a significant lagged effect on job performance Time 2 through engagement (95% confident interval [CI], lower level [LL] = .07625,

upper level [UL] = .2188). As personal development on job performance was significant in the presence of the mediator, engagement, in the model; this indicates that the effect was partially mediated.

8.5 Discussion

The main objective of the current study was to investigate the cross-level effects of management trust climate on employees' job performance and sleeping problems, particularly through personal development, engagement, and burnout. We tested our research model by using cross-sectional multilevel analyses among 377 employees, in 44 private organizations in Malaysia.

Overall, we found that management trust climate increased job performance, particularly through personal development and job engagement. This is given that where there is trust through proximal referent, this leads to an increased ability to focus on work-related tasks (Frazier, Johnson, Gavin, Gooty, & Snow, 2010). Our finding is consistent with similar previous findings that shows how management trust exhibits job performance among employees (Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Rich, 1997). Although previous studies were able to reveal some mechanisms on how management trust develops a norm for task completion (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; McCauley & Kuhnert, 1992), we offer a more insightful explanation. We found that management trust may also develop positive working conditions, especially by enhancing personal development of employees. Indirectly, employees become more engaged with their job and more productive. So far, research in this area, especially from scholars who only use JD-R to explain the relationship between job characteristics and job engagement, was done at individual level (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). We, however, explain organizational context as a part of this process. We discovered that management

trust not only contributes to higher job performance, but also is a precursor to employees' working conditions.

In addition, we also discovered how management trust will also have an effect on employees' health. Despite several studies having tried to explain how health problems may arise as a consequence of poor working conditions (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Karasek & Theorell, 1992), there is a lack of evidence on how upper level contexts also may play an important role on employees' well-being. So far, scholars have argued that some type of leadership styles (i.e. transformational leadership; Nielsen, Yarker, Randall, & Munir, 2009) or specific organizational climates (i.e. psychosocial safety climate; Dollard & Bakker, 2010) may affect employees' health through working conditions. However, we found that management trust climate may also decrease job burnout, particularly through enhancement of personal development. Although we were unable to find any support in the relationship between management climate and sleeping problems, the insignificant result may be due to distal effect (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996), as some effects may need a longer time to be developed.

Practical implications

The presence of trust in the working environment serves as a signal of the ability of management to believe in employees to produce work outcomes that are desirable to the organization (Pierce, O'Driscoll, & Coghlan, 2004). It shows how a positive working environment is able to stir the motivation level of employees. Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, and Ferris (2012) commented on a low level of trust among countries which are high in power distance and are collectivistic societies. The typical Malaysian approach in using a transactional

approach where money is given in exchange to work done, and the constant presence of the supervisor to monitor the behaviors of employees may signal the lack of trust among employers on their employees (Huff & Kelley, 2003; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012).

Upper management may want to implement approaches in showing trust in their employees. First, the upper management may show less stringent observation on the employees during the day. The upper management may conduct the evaluation exercise once a year for performance evaluation. Such an approach will be deemed more objective and comprehensive (Shafie, 1996). Second, the upper management may delegate more decision making and control to the employees, who are empowered to take certain decisions without the approval or interference from the upper management. That becomes a type of job resource for employees. Third, in the event where both suggestions are not feasible to upper management, the upper management can form groups or teams to complete a project or tasks. Such group/team formation allows for more sharing of responsibilities and less strain and demand on any given employee (Sprigg, Jackson, & Parker, 2000). Team members would also have more responsibility for the tasks they need to complete. In addition, they would also obtain support from one another (De Jong & Dirks, 2012). Not only would job performance be increased, employee creativity would also be enhanced (Zhang & Zhou, 2014).

Personal development has showed itself as an antecedent for motivation and engagement in employees (Baldwin, Garza-Reyes, Kumar, & Rocha-Lona, 2014; Teare, Cummings, Donaldson-Brown, & Spittle, 2011). One of the ways employees search for meaning at work is from their ability to contribute to the

organization. Organizations should acknowledge the skills and abilities of every employee. In order to maximize employee potential, organizations can rely on the employee KSAOs in completing tasks and jobs. In addition, organizations may conduct courses to enhance employee development through training and mentorship (Broadhurst, 2012).

8.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study has showed that personal development is able to increase employees' engagement and job performance. Management trust climate has also showed to provide personal development for employees. Personal development mediated management trust climate and engagement. It also showed lower levels of burnout where burnout leads to higher sleeping problems. Overall, this study signifies a model where trust climate is able to provide job resources and better employee well-being.

CHAPTER 9

Conclusion, limitations, future research and implications

9.1 Introduction

The current thesis integrated quantitative approaches (a cross-sectional survey and a longitudinal survey) to investigate the effect of organizational factors on employees' job resources and work outcomes. This study highlighted the importance of some organizational aspects of work, including organizational climate, leadership style and organizational culture that might effects employees' outcomes, particularly through specific job resources. Three important organizational climate constructs were used in the current study, namely PSC, team climate and management trust climate. For leadership style, the study used transformational leadership and empowering leadership, while only hierarchical culture was used in the context of the study.

9.2 Summary of Main Findings

As most of the main discussions have been discussed in each chapter on its own, this current section only highlights the summary of findings.

Since PSC led to higher job resources in previous literature, in Chapter 3, the study adopted another important organizational climate (i.e. team climate) to see whether there is a distinguished effect between both climates on job characteristic (i.e. role clarity and performance feedback). Since PSC derives from the management side and team climate is more related to team members, it is hypothesized that a PSC and team climate influence role clarity (Anderson & West, 1998; Dollard & Bakker, 2010), but only PSC influences performance feedback. Only PSC is able to lead to higher performance feedback and role clarity as PSC relates more to the management side, whereas the team climate represents the employees' process. The study supported the argument that PSC had a stronger influence both types of job resources, performance

feedback and role clarity, and not for team climate. It showed that management plays an important role in ensuring that employees have sufficient job resources to carry out their tasks successfully.

Chapter 4 highlighted the influence of PSC on employees' engagement and personal initiative, particularly through personal development. This study is important due to the fact that both job engagement and personal initiative representing positive employees' outcomes. While the former refer to attitudinal (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004), the latter is more on employees' behavioral aspects (Frese & Fay, 2001). The study revealed how PSC, as a psychosocial specific climate (Law et al., 2011), is able to signal psychosocial safety through the enhancement of self-development among employees (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). The study also discovered that engagement mediated the relationship between personal development and personal initiative. This result suggests that through an appropriate organizational climate (i.e. PSC), it able to shift employees into positive work motivation (i.e. engagement) which indirectly leads to positive work behavior (i.e. personal initiative).

In Chapter 5, the study reported on the effect of transformational leadership on job performance, especially through performance feedback (as an indicator to job resources). The study also investigated whether hierarchical culture, as one dominant organizational culture in Malaysia, moderates these relationships. The study discovered the positive relationships between transformational leadership on employees' performance feedback and job performance. Performance feedback was also found to mediate transformational leadership and job performance. However, the presence of hierarchical culture in relationships showed a lower level of performance feedback and job performance. The study discussed there was a need to look at leader-culture fit where leadership style should be fitted to the organization so that the employees do not receive

conflicting values and expected behaviors to perform from the higher management (Nieminen, Biermeier-hanson, & Denison, 2013).

In Chapter 6, the study highlighted the other types of organizational factors in influencing employees' job resources, by competing hierarchical culture and empowering leadership. This result is important considering that hierarchical culture is a part of the dominance organizational culture in Malaysia (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), while empowering leadership is mainly a Western concept. The study used work meaningfulness as an indicator to job resources and job engagement, and job performance as outcome variables. The study predicted that while hierarchical organizational culture will negatively affect employees' work meaningfulness and job performance, empowering leadership, which provides confidence and autonomy to employees, would positively influence employees' work meaningfulness and job performance. The results revealed that work meaningfulness mediated empowering leadership and job engagement through a positive relationship, but hierarchical culture negatively related to work meaningfulness.

In chapter 8, the study tested both transformational leadership and transactional leadership in affecting employees' job resources (i.e. supervisory coaching and feedback), job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The current study has highlighted how transformational leadership as a cross-level antecedent, is able to provide more supervisory coaching and feedback to the employees. Findings suggest that transformational leadership shows significant cross-level direct and indirect effects on supervisory coaching and feedback, and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has also been identified to mediate job resources and turnover intention. Finally, since engagement and burnout are on two opposite poles, in Chapter 7, the study reported on how an attitudinal climate (i.e. management trust climate) enhances employees' job resources

(i.e. personal development) and employees' well-being (i.e. reduce sleeping problems). The study also highlighted how personal development is able to increase job engagement and reduce employees' burnout. Results found that management trust climate led to higher levels of personal development and job performance. Unexpectedly, the study discovered there is no relationship between management trust climate and sleeping problems. However, the study found that job burnout leads to higher sleeping problems.

In conclusion, the study revealed how job resources mainly enhance some positive aspects of employees' positive outcomes, such as job engagement, personal initiative, and job performance. The study also discovered that organizational contextual is crucial, since without consideration to organizational climate, leadership, and organizational culture, it might be difficult to understand what the causes of job resources are.

9.3 Limitations and Future Research

Although longitudinal research has several advantages, especially to avoid common method variances as occurs in cross-sectional studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003), using a one-year gap between time 1 and time 2 is a bit challenging. Although the study is still within an acceptable range of participants (e.g. 120 participants and above, see Carless, 2005; Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994), the study suffered with nearly 50% of dropout. However, some scholars such as Kneipp and McIntosh (2001) have noted that such phenomenon is usual in applied research studies with attrition rates ranging from 5%-70%. Considering that longitudinal studies are not common in Malaysia, and using a multilevel approach is rare, and in the situation that Malaysian employees are not encouraged to participate in survey research (see Idris,

Dollard, & Yulita, 2014), the study initiative to use longitudinal research in Malaysia should be considered as challenging issues.

Some studies as reported in Chapter 3, 5, and 7 used cross-sectional methods. Although the results may provide some important information on situations in the Malaysian work setting, the studies were unable to see causality effects. So, the result needs to be interpreted carefully. However, the researcher ran some common analysis such as Harman's test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) and factorial analysis to counter against some statistical problems that might affect the results.

Given that the research has proposed that organizational culture, organizational climate, and organizational leadership revolves as upper level factors on employees' outcomes, their relationships remain unclear (Wallace, Hunt, & Richards, 1999). It seems that these factors may represent overlapping concepts, and which construct has the highest level of influences on others remains. Most literature in the past seems to not clarify the relationships between the three and are investigated individually, rather than integrating them together in the same study. It would be useful if future research employs a three-level analysis, to see the effect of these relationships. For example, organizational culture (level 3) predicts leadership (level 2) and organizational climate (level 1). Although using three level analysis is not an easy option as there needs to be at least 100 organizations at level 3 (Maas & Hox, 2005; Scherbaum & Ferreter, 2007), the results may show interesting findings to the literature as there are not many studies done using this approach.

Using a self-rated questionnaire may not solve some construct validation issues either. For example, although the study measured some important variables, such as job engagement, personal initiative and job performance, at the end all of them might

represent “attitudinal” and “perception” measures, rather than an accurate concept of construct measurement.

Since the research is conducted in a Malaysian setting, it represents an Eastern perspective. However, the reliability of the measurements that were used were all constructed, validated and tested in the West. While they have showed acceptable validities and reliabilities, Malaysian culture may not be well suited for the measurements, as the West and the East have cultural differences (see Winnie, 2005). Further studies and analyses will need to be done to further validate the applicability of such constructs.

9.4 Future Research Directions

While the research has highlighted the different types of job resources that affected engagement, future studies may use the different variables and try to test it by using different theories. For example, using the DISC theory (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003) may have different assumptions on the meaning of job resources, as it contains physical, cognitive and emotional aspects. Using objective measurement to measure some variables may be useful too. For example, job performance can be measured by using actual employees’ performance (i.e. supervisor rating), rather than using how employees perceive themselves on how good they are while completing tasks.

It was encouraging that the study adopted a two-wave study approach to counter limitations cross sectional studies may have such as common method bias and the inability to investigate the cause-effect linkage (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, with the research model that included mediators, it necessarily uses three waves data collection as recommended by Maxwell and Cole (2007). This is important, due to the fact that two longitudinal waves were still unable to resolve some methodological and statistical issues. For example, while T1 independent variables

predicts T2 dependent variable are considered appropriate, it is becoming complicated with the inclusion of the mediator into the model. The question on what the appropriate method to use becomes an issue [i.e. independent (T1) → Mediator (T2) → dependent (T2) *or* independent (T1) → Mediator (T1) → dependent (T2)]. So the best way to resolve the problem is only through employing three waves longitudinal data.

Using HLM for multilevel analysis is interesting, but challenging as well. Some scholars argue that HLM might not produce accurate variance estimations (Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). In addition, scholars suggest using more advanced statistical software such as Mplus (Muthen & Muthen, 2007) as it able to provide a more accurate estimation value. However, it needs an appropriate sample size (i.e. 50 observations per variable; Muthen & Muthen, 2002) and takes a longer time.

It is noted that the research has found interesting findings in the Malaysian context which is applicable in Eastern countries. Such findings become relevant in Eastern context, which is investigated less in the literature world, which is mainly Western dominated. Nevertheless, it is also encouraging if future studies can have comparisons between Western and Eastern countries on organizational contexts and work conditions. This is to understand better which factors play more important roles in the context of the countries, as Western countries emphasizes more on flexibility while Eastern countries impose a more controlled environment for the employees.

9.5 Implications

Living in a social context, it is imperative to take into account environmental factors which may affect employees' outcomes, other than just their personal characteristics. This is in accordance to the societal and national culture that affects human behavior (Chaudary, 2014; Erez, 2010; Georgas & Berry, 1995). Thus, using an

appropriate organizational and leadership approach with a consideration of societal and national culture might be a right way to solve some employees' problems.

Organizations display a wide range of personalities. In other words, organizations resemble human beings and have certain characteristics. Such features affect the people within the organizations (e.g. employees). Delarue and De Prins (2004) further acknowledge environment, its method and its process have an influence on employees' performance. The comparison of organizational climates allows literature to understand how each of them affect job resources and engagement differently. This highlights two aspects: Higher level environmental influence on the employees and employees' performance other than their abilities.

It is also important to note that the existence of job resources does not lie on individual levels only. The organizations play an important role. Job resources which include role clarity, performance feedback, work meaningfulness, and personal development need to be created by management. However, it needs to be suitable to both organizations and employees. For example, in some working conditions, not all types of job resources are needed. Employees who are working with national security for example, are exposed to too much job control due to security issues, but job control may be useful for scientists who are expected to be more creative and innovative.

While retaining employees remains an important challenge for employers, and there is an endless need to have employees who can perform at work, the cost of hiring can be exorbitant. Organizations can implement simple measures that ensure their organizational climates are healthy and beneficial for the employees.

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