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Assessing follower perceptions of leader behaviour: The psychometric assessment and

comparative analysis of a Positive Supervisor Behaviour Scale

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ABSTRACT

It is assumed that followers only observe a limited set of leader behaviours and, of those behaviours, followers are keenly attuned to leader actions that affect their performance and well-being at work. In this thesis, leader behaviour is explored through the design and psychometric evaluation of a positive supervisor behaviour scale (PSBS) across three studies. In Study One, exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the broader managerial practices survey (MPS) to identify salient supervisor behaviours from the perspective of followers without specific rater training or experience. In Study Two, the hypothesised four-factor structure of the PSBS and its construct validity were assessed using confirmatory factor analyses on office-based employees in New Zealand. In Study Three, the psychometric properties of the PSBS were further examined on office-based employees in the United States. Study Three tested the performance and stability of the measure on a geographically distant sample to re-examine construct validity using a second method and to evaluate the PSBS for measurement invariance between a New Zealand and a United States sample. Using data from Study One and Three, the predictive validity of the PSBS on follower outcomes was also assessed. Lastly, using data from Study Three, the PSBS, which is a measure of the frequency of positive supervisor behaviour was compared against a multi-dimensional scale of negative supervisor behaviour. Results showed that the PSBS reliably measures four behaviours that followers can distinguish without training or systematic observation. These behaviours are relevant to follower attitudes and work performance. Across the three studies used to design the PSBS, the scale showed excellent psychometric properties. Results from the predictive validity studies across geographically distinct samples showed that the PSBS reliably predicts satisfaction with leader and cognitive engagement. Results from a comparative study showed that a negative behaviour scale was superior to the PSBS in predicting follower satisfaction with a leader and task proficiency.

DEDICATION

To my parents Peninah and Ernest Mharapara. Through sacrifice and hard work,

you blessed me with an educational inheritance.

Thank you Mum & Dad

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Establishing what constitutes leader behaviour remains an unresolved issue in management and organisational behaviour literature (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Borman & Brush, 1993; Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012; O'Donnell, Yukl, & Taber, 2012; Tett, Guterman, Bleier, & Murphy, 2000; Wang, Tsui, & Xin, 2011). The controversy in demarcating leader behaviour is further complicated when scholars and practitioners attempt to categorise it as effective or ineffective (Cooper & Nirenberg, 2004; Feser, Mayol, & Srinivasan, 2015; Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Hassan, Rubiná Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Patel & Hamlin, 2012; Rath & Conchie, 2009). A significant obstacle to classifying leader behaviour is the non-existence of a standard definition for a leader, what a leader does, or how a leader differs from other organisational members. In studying leader behaviour, extent research has sampled executives (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), managers (Lindebaum & Fielden, 2011), and supervisors (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004).

Failure to reach agreement on what constitutes leader behaviour has led to further disagreement about behaviours associated with effectiveness or ineffectiveness in organisations (Borman & Brush, 1993; Hales, 1986; Martinko & Gardner, 1985). Some theorists classify leader behaviour in functional terms where effectiveness is measured through quantifiable metrics such as successful project completion (Sumner, Bock, & Giamartino, 2006), increased sales (Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006), improved business growth (Bowers & Seashore, 1966), more profitability (S. J. Peterson & Luthans, 2003) and increased share price (Watkin & Hubbard, 2003). Other writers view leader behaviour through a social lens (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Tsui, 1984a; Tsui, 1990; Tsui & Ashford, 1994; Tsui, 1994; Wang et al., 2011; Yukl, 2012). These writers argue that effective behaviour is a social construction because in modern organisations, leaders operate in

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complex and dynamic environments where multiple constituents such as followers, peers, superiors and clients, influence their performance.

Related to the operationalisation of leader behaviour as a social construct is the unresolved issue of which constituents are best positioned to rate a leader's behaviour (Borman, 1974; Bozeman, 1997; Conway, Lombardo, & Sanders, 2001; Greguras, Ford, & Brutus, 2003; Hassan & Rohrbaugh, 2009). Given the direct influence of leader behaviour on follower attitudes and performance, are followers better positioned to observe and rate leader behaviour? Would peers perform better and more reliably as assessors of leader behaviour? Peers work in similar roles and are keenly aware of the expectations, demands and pressures experienced by a leader. Ratings provided by a superior are another option. Given that a leader's superior establishes the work agenda for her or him, are superiors the best people to rate leader behaviour? In choosing the most appropriate constituents to evaluate leader behaviour, rater susceptibility to various biases such as the halo effect, leniency error and consistency motif, need to be considered.

The abovementioned gaps in scholarly understanding of leader behaviour have driven the current research. This thesis contributes to leader behaviour literature by addressing the following research questions:

1. Which leader behaviours do followers perceive to be positive in organisational settings?

2. Do those positive leader behaviours predict important follower outcomes? If so, how well do they predict follower outcomes?

3. Compared to negative leader behaviours, are positive leader behaviours stronger predictors of important follower outcomes?

Before outlining the process taken to answer each of the research questions, key elements of the research study that demarcate its scope and theoretical foundations are

presented. Elements include the body of literature used to conceptualise leader behaviour, specification of the targets whose behaviour is being evaluated, and a rationale for the constituency selected to provide ratings of leader behaviour. I begin, however, with a summary of leader behaviour research.

Leadership

More than four decades ago, eminent leadership scholar Ralph Stogdill came to the unsatisfying conclusion that, "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 259). A universally accepted definition of leadership remains elusive in organisational literature because scholars have failed to reach a consensus. Recently, prominent leadership scholar Gary Yukl (2013) identified ten definitions that have been used to describe leadership over the past 50 years. For example, Katz and Khan (1978) defined leadership as "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (p. 528), while Jacobs and Jaques (1990) describe leadership as "a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose" (p. 281). Most of the definitions suggest that leadership occurs when influence is purposefully directed towards others to motivate them to perform at levels that exceed normal or standard expectations. However, important differences exist amongst some of the definitions and according to Yukl (2013), these differences represent significant disagreement about the conceptualisation of the leadership construct.

The volume of internet entries (+125 million) retrieved on Google and Google Scholar by the term *leadership* is clear evidence of the concept's popularity amongst researchers, practitioners, and laypersons (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Leadership has been studied in diverse contexts including politics (Ferreira & Gyourko, 2014), community affairs (Bryson & Crosby, 2007), philanthropy (Banducci, 2005), and sports (Hovden, 2000).

Conservative estimates suggest that between $20 and $25 billion is spent annually on management and leadership training globally (Pfeffer, 2015).

Various theoretical frameworks have been proposed to study and explain leadership. Early theoretical work on leadership includes great man theories (Carlyle, 1865; Terman, 1904), trait theories (Stogdill, Goode, & Day, 1962; Stogdill, 1974), behavioural theories (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Merton, 1957), contingency theories (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971), transactional theories (Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) and transformational theories (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Lowe et al., 1996). Concurrent with the proliferation of empirical research on leadership, new theoretical frameworks have emerged. New theories include authentic leadership theory (F. Luthans & Avolio, 2003), shared, collective or distributed leadership theory (Pearce & Conger, 2003), servant leadership theory (Barbuto Jr. & Wheeler, 2006), cross-cultural leadership theory (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), spiritual leadership theory (Fry, 2003), and e-leadership theory (Zaccaro & Bader, 2003).

As noted by Jackson and Parry (2011), "the hunger and quest for leadership knowledge appears to be insatiable" (p. 21). Scholars, practitioners and laypeople alike view leadership as the source and solution to modern problems, and therefore this is an appropriate time to study leadership (Jackson & Parry, 2011). The current research is grounded in a follower-centred view of leadership as proposed by Meindl and colleagues (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Meindl, 1990; Meindl, 1993; Meindl, 1995). The authors argue that leadership is meaningfully affected by followers' socially constructed perceptions of their leader based on her or his behaviour, efficacy and personality.

However, as noted by Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), followership and its impact on leadership has received limited theoretical and empirical attention from researchers. In offering specific recommendations for work on follower-centred research,

Shamir (2007) urges scholars to investigate how followers' needs, expectations, values and attitudes influence leader behaviour and follower perceptions of leader effectiveness. This thesis employs current perspectives on leader behaviour and effectiveness (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Yukl, 2012) to respond to the dearth of theory and research on follower-centred interpretations of leader behaviour.

Leadership Versus Management Debate

It would be remiss to proceed without acknowledging the leadership versus management debate in the organisational behaviour literature. Some theorists contend that leadership and management are qualitatively different and mutually exclusive (Armandi, Oppedisano, & Sherman, 2003; Kent, Crotts, & Azziz, 2001; Pearce et al., 2003). They argue that leaders are concerned with creating conditions that allow for innovation, adaptability and flexibility while managers are concerned with creating order, stability, and efficiency. Other theorists disagree with this perspective and argue that leadership and management are not mutually exclusive (Ghoshal, 2005; Nienaber & Roodt, 2008; Novicevic, Sloan, Duke, Holmes, & Breland, 2006). These writers view leading and managing as distinct processes but argue that leaders and managers are not necessarily different types of people. Building on Kotter's (1990) seminal work on the leadership and management debate, Lunenburg (2011) suggests that leaders and managers contend with similar issues using different methods. For example, in terms of employee relations, leaders empower colleagues whereas managers direct subordinates. In terms of organisational governance, leaders are thought to influence colleagues whereas managers assert authority on followers.

However, findings from a recent literature review on the conceptualisation of leadership and management (Nienaber, 2010) suggests that both concepts are intertwined. Nienaber argues that leadership and management are synonymous concepts that try to capture what people in formal or informal authority do. In a revealing study centred on leader and

manager identity seeking, Carroll and Levy (2008) found that middle and senior managers revere and strive for leadership identity but, when confronted with problems that have no apparent solution, they revert to management identities. The regression to management identity hypothesis appears to diverge from Grint (2005) who argues that the term leadership best describes people or actions that require innovative solutions for *wicked* problems. Wicked problems are novel, and do not have convenient solutions. Management on the other hand is a more suitable descriptor for people or actions that attend to *tame* or familiar problems that can be resolved with tried-and-tested solutions. Although important, the leader versus management debate is beyond the scope of this thesis and I concur with Jackson and Parry (2011), who conclude that "we should resist the trap of ghettoizing leaders and managers, demarcating those who should lead and those who should manage" (p. 30).

The Danish language is fortunate to have the word *ledelse* in its lexicon (Jackson & Parry, 2011). Ledelse is a comprehensive term that incorporates leadership and management terms. The English language does not have a similar term, and the terms leader and manager are used interchangeably in organisational behaviour literature. In the current thesis, I draw on both leadership and management literature and use the term leaders, leadership and leader behaviour to discuss theory and findings from a range of literatures. However, at the empirical level, when I am discussing the design and findings from my PhD, I refer to leaders as supervisors because the latter is a sufficiently broad term that most people in New Zealand and the United States recognise as a descriptor for their workplace foreperson, manager, line manager, leader or team leader. A supervisor is a leader whose behaviour influences the performance of a team, work unit, or organisation (Yukl, 2012). Therefore, for research participants in the countries where the survey data were collected, the term supervisor provided clear direction about the target under study.

Defining Supervisors

Neither New Zealand's Employee Relations Act 2000 nor Australia's Fair Work Act 2009 provide a definition for a supervisor. Therefore, working definitions of the term supervisor were sourced from North America where half of the data for this research were collected. In the US, the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) states that:

> The term "supervisor" means any individual having authority, in the interest of the employer, to hire, transfer, suspend, lay off, recall, promote, discharge, assign, reward, or discipline other employees, or responsibly to direct them, or to adjust their grievances, or effectively to recommend such action, if in connection with the foregoing the exercise of such authority is not of a merely routine or clerical nature, but requires the use of independent judgment (G. Mayer & Shimabukuro, 2012, p. 2).

According to the Office of Personnel Management (1998) which is governed by the NLRA, a supervisor is charged with overseeing lower ranked staff through planning, assigning, reviewing, amending, accepting or rejecting their work. She or he is also charged with negotiating completion dates and obtaining resources on behalf of staff members. A supervisor is also responsible for evaluating staff performance and approving awards or initiating performance-based corrective action (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 1998).

In Ontario, Canada, the Occupational Health and Safety Act 1990 (OHSA) has a broader but more succinct definition that states, "a supervisor is a person who has charge of a workplace or authority over a worker" (Government of Ontario, 1990, p. 5). Under OHSA, a person is considered a supervisor if they have the authority to initiate or recommend the hiring, disciplining or dismissal of junior staff members. Supervisors have the authority to promote, transfer or demote junior staff members and they also have the power to approve overtime, vacation time, and leaves of absence. Thus, for the current research, the definitions

provided by the US federal congress and Ontario's legislative assembly are adequate for both New Zealand and US samples. In the next section, an operational definition of the term follower is provided as well as a rationale for selecting them as appropriate raters of supervisor behaviour.

Defining Followers

According to the Cambridge Business Dictionary (2016), the term subordinate refers to a person with less power or who is in a lower position than someone else in a company or organisation. The same source also refers to a direct report as an employee whose position at work is directly below that of another person, and who is managed by that person. While scholars, practitioners and laypersons use a variety of terms to describe individuals who are under the supervision of another in organisations (e.g., subordinate, direct report, employee, staff member, associate), the term *follower* was chosen for this research because it is free of stigma and negative connotations. It is acknowledged that *subordinate* is the most frequently used term in organisational literature (Bowling & Michel, 2011; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Tsui, 1984b; Tsui, Ashford, St. Clair, & Xin, 1995; Weiss, 1977), but the prevailing culture in New Zealand is one of egalitarianism and thus the term *follower* is preferred.

Gilbreath and Karimi (2012) provide a sound rationale for followers as suitable evaluators of supervisor behaviour. The authors write, "managers get things done mostly not by way of their own efforts, but through the efforts of their employees. For high-level results, managers need employees who are focused and productive" (p. 115). The notion that supervisors rely on followers to accomplish work objectives is central to this thesis (Bennis, 2008; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001). Hence, it is relevant to identify the behaviours followers expect from their supervisors so that they can perform adequately in their roles. Research on the supervisor-subordinate dyad has shown that the actions of supervisors can have significant effects on those that report to them. Supervisor behaviour has been linked to a

range of follower outcomes including follower well-being (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004), job satisfaction (Griffin, Patterson, & West, 2001; Jernigan & Beggs, 2005), presenteeism (Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012), job neglect (Karimi, Gilbreath, Tae-Yeol Kim, & Grawitch, 2014), performance (Brewer, Wilson, & Beck, 1994; Deluga, 1994) and cardiovascular functioning (Wager, Fieldman, & Hussey, 2003). Thus, followers are an appropriate constituency for rating supervisor behaviour because their perceptions of supervisor actions are linked to their work attitudes, job performance and health.

Overview of Leader Behaviour and Effectiveness Research

An examination of the academic literature on leader, management and supervisor behaviour shows that there is little to no consensus on what constitutes effective behaviour. A number of scholars have written about the dearth of studies distinguishing between effective and ineffective behaviour (Barker, 2000; Cammock, Nilakant, & Dakin, 1995; Kim & Yukl, 1995; F. Luthans, Welsh, & Taylor, 1988; Martinko & Gardner, 1985; Noordegraaf & Stewart, 2000; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). There is broad consensus on the need to conduct more research in search of criteria that are most relevant and meaningful for evaluating leader behaviour for effectiveness and ineffectiveness (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013). A comprehensive review of academic literature on leader behaviour and leader behaviour associated with effectiveness is provided in Chapter Two.

In the practitioner literature, the influential *McKinsey Quarterly* recently published an article in which the authors claim to have decoded the most relevant aspects of front-line leader behaviour. Feser, Mayol and Srinivasan (2015) argue that the "secret" to developing effective leaders is to encourage four types of behaviour: being supportive, operating with a strong results orientation, seeking different perspectives, and solving problems effectively. Given these four behaviours, two important questions remain unanswered. First, to whom are these behaviours important and do all the leader's constituents place equal weight on these

core behaviours? Second, were these core behaviours derived using sound theory and methodology? Feser et al. (2015) note that they developed a comprehensive list of 20 behaviours based on practical experience and relevant academic literature. The authors also claim that the four core behaviours explain 89% of the variance between strong and weak organisations regarding leadership effectiveness, but they do not present a replicable procedure of how their findings were derived. Therefore, other researchers are unable to assess their findings for stability.

In their book, *Strengths based leadership: Great leaders, teams, and why people follow*, *New York Times* bestselling author Tom Rath and leadership expert Barry Conchie suggest that effective leaders always invest in the strengths of their followers, surround themselves with the right people, and understand their followers' needs. According to Rath and Conchie (2009), followers have four basic needs; trust, compassion, stability, and hope. Leaders who are empathetic and responsive to these needs are considered effective by their followers. Unlike the McKinsey article, Rath and Conchie (2009) are more specific regarding the raters of effective leader behaviour. Although they make reference to effectiveness behaviours that may be better observed by a leader's superior (e.g., being well-rounded), they largely deal with leader behaviour from a follower perspective.

However, Rath and Conchie (2009) do not present a literature review to show how they have incorporated existing knowledge on leader behaviour into their recommendations. Also, no explanation was provided for neglecting methods which are frequently used in organisational research (e.g., factor analysis, diary studies, and repertory grids). It is interesting to note that their large sample (N > 10,000) also included respondents over the age of 18 who were unemployed. The authors claimed that it allowed them to explore effective leader behaviour that extended beyond an organisation's walls. This appears to be an unusual decision given that the findings were subsequently used in a book about leader behaviour in

organisations. The two abovementioned examples reflect the state of the practitioner literature on leadership, leader behaviour and leader effectiveness. Pfeffer (2015) puts it aptly when he states that leadership suffers from the mythologising of exceptional cases. He argues that the practitioner literature is overly-focused on ideal-world situations in which leader behaviour is authentic and predictable. Instead, practitioner literature would be better served by focusing on how leaders actually behave given the myriad of problems they have to contend with. Thus, there is a clear need for a more rigorous empirical approach to understanding real leader behaviour and its link to effectiveness.

The current research contributes to scientific understanding of the leader-follower relationship in work organisations. As described earlier, extant academic and practitioner literature has yet to reach a consensus on an applied measure of leader behaviour. The overall goal of this thesis is to produce a short, theoretically grounded measure of positive leader behaviour, assess its psychometric properties, and compare its predictive validity against a measure of negative leader behaviour. In proposing directions for future research, Staw (2016) argues that organisational behaviour research may enhance its practical utility by focusing on behaviours and practices to avoid. This would involve the investigation of negative behaviour leader behaviour that has a deleterious effect on co-workers and the organisation at large. As a practical matter, a measure that is rigorously derived, brief, and relevant to organisations is likely to advance leader-follower research in applied contexts because of its minimal impact on organisational resources (Avenier & Cajaiba, 2012). The next section discusses the contribution and application of theory to the current research.

Theoretical Framework

In an instructive article emphasising the dynamic and multi-layered ways in which theory contributes to scientific enquiry, Adams and Buetow (2014) proposed a framework containing six theoretical layers and outlined how they should interact from the start of a

thesis to its conclusion. The Adams and Buetow framework was adopted but only three layers – background theory, methodology and theoretical concepts – are used because they were germane to the current research. Background theory refers to existing theories and hypotheses about the relationships amongst focal constructs. For the current research, several literatures were examined and extent theory is presented in the literature review in Chapter Two.

Drawing on background theory, the methodology used in the current research was determined by the research questions. This thesis took a post-positivist approach to addressing the research questions whereby key leader behaviours linked to follower attitudes and performance were investigated for effect using survey methods. A more detailed description of methodology is presented in Chapter Three.

As the third and final level, specific theory was used to guide the research. Conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002) was selected as the most parsimonious explanation for the investigations in the current research. COR is an integrated resource theory that states, "people seek to obtain, retain, and protect resources and that stress occurs when resources are threatened with loss or lost or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 312). COR theory is further is discussed and applied in Chapter Five.

In the current research, a comparison between positive and negative leader behaviour is made to determine which of the two types of behaviours has greater power in predicting follower attitudes and performance. Most organisations operate with finite resources and are continuously seeking information that will guide the setting of priorities and allocation of resources (Phillips & Bana, 2007). Phillips and Bana e Costa (2007) also argue that, when presented with a variety of proposals, organisational decision-makers often lack a detailed understanding of each option and fail to make optimal decisions. Results from the comparative analysis in the current research may provide useful information about which

leader behaviours have a stronger effect on followers and where the organisation should focus its resources. Equipped with this knowledge, organisational decision-makers can make informed decisions about initiatives that promote positive leader behaviour versus those that mitigate negative leader behaviour.

Winsborough, Kaiser and Hogan's (2009) contention that followers are more receptive to leaders that are competent and generous is a useful description of the approach taken toward understanding positive supervisor behaviour in this thesis. It is likely that individuals promoted to supervisory positions have demonstrated adequate levels of technical or functional competence. However, I advance the notion that for leader behaviour to be perceived as positive by followers, leader behaviour should be generous in giving them praise and recognition, leader behaviour should increase follower role clarity and model appropriate ethical behaviour, and leader behaviour should obtain required resources for followers to accomplish their work. Leaders that are sensitive and responsive to these follower needs are subsequently viewed as more effective than their indifferent and unresponsive counterparts.

Following the introduction, Chapter Two provides a review of positive and negative leader behaviour literature as well as follower outcomes. The chapter begins with an assessment of positive leader behaviour under the functional and social paradigms. The literature reviewed includes implicit leadership theories, social identity theory of leadership, social contagion theory, reputational effectiveness, individual reputation, multiple constituency framework, and leader behaviour taxonomies. Negative leader behaviour is also reviewed with particular focus on two extant leader mistreatment models. A framework of implicit and explicit negative leader behaviour is introduced to better understand the mistreatment constructs investigated in the current research. Chapter Two concludes with a rationale for choosing the hierarchical behaviour taxonomy (HBT) over other leader behaviour classifications.

Chapter Three details the design of a brief supervisor behaviour scale (PSBS). The PSBS was designed for use by general employees or followers who do not have specific training or experience in rating supervisor behaviour. The PSBS enables broad use without significant time or other resource costs. The PSBS asks followers to rate their line managers or supervisors on positive leader behaviours that are meaningful and observable to them. Starting with a broader scale of managerial practices, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are used in three studies to design the PSBS and to assess its psychometric properties.

In Chapter Four, two studies are conducted to assess the predictive validity of the PSBS on follower attitudes and performance. This is followed by a comparative analysis of the PSBS against a scale of negative supervisor behaviour to establish predictive power. As indicated earlier, most organisations have finite resources that must be used judiciously. Comparing the positive and negative behaviour scales on their ability to predict important follower outcomes allows organisations to target specific behaviours for reinforcement or corrective action.

In Chapter Five, findings from Chapters Three and Four are discussed with regards to theory and practice. The chapter begins with a discussion of the PSBS and the contribution the scale makes to leader behaviour research and practice. Potential applications of the PSBS are also discussed. Second, the predictive validity of both the positive (PSBS) and the negative leader behaviour scales on follower outcomes is discussed. Third, results from the comparative analysis between the PSBS and the negative leader behaviour scale are discussed. Chapter Five concludes with a discussion of practical implications, research limitations and suggestions for future research.

In summary, leader behaviours that most office-based organisational employees or followers perceive as positive (effective) are identified and psychometrically assessed.

Second, the predictive validity of the positive leader behaviours is assessed on follower

outcomes. Third, the positive leader behaviours are compared against negative leader

behaviours to determine model superiority and compare predictive strength.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Positive Leader Behaviour

One of the primary objectives of the current research is to further scholarly understanding of positive leader behaviour. Which leader behaviours do followers adjudge to be positive and therefore effective? What criteria do followers use to identify positive leader behaviours that are important to them? In establishing leader actions important to them, which other positive behaviours are excluded and why? Organisational behaviour literature provides the functional and social paradigms that aid our understanding of follower-centred perspectives on positive leader behaviour.

Background Theory

As suggested by Adams and Buetow (2014), literature pertinent to the research questions was first examined to identify extant hypotheses and theories about the supervisor-follower relationship. To this end, a decision was made to focus on several kinds of literature with connections to leader behaviour and effectiveness. These included functional organisation theory (Burrell & Morgan, 1979), implicit leadership theories (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996), social identity theory of leadership (Tajfel, 1972), social contagion theory (Meindl, 1995), reputational effectiveness (Tsui, 1994), individual reputation (Ferris et al., 2014), multiple constituency framework (Tsui, 1984a; Tsui, 1990), and leader behaviour taxonomies (Borman & Brush, 1993; Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Tett et al., 2000; Yukl, 2012). The abovementioned theories and frameworks are reviewed in the following sections.

Functional Paradigm

The functional paradigm focuses on positive leader behaviour that is measured through objective and quantifiable outputs (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Morgan (1990) states that "functionalist organization theory in effect attempts to create a world characterized by

certainty" (p. 18). Performance measured through quantifiable outputs conveys an objective level of certainty regarding positive leader behaviour. By meeting or exceeding objective standards of performance (e.g., unit/team productivity, project completion, cost savings), a leader demonstrates positive leader behaviour that is determined by organisational expectations. In essence, the functional approach suggests that positive leader behaviour should be measured systematically using objective standards that are associated with organisational effectiveness.

However, the work roles of leaders in contemporary organisations are complex and multi-dimensional. In addition to demonstrating effectiveness by meeting objective organisational standards, leaders must also contend with the subjective expectations of co-workers (e.g., superiors, peers, followers) that influence her or his work. The functional approach with its focus on quantifiable metrics does not account for positive leader behaviour based on constituent expectations. While it is useful for capturing positive leader behaviour through objective standards, the functional approach is not suitable for understanding positive leader behaviour from a co-worker perspective. Some scholars argue that what individuals identify as positive leader behaviour is in the eye of the beholder (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, & Giessner, 2007). That is, a person's idea of a leader who consistently displays positive behaviour is influenced by previously developed assumptions that may or may not be demonstrably valid.

Social Paradigm

The social paradigm allows for the measurement of positive leader behaviour through the subjective perceptions of others (F. Luthans et al., 1988; Martinko & Gardner, 1985; Morse & Wagner, 1978). Cammock and colleagues put it best when they state that "managerial work provides many opportunities for superiors, peers and subordinates to form impressions and make evaluations of the manager's effectiveness. People inside the

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organization make judgements on the effectiveness of managers around them, based on their subjective experiences of day-to-day interactions" (1995, p. 446).

In their investigation of how employees in a large New Zealand public enterprise defined managerial effectiveness, Cammock, Nilakant and Dakin (1995) used the social paradigm to investigate what they called the "highly complex and contingent nature of managerial work" (p. 444). The authors argue for the appropriateness of the social paradigm because it accounts for the subjectivity of observer perceptions. Perceptions of positive leader behaviour as a function of individual preconceptions have been partially explained through implicit leadership theories (ILTs). These theories comport well with the social paradigm in that they explain how followers develop perceptions of positive leader behaviour.

Implicit leadership theories

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) involve stereotypes, beliefs and assumptions about the traits, skills or behaviours that are relevant for a specific type of leader (Kenney et al., 1996; Schyns & Schilling, 2011). ILTs represent cognitive structures or schemas that facilitate follower sense-making and form a basis for perceptions of effective leaders (Lord & Brown, 2004; van Knippenberg et al., 2007). Research findings suggest that ILTs are developed and continuously refined through actual experience, media exposure to effective leaders, and a variety of other influences such as pre-existing leadership schemas, leader and follower characteristics, cultural and task features (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Work on ILTs originated from Rosch's (1978) cognitive categorisation theory which postulated that perceivers (e.g., followers, followers, lower level employees) classify stimulus persons (e.g., leaders, managers, supervisors) by comparing them with prototypes of a particular category (e.g., positive or negative behaviour). Some scholars suggest that it is preconceptions of positive leader behaviour that predispose followers to leader influence attempts (van Knippenberg et al., 2007). Building on ILTs, several researchers have advanced

our understanding of positive leader behaviours as social constructions that arise from social identity and social contagion theories (Hogg, 2001; Meindl, 1995; Pastor, Meindl, & Mayo, 2002; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004).

Social identity theory of leadership

According to Tajfel (1972), social identity theory explains how individuals think of themselves as being a part of selected social groups. In general, individuals have a tendency to positively evaluate the distinctiveness of the groups they belong to versus the groups they do not. Following on from Tajfel's work, Hogg (2001) introduced the social identity theory of leadership that postulates that "as people identify more strongly with a group, the basis for leadership perceptions, evaluations, and endorsement becomes increasingly influenced by prototypicality" (p. 191). Prototypicality is the degree to which an object or a person is considered an exemplar of the category of which they are a member. Group prototypes are thought to represent the social reality that is shared by group members. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that group members are predominantly influenced by information that is seen to exemplify prototypical values, attitudes, norms and behaviours (van Knippenberg et al., 2007). Empirical studies have tested and found support for the notion that more prototypical group members are more likely to emerge as influential leaders because they appear to be more committed to the group and they are trusted more (Fielding & Hogg, 1997; Hais, Hogg, & Duck, 1997; Hogg, Hains, & Mason, 1998; Hogg, 2001). Therefore, leaders who consistently perform prototypical behaviours are viewed more positively by followers.

Social contagion model

Meindl (1990; 1993; 1995) introduced the social contagion model of leadership. The model describes the process in which individuals who find themselves in ambiguous situations look for social cues from others to define the situation (Weierter, 1997). Social

contagion of leadership occurs when expressive behaviours (e.g., enraptured facial expression, displays of passion or effervescence) are spread amongst followers and attributed to a leader irrespective of whether the leader actually modelled the behaviours or not (Meindl, 1990; Weierter, 1997). It has been suggested that high self-monitors are particularly susceptible to social contagion (Friedman & Miller-Herringer, 1991; Weierter, 1997). Self-monitoring is a personality trait that refers to an ability to regulate behaviour to accommodate social situations (Snyder, 1974). High self-monitors are especially sensitive to the expression and self-presentation of others in social situations and use these cues to manage their verbal or non-verbal self-presentation (Snyder, 1979). Given their need to manage impressions and to receive positive feedback, high self-monitors are keenly attuned to the behaviours of colleagues and the responses from superiors which then determine how they will behave. In the minds of high self-monitors, when particular behaviours are modelled by others and then condoned or endorsed by leaders, high-self monitors feel free to behave similarly because the leader has allowed it (Weierter, 1997).

Reputational effectiveness

In a different line of enquiry, Anne Tsui and colleagues advanced the notion that leader reputation as evaluated by co-workers (e.g., followers, peers, superiors) is an indicator of positive leader behaviour (1982; 1984a; 1990). That is, by meeting or exceeding the unique expectations of multiple constituents, a leader earns reputational credit and is therefore perceived positively. Reputational effectiveness is recognition which is awarded to an individual but it is not necessarily linked to an objective measure of performance. It represents the esteem or admiration afforded to a leader based on a subjective assessment by an observer. Empirical work on leader reputational effectiveness is guided by the multiple constituency framework (Tsui, 1984a). This framework posits that a leader works in a social structure with multiple constituents that have divergent and, at times, conflicting expectations

for her or him (Tsui et al., 1995). Therefore, this approach suggests that effectiveness can be understood through subjective information provided by the leader's superiors, peers and reports. For example, positive leader behaviour can be viewed as the fit between what a leader does and the expectations of her or his superiors, peers and followers. The degree of alignment or misalignment between a leader's actions and follower expectations serves as a proxy for positive leader behaviour or lack thereof.

The setting of leader expectations by multiple constituents is further explained through role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and role set analysis (Merton, 1957). Role theory suggests that individuals act in ways that are prescribed by their environment. In an organisational environment, the actions of most if not all employees are dictated by a set of privileges, duties, expectations and norms that they are required to fulfil. Also, employees are motivated by intrinsic factors such as self-interest (Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Peiró, Ramos, & Cropanzano, 2013) and self-concern (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Therefore, role behaviours for leaders are influenced by the demands of their prescribed role and by multiple constituents who have unique agendas and concerns. Constituents represent a role set that influences the leader's work through expectations, requests and demands (Tsui, 1982).

It can also be argued that reputational effectiveness has links to Hollander's (1958; 1960) idiosyncrasy credit theory of leadership. Rooted in exchange theory (Homans, 1958), the idiosyncrasy credit model suggests that leaders earn points for behaviour deemed to be effective by constituents. Research suggests that leaders earn idiosyncrasy credits from others' perceptions of their competence (Bass, 1985; Collins, 2001). Examples of competence include perceived control of scarce resources, perceived access to critical information, and the perceived ability to manage crisis situations (Yukl, 2013). Extant work also suggests that idiosyncrasy credits can be earned through others perceptions of leader group conformity (Hollander, 1960), intelligence (Hollander, 1978), personal characteristics (Kenny & Zaccaro,

1983), gender (Geis, Boston, & Hoffman, 1985), seniority (Insko et al., 1982) and quantity of verbal statements (Stein & Heller, 1983). Similarly, leaders lose credits when they fail to live up to constituent expectations or engage in performance considered to be negative. Depending on their idiosyncrasy credit balance, leaders are then able to engage in self-directed behaviour (even deviant behaviour) before sanctions are applied (Hollander, 1958).

In sum, a leader is considered high in reputational effectiveness if she or he is perceived to be exerting extra effort in responding to the needs and aspirations of her or his constituents (Tsui et al., 1995). The link between leader reputation and effectiveness is made clearer by examining reputation at the individual level.

Individual reputation

In addition to accounting (Shenkar & Yuchtman-Yaar, 1997), economics (Whitmeyer, 2000) and marketing (Bickerton, 2000), organisational behaviour research has also contributed to the scientific understanding of the reputation construct. Three reviews have examined reputation at the individual, unit/team and organisational levels (Ferris et al., 2003; Ferris et al., 2014; Zinko, Ferris, Blass, & Mary, 2007). Since organisational leaders are the focus of this thesis, reputation will be reviewed at the individual level. Personal or individual reputation is defined as "a perceptual identity reflective of the complex combination of salient personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behaviour, and intended images presented over a period of time as observed directly and/or as reported from secondary sources" (Ferris et al., 2003). Individual reputation is primarily driven by the perceptions of others.

Factors which inform reputation include personal characteristics and accomplishments that reflect a person's observable qualities and attributes (Ferris et al., 2003). For a leader, educational attainment and evidence of successful performance from past behaviour provides reputational information. Also, social effectiveness ability as indicated by emotional

intelligence and political skill provides additional information about the reputation of a leader (Ferris et al., 2005). Individual differences research suggests that reputation is an integral part of personality. Hogan and Shelton (1998) propose that reputation is personality from the outside. It captures how others process and evaluate an individual's (e.g., leader) efforts to cooperate and to prosper.

Reputation is a socially constructed phenomenon, and because of its subjective nature, some have argued that reputation is more of socio-political construct as opposed to an objective, scientific one (Ferris, Fedor, & King, 1994). Given its subjective qualities, a leader can have different and possibly conflicting reputations amongst multiple constituencies. How each constituency evaluates a leader will be influenced by how well she or he meets the expectations of that specific group.

Positive Leadership Behaviour Research

Although the quantity and quality of positive leader behaviour research pales in comparison to broader investigations of leader activities and content, some research has been conducted. As early as the 1950s, researchers identified differences between positive and negative leader behaviour (Flanagan, 1952; Guest, 1956). The quantity of research diminished after these early studies and it was not until the late 1970s that researchers again began to focus seriously on positive leader behaviour (Boyatzis, 1982; F. Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985; F. Luthans et al., 1988; Morse & Wagner, 1978).

In a review of studies on managerial jobs and behaviour, Stewart (1989) identified the lack of criteria for gauging positive leader behaviour as a major criticism of leadership research. According to Hales (1986), the evidence on whether behaviour is "good" or "bad" is relatively sparse. Stewart (1989) calls for leader behaviour information which can discriminate between successful (effective) and less successful (ineffective) leaders. Since the mid-1980s, the call for leader behaviour research which explicitly identifies positive and

negative acts has been getting louder (Cammock et al., 1995; Hales, 1986; Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Kim & Yukl, 1995; F. Luthans et al., 1985; Noordegraaf & Stewart, 2000; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). For leadership studies to contribute further to theory and practice, they should focus on positive and negative leader behaviours associated with effectiveness and ineffectiveness.

In the current thesis, positive leader behaviour is examined through the social paradigm. Positive leader behaviour is defined as beneficial actions that followers wish leaders would adopt to facilitate the performance of an employee, team, work unit, or organisation (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Yukl, 2012). The weighted average model (WAM) categorises factors that influence follower perceptions of positive leader behaviour (Fields, 2007; Kenny, 1991). Of the six factors identified as affecting follower perceptions of a leader, four are relevant to the current study. First, the frequency with which followers interact and observe a leader's behaviour influences whether they perceive her or his behaviour as positive or not. In most cases, leaders spend a significant portion of their time interacting with their followers while pursuing organisational objectives. Frequent leader-follower interaction provides followers with opportunities to observe and interpret leader behaviour.

Second, the stability of a leader's actions is likely to influence perceptions of behaviour (Fields, 2007; Kenny, 1991). The dependability or reliability of a specific leader behaviour across differing situations allows followers to determine whether that behaviour is positive or not (Fields, 2007). If particular leader behaviours are demonstrated consistently and they facilitate individual or work unit performance, followers are likely to view them as positive.

Third, extraneous information about the leader also influences followers' perceptions about leader behaviour (Fields, 2007). For example, excellent or poor unit/organisational

performance may be attributed to a leader's actions. Even in the absence of clear evidence attributing unit or organisational performance to the leader's behaviour, followers are likely to make causal links. Finally, communication amongst followers concerning the leader and her or his motives may influence perceptions of behaviour (Fields, 2007). In assessing the leader's motives, followers obtain information through direct interaction with the leader and indirectly through the leader's past behaviour and reputation.

Having followers as raters of leader behaviour is a controversial issue in organisational behaviour research. Critics argue that follower ratings of leader behaviour are correlated with personal characteristics such as leader likability and, therefore, such ratings are not reliable indicators of behaviour (Engle & Lord, 1997; Lewter & Lord, 1992). On the other hand, proponents of followers as appropriate raters of leader behaviour argue that follower ratings of leadership are an important element of feedback for leader assessment and development, as is found in 360-degree feedback. Moreover, follower evaluations of leadership play an important role in leader development efforts, and may spur leader improvement (Atwater & Brett, 2006; Facteau, Facteau, Schoel, Russell, & Poteet, 1998).

In the current thesis, the benefits of follower ratings of leader behaviour are maximised while the disadvantages are minimised. This is done through the use of a behaviourally anchored instrument to assess follower observation of leader behaviour as opposed to an instrument that assesses general impressions of the leader. Instruments such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass et al., 1996) are prone to biases such as liking because they contain items like "[my leader] …instills pride in me", or "…heightens my desire to succeed" . Instead, alternative measures that are behaviourally anchored such as the PSBS (used in this thesis) are more likely to minimise contamination due to personal characteristics.

Having defined what is meant by positive leader behaviour, a leader behaviour taxonomy grounded in the social paradigm is used in the current research and is presented next.

Hierarchical Behaviour Taxonomy

To categorise actions that describe positive leader behaviour associated with effectiveness, Yukl and colleagues (2002; 2012) developed the hierarchical behaviour taxonomy (HBT). The HBT identifies 15 positive leader behaviours that influence individual, work unit or organisational performance. Evidence in support of these behaviours has been drawn from several types of research including, survey (Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl, O'Donnell, & Taber, 2009; Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2013), critical incident (Amabile et al., 2004; Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Komaki, Zlotnick, & Jensen, 1986), diary (Amabile et al., 2004; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003), simulation (Marks, Zaccaro, & Mathieu, 2000), and comparative case studies (Baumard & Starbuck, 2005; Edmondson, 2003). In developing the HBT, Yukl integrates leadership research dating back to the 1950s to produce an inclusive but parsimonious taxonomy of effective leader behaviour. The behaviours in the HBT are observable, distinct, measurable and relevant for a variety of leaders. Therefore, the HBT is well suited for designing research, and conducting empirical research on positive leader behaviour.

The HBT is separated into four meta-categories which capture task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented and external-oriented behaviours. Survey data on the content of managerial work was used in factor analytic research to develop the task- and relations-oriented categories (Yukl et al., 2002). The task- and relations-oriented categories are similar to other constructs which have been explored under different names and these include initiating structure and consideration (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957), production- and employee-centred leadership (Likert, 1961), instrumental and supportive

leadership (House, 1971) performance and maintenance behaviour (Misumi & Peterson, 1985). For a manager to be perceived as displaying positive leader behaviour, she or he should at a minimum, engage in behaviours that facilitate task and interpersonal aspects of their role.

While the establishment of task and relations two-factor model was seminal for leadership research, it still did not account for all the behaviours required for effective leader behaviour. Furthermore, leader requirements have changed significantly since seminal leadership research was published in the 1950s and 1960s (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Stogdill et al., 1962; Stogdill, 1963). Contemporary leaders are expected to demonstrate more types of positive behaviours than just task- and relations-oriented behaviours (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Tett et al., 2000; Yukl, 2012). Following additional research on leader behaviour, Yukl and colleagues reported construct validity evidence of a third factor which they labelled change-oriented or leading-change behaviour (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991; Yukl et al., 2002). I argue that all leaders, regardless of tenure and seniority, must lead and manage change as a key aspect of their work. Change-oriented behaviours are no longer the sole purview of senior executives.

Recently, Yukl (2012) proposed a fourth meta-category known as external-oriented behaviour. External-oriented behaviour is boundary-spanning activity where a leader obtains resources on behalf of their team or work unit to accomplish work tasks. External-oriented behaviour also includes promoting and defending the interests and reputation of the team or work unit (Yukl, 2012). Previous research has emphasised the importance of a leader's ability to influence a variety of constituents (i.e., superiors, peers, followers, outsiders) to further their team or work units efforts (Kaplan, 1984; Kotter, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973). Also, research on teams has also shown that boundary spanning behaviour is critical for effective team performance (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Joshi, Pandey, & Han, 2009; Marrone, 2010).

As a whole, the research points to external-oriented behaviour as the fourth meta-category that contributes to leader effectiveness. Followers are uniquely placed to evaluate their leader's external-oriented behaviours because they directly influence their work. Followers are more likely to have a positive view of leader behaviour that monitors the environment for threats and opportunities and lobbies for additional resources. Failure to network effectively could result in negative team consequences such as under-resourcing, unmanageable workloads and decreased job satisfaction. It is important to note however, that some external-oriented behaviour may not be visible to followers. Instead, followers might only see the outcomes and base their judgment of positive leader behaviour on limited information.

It should be noted that the HBT in its current form is not the perfect or final solution for the categorisation of positive leader behaviour. Yukl (2012) puts it nicely when he states, "Behaviour constructs are conceptual tools, and there is no objective reality for them. They are most useful when they can be measured accurately, they can predict and explain leader influence on important outcomes, and they can be helpful in developing more effective leaders" (Yukl, 2012, p. 79). A key feature of the HBT is its inclusion of change-oriented and external-oriented behaviours in its taxonomic structure. More importantly, multi-method research described earlier has demonstrated a link between the HBTs four types of positive leader behaviours and leader effectiveness.

It is also possible that positive leader behaviour includes other behaviours not captured by the four meta-categories of the HBT (e.g., ethical conduct). The 53 dimensions of managerial competence identified by Tett et al., (2000) is one example of how large a leader behaviour taxonomy can be. Borman and Brush also state that "it is probably impossible to argue convincingly that one or another taxonomy of managerial performance is best" (1993, p. 19). However, the HBT provides a useful conceptualisation of relevant behaviour as it applies to contemporary organisational leaders. The four meta-categories provide scholars

with a theoretically driven taxonomy for empirical testing. Similarly, the specific behaviours contained in the meta-categories provide practitioners with a useful guideline for leader development. The HBT is described in detail in the following section.

Task-oriented behaviour

The first meta-category is task-oriented behaviour and its principal goal is to accomplish work in an efficient and reliable manner. There are four positive leader behaviours included under this category:

Planning. In general, planning involves making decisions about objectives, assignments and allocation of resources. Planning could comprise short-term day-to-day activities or long-term project planning. Negative forms of this behaviour may include making superficial and impractical plans. Research has found that planning can enhance a leader's effectiveness (Kim & Yukl, 1995; Shipper & Dillard Jr., 2000; Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986).

Clarifying. This involves clearly explaining tasks and assignments to others. It also includes establishing specific goals, deadlines and performance standards, as well as explaining any rules, policies or protocols that are necessary to accomplishing tasks. Negative forms of this behaviour include assigning tasks with vague and obscure goals or expectations, providing inconsistent instructions that lead to role ambiguity, or giving excessive direction which may lead to role overload. Setting clear, specific, challenging and realistic goals has been found to be positively correlated with performance improvement by groups (Locke & Latham, 1990). Extant research has also found that clarifying can enhance leadership effectiveness (Amabile et al., 2004; Latham & Yukl, 1976; Shipper & Dillard Jr., 2000).

Monitoring. Monitoring occurs when leaders assess the progress and quality of assigned work. Information gathered from monitoring is then used to make adjustments if necessary or it can be used for development, coaching and acknowledging effort. Monitoring

can be accomplished through direct observation, examination of work reports, and performance review sessions. Negative monitoring may include observation that is intrusive, excessive, superficial or irrelevant. Research has found that monitoring can improve leadership effectiveness (Amabile et al., 2004; Larson & Callahan, 1990; Wang et al., 2011) .

Problem Solving. Problem solving occurs when leaders address disruptions to normal operations or contend with counterproductive behaviour by others that may be unsafe, unethical, illegal or destructive. A leader displays positive problem-solving behaviour when she or he identifies the cause of the problem and provides assertive and confident direction to her or his followers so they can cope with the situation. Problem solving can be both proactive and reactive. Negative displays of this behaviour include aloofness, hasty decision making before the problem is fully diagnosed, and discouraging input from others. Research provides evidence to show that problem solving is related to leadership effectiveness (Amabile et al., 2004; Morgeson, 2005; Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986).

Relations-oriented behaviour

The second meta-category is relations-oriented behaviour and its principal goal is to develop member capabilities, the leader-member relationship, identification with the work unit or organisation, and commitment to the organisation (Yukl, 2012). Four positive leader behaviours have been identified under relations-oriented behaviour.

Supporting. A leader who engages in supporting behaviour demonstrates a concern for the needs and feelings of others. She or he helps other organisational members to cope under stressful situations and knows when to be sympathetic and when to provide encouragement. Supporting behaviour also includes encouraging cooperation and mutual trust by being a fair and unbiased mediator when conflicts arise. Supporting behaviour has been found to be significantly related to leader effectiveness (Amabile et al., 2004; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Kim & Yukl, 1995). Research on behaviours that are not supportive (e.g.,

abusive supervision, supervisor undermining) has shown links to a decrease in trust, increase in resentment and a tendency to incite retaliation (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper, 2000).

Developing. Developing occurs when leaders provide performance feedback and thereby enhance their followers' career advancement. Developing may include providing assignments that allow for skill development and mastery, informing followers about training and development opportunities and providing general career advice. Developing or mentoring is not limited to followers or direct reports. A leader may also develop other inexperienced organisational members (i.e., superiors, peers). Negative examples may include knowledge hoarding, knowledge hiding and micro-managing. Research has found a positive association between developing followers and leadership effectiveness (Edmondson, 2003; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Tannenbaum, Smith-Jentsch, & Behson, 2001).

Recognising. Recognising behaviour occurs when leaders acknowledge followers on commendable role performance or when they make substantial and noteworthy contributions to the work unit or organisation. Recognition may be given in the form of a public award, promotion, bonus or increased pay. Regardless of its form, effective recognition must be sincere, specific and timely. Negative examples of recognising include excessive recognition for trivial achievements, failure to recognise significant and important contributions and taking credit for another organisational member's achievements. There is ample evidence of the positive effects of leader recognition and praise on follower attitudes and performance (Amabile et al., 2004; Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, & et al., 1996; House, 1971; Kim & Yukl, 1995; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982).

Empowering. Leaders who are empowering give followers and others greater autonomy and influence over decisions about their work. Leaders can accomplish this through consultation or delegation. By consulting others, a leader demonstrates a willingness to incorporate a variety of ideas and suggestions before making a decision. Through

delegation, a leader gives an individual or group the authority to make decisions that are formally recognised as the leader's jurisdiction. Early work by Vroom and Yetton (1973) indicated that empowerment improves overall decision quality, follower decision acceptance, follower job satisfaction, and follower skill development. Empowerment has also been positively linked to innovative behaviour and managerial effectiveness (Spreitzer, 1995). More recently, researchers found that empowering leadership was positively related to both knowledge sharing and team efficacy, which were both positively related to performance (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Harmful examples of empowering behaviour include delegating too much authority to persons unwilling or incapable of making quality decisions or providing empowerment over decisions that are trivial (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013).

Change-oriented behaviour

Change-oriented behaviours represent the third meta-category which contains behaviours that increase innovation, collective learning, and adaptation to changes in the external environment (Yukl, 2012). There are four specific leadership behaviours identified under change-oriented behaviour.

Advocating Change. Some theorists argue that advocating for change when it is required is a key aspect of leadership (Kotter, 1996; Nadler, Shaw, Walton, & Associates, 1995). When and how to push for change will likely determine the success of that change and, consequently, the career of the leader. In advocating for change, a leader must correctly identify shifts in the external environment and devise a communication strategy that delivers the appropriate level of exigency. She or he must use sound logic and evidence to show emerging threats or opportunities, explain why certain policies and procedures need to be amended or abandoned, and describe the benefits to be derived from her or his proposal. According to Heifetz (1994), influencing people to accept the need for change involves a delicate balancing act of increasing awareness about the problem without creating debilitating

anxiety that may lead to denial or acceptance of easy but ineffective solutions. Advocating

for necessary change has been shown to correlate with effective leadership in several studies

(Edmondson, 2003; Kotter & Cohen, 2002; Marks et al., 2000). Ineffective forms of this

behaviour include advocacy for expensive change when simpler and incremental changes are

adequate (McClelland, Liang, & Barker, 2010). Research has also shown that agitating for

the acceptance of new and costly initiatives without sufficient consideration of risks and

obstacles is also ineffective (Finklestein, 2003).

Envisioning Change. For a leader to build genuine and enthusiastic commitment in

followers, she or he must be able to communicate their vision in a clear, vivid and compelling

manner. Yukl (2012) argues that a vision will likely be more inspiring and motivating if it

appeals to the values, ideals and needs of the organisation's members. To achieve this, the

language must be colourful, emotional and filled with metaphors, slogans and symbols that

resonate with followers. Extant research has shown the link between the articulation of an

inspiring and appealing vision and effective leadership (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Elenkov,

Judge, & Wright, 2005; Wang et al., 2011). Nadler (1988) cautions that an ambitious vision is

risky but it is more likely to be accepted if the leader can build follower confidence that they

will successfully achieve it. Other work has found that the relentless pursuit of risky and

unrealistic visions is a major cause for performance declines in organisations with

charismatic leaders (Finklestein, 2003).

Encouraging Innovation. Leaders who encourage innovation promote new

conceptualisations and approaches for problem solving. According to Yukl (2012), other

terms that describe this behaviour are "intellectual stimulation" (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) and

"encouraging innovative thinking" (Yukl et al., 2002). A leader can also foster this behaviour

by creating a climate of trust, creativity and entrepreneurship. By allowing followers the

freedom to articulate new proposals and to experiment with untested ideas, they effectively

serve as champions of innovation. Evidence linking encouraging innovation to effective leadership behaviour has been identified in several studies (Edmondson, 2003; Elenkov et al., 2005; Keller, 2006). An ineffective leader stifles and suppresses experimentation and innovation by followers, creating a hostile climate which negates creativity.

Facilitating Collective Learning. Research shows that there are a variety of ways that a leader can facilitate collective learning in a work unit or organisation (Berson, Nemanich, Waldman, Galvin, & Keller, 2006; Popper & Lipshitz, 1998). She or he can achieve this through improvement of current strategies and processes, the discovery of new methods, supporting internal research efforts, or by bringing in expert consultants to advise followers. Baumard and Starbuck (2005) suggest that organisations can learn from failure if they can avoid the pitfalls of misinterpreting causes and over-generalising implications. Also, Cannon and Edmondson (2005) argue that it is effective leaders who can improve recognition of failures, analyses of causes and identification of remedies. An ineffective leader fails to facilitate collective learning by creating a punitive culture in response to errors or experimentation. This is more likely to occur if the current processes were developed and implemented by the leader. Research evidence supporting the link between facilitating collective learning and leadership effectiveness has been found in several studies (Baumard & Starbuck, 2005; Edmondson, 2002; Ellis, Mendel, & Nir, 2006).

External-oriented behaviour

The fourth meta-category of the HBT is external-oriented behaviour. Behaviours in this meta-category include obtaining information about external events, procuring resources and assistance, and advancing the reputation and interests of the work unit or the organisation (Yukl, 2012). This meta-category has three distinct behaviours which are summarised below.

Networking. A work unit or organisation stands to gain if its leader establishes and maintains favourable relationships with relevant stakeholders (i.e., peers, superiors, indirect

followers, organisational outsiders) who can provide information, resources and political support (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007; Kaplan, 1984; Kotter, 1982). Networking is done through attending meetings, professional seminars and conferences, joining professional associations, and engaging in community and philanthropic activities. Effective leaders also encourage networking by followers, especially those that may have access to contacts different to the leader. Research shows that networking is core to leadership effectiveness (Amabile et al., 2004; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Kim & Yukl, 1995). Other research has shown that when too much networking is done, it has negative effects which include increased time demands and role conflicts (Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).

External Monitoring. As leaders establish and maintain their various networks, they must monitor information that is available from these external sources. External monitoring is the analysis of changes in the environment to identify threats and opportunities. Popular terms for external monitoring are "environmental scanning" (Hambrick, 1982) and "scouting" (Bing, 2007). Bourgeois (1985) found that the extent to which senior executives accurately monitor the external environment is related to the organisation's financial performance. Researchers compared the economic performance of 28 US corporations that practised environmental scanning with 22 non-practising firms using the firm's share price or earnings ratios. The average annual performance of the scanning firms was found to be consistently better than the non-scanning firms (Newgren, Rasher, & LaRoe, 1984). The flattening of organisational hierarchies will require leaders across all levels to assume environmental scanning responsibilities. A leader who is ineffective in monitoring the external environment risks being unable to capitalise on opportunities or mitigate threats. If a leader is unaware of changes in the environment, she or he is unable to anticipate and or prepare for threats and opportunities. Monitoring can be done through informal discussions with contacts, thorough analysis of relevant publications and reports, market research and

comprehensive examination of competitors' strategies (Yukl, 2012). Studies have found external monitoring to be related to effective leadership (Dollinger, 1984; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Geletkanycz & Hambrick, 1997).

Representing. Representing behaviour occurs when a leader successfully lobbies for resources on behalf of her or his work unit or organisation. Ancona and Caldwell (1992) argue that teams with high interdependence with other work units or external parties need leaders who are capable of coordinating activities, resolving disputes and buffering them from interference. Fanelli and Misangyi (2006) suggest that senior executives need to influence external stakeholders whose confidence and support is critical to the success and survival of the organisation. Representing also includes promoting and defending the reputation of the work unit or organisation from those that may seek to impugn it. An ineffective manager is unable to defend or protect their unit from undue external influence. They fail to negotiate effectively for realistic expectations and resources on behalf of their followers. Evidence has shown that representing is associated with effective leadership (Amabile et al., 2004; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Edmondson, 2003). Having presented the HBT and its component behaviours, the next section compares the HBT with three other taxonomies that classify positive leader behaviour.

Rationale for the selection of the hierarchical behaviour taxonomy

The HBT was selected as the appropriate taxonomic structure for the current research because it adequately categorises positive leader behaviour that is associated with leader effectiveness. Loevinger's (1957) theory of scale development identifies substantive validity as a fundamental component of construct validity. Substantive validity is a form of construct validity that refers to how well a scale or taxonomy encompasses the breadth of the target construct (Clark & Watson, 1995). Put differently, substantive validity refers to the soundness of the theoretical foundation underlying the construct.The HBT is a substantive

taxonomy that incorporates seminal research on leader behaviour that has been linked to leader effectiveness (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). Behaviours in the HBT are grounded in prior theory and research such as the Conger-Kanungo Leadership Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1998), the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963), the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1995), the Managerial Practices Survey (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 1990), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1990), and the Transformational Leadership Inventory (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

While the HBT is not the most comprehensive taxonomy as shown by the review in the following section, it does however, contain an appropriate amount and range of positive leader behaviours that followers can use to evaluate leaders. The HBT is a theoretically driven classification of important positive leader behaviours (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). From an applied perspective, the HBT with its 15 specific behaviours allows researchers and practitioners to develop detailed and behaviourally based performance measures. These measures can then be used to provide diagnostic feedback about positive behaviour that a leader should develop or augment. To benefit practice, leadership research should employ taxonomies that identify the most important positive leader behaviours. That stated, I argue that the HBT provides a reasonable starting point for identifying positive leader behaviours that are observable and relevant to followers.

Comparison of the HBT with other Taxonomies of Leader Behaviour

Other taxonomies were considered but deemed unsuitable because they raised several concerns that included, lack of generalisability, unwieldiness, and a conflation of leader behaviour and leader effectiveness constructs. Four of those taxonomies are examined below and the degree of convergence or divergence between each taxonomy and the HBT is presented.

Taxonomy of Managerial Performance Requirements

Borman and Brush (1993) developed the Taxonomy of Managerial Performance Requirements (TMPR). As discussed earlier, the literature has dealt with managerial and leadership concepts as intertwined and synonymous. In developing the TMPR, 26 dimension sets from a variety of published and unpublished managerial studies were used to create a classification. This resulted in an inductively derived 18-factor summary of managerial performance requirements advanced by the authors as a taxonomy of positive leader behaviours.

A distinct advantage of the TMPR is that it was derived from a wide sampling of jobs and organisations. Therefore, it is generalisable to many leadership roles in different types of organisations. The second advantage of the TMPR is that it was developed by 25 expert judges with experience in selection, management development and managerial research. Total practice and research experience for the 25 experts was 335 years ($M = 13.4$ years) and a minimum of seven years' of knowledge. Thus, the TMPR is a consensus driven classification system based on the interpretation and summarisation of dimension sets by management scholars and practitioners.

However, the TMPR was developed in 1993 and research on leader behaviour has increased since then. Furthermore, the requirements of leaders have become more complex since then. While the TMPR accounts for some behaviours in the HBT, (e.g., planning, clarifying), other behaviours are not included. Hence, there is an over-weighting of task-oriented and relations-oriented behaviours in this taxonomy. The flattening of organisational hierarchies is expected to engage all leaders in more change-oriented and external-oriented behaviours.

The HBT has two change-oriented behaviours (e.g., envisioning change, facilitating organisational learning) and two representing behaviours (e.g., networking, external

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monitoring) which are not part of the TMPR. Together, these behaviours represent a

significant portion of positive leader behaviours as conceptualised by the HBT. Assessing

how they are rated by both managers and followers will be one of the contributions of the

current research. Table 1 shows the convergence and overlap of at least 10 TMPR dimensions

with HBT behaviours. However, there are some noteworthy differences between the TMPR

and the HBT.

In the current research, the HBT was selected because it incorporates behaviours that

are more representative of the complexity of leader roles in present-day organisations. Positive

leader behaviours that can influence team or work unit performance are not in the TMPR but

included in the HBT.

Lay Model of Managerial Effectiveness

The Lay Model of Managerial Effectiveness (LMME) was developed by Cammock

and colleagues (1995). The authors used repertory grid interviews and a questionnaire to

develop a model with two categorical factors and 17 specific scales of effective and

Table 1

Convergence/Divergence of the HBT with the TMPR

HBT (2012)	TMPR (1993)	HBT (2012)	TMPR (1993)
Convergence	*Convergence*	*Divergence*	*Divergence*
Planning	Planning & organising	Envisioning change	Communication
Clarifying	Guiding & directing	Facilitating collective learning	Technical Proficiency
Monitoring	Monitoring & feedback	Networking	Administration
Problem solving	Problem solving	External monitoring	Staffing & selection
Supporting	Crisis & stress management	Encouraging innovation	Organisational commitment
Developing	Training & coaching		Collecting & Interpreting data
Recognising	Maintaining good working relationships		
Empowering	Delegating		
Advocating change	Influencing		
Representing	Representing & PR		

Note. HBT – Hierarchical Behaviour Taxonomy, TMPR – Taxonomy of Managerial Performance Requirements

ineffective managers in New Zealand. Cammock et al. (1995) suggest that effective managerial behaviour can be categorised as conceptual ability and interpersonal ability. The scales under conceptual ability underpin the manager's role as a department/unit leader who provides direction, makes decisions and solves problems. The scales under interpersonal ability gauge the manager's effectiveness as a facilitator of other's efforts. These categories are similar to early taxonomies (e.g., Halpin, 1957; House, 1971) which identified leader behaviour as initiating structure and consideration, or instrumental and supportive leadership.

The LMME advanced research on leader behaviour by using a qualitative technique to establish a taxonomy of effective and ineffective managerial behaviour in a New Zealand public sector organisation. The LMME was developed from interviews asking respondents to

designate whom they perceived to be effective or ineffective managers based on their understanding of effectiveness. However, the LMME's strengths are also its weaknesses. First, the research was conducted in one public sector organisation in New Zealand and this limits the generalisability of the LMME to organisations in other sectors and countries. Second, the LMME conflates manager behaviour with manager effectiveness. By asking respondents to only consider subjectively perceived effective and ineffective behaviour, other behaviours that may be objectively effective or ineffective are ignored. Leader behaviour, whether positive or negative should be categorised separately from effectiveness. Leader behaviour can subsequently be assessed on its relationship with objective or subjective effectiveness.

Further, the LMME does not fully account for change-oriented and external-oriented behaviours as classified in the HBT. The LMME includes innovation and future orientation as effective behaviours that are similar to encouraging innovation and envisioning change on the HBT. However, the remaining HBT change-oriented behaviours – advocating change and facilitating collective learning, as well as external-oriented behaviours – are not included in the LMME. Similar to criticisms of the TMPR, the LMME does not account for all the positive behaviours expected of leaders. Change-oriented and external-oriented behaviours that were previously considered the exclusive domain of strategic leaders are now part of the portfolio of frontline and unit-level leaders (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 2009; Yukl et al., 2013) requiring a more comprehensive taxonomy such as the HBT.

Table 2 shows the convergence and overlap of at least nine LMME scales with HBT behaviours as described above. For example, the LMME scales labelled direction setting, delegating and consultation resemble planning and empowering respectively on the HBT. There are some areas with no discernible overlap between the LMME and the HBT, including LMME scales that measure overview, drive, decisiveness, personality and integrity.

Table 2

Convergence/Divergence of the HBT with the LMME

HBT (2012)	LMME (1995)	HBT (2012)	LMME (1995)
Convergence	*Convergence*	*Divergence*	*Divergence*
Planning	Direction setting & personal organisation	Clarifying	Overview
Monitoring	Managing/operating	Advocating change	Drive
Problem solving	Problem solving	Facilitating collective learning	Decisiveness
Empowering	Delegating & consultation	Networking	Personality
Developing	Training	External monitoring	Integrity
Supporting	Support & contact	Representing	
Recognising	Feedback		
Encouraging innovation	Innovation		
Envisioning change	Future orientation		

Note. HBT – Hierarchical Behaviour Taxonomy, LMME – Lay Model of Managerial Effectiveness

Thus, the HBT is preferred over the LMME because it has greater generalisability to leaders in different occupational sectors and it captures positive behaviour that has been linked to objective and subjective effectiveness.

Hyperdimensional Taxonomy of Managerial Competence

Tett and colleagues (2000) developed the Hyperdimensional Taxonomy of Managerial Competence (HTMC). The HTMC was derived from earlier research models and was validated by subject matter experts in three studies. In developing the HTMC, the authors sought to present a new and distinctive taxonomy of managerial competence and to demonstrate how the specificity of the proposed taxonomy would integrate diverse managerial and leadership competencies (Tett et al., 2000). In designing psychological measures and taxonomies, developers are required to make choices between specificity and

generality. Specificity refers to scales or taxonomies that capture fewer things well, while generality refers to instruments that that encompass more things but less accurately (Ashton, 1998; Tett et al., 2000). Tett and colleagues (2000) put it best when they state that "greater specificity is beneficial by (a) encouraging more detailed analysis of the nature and bases of job performance, (b) providing a basis for interpreting scores on general (i.e., multidimensional) measures (i.e., in using a general measure, it is critical to know what dimensions it assesses and in what proportions), and (c) allowing more (not less) efficient use of test time by promoting identification of explicitly job-relevant constructs"(p. 209).

The HTMC identifies 53 managerial competencies organised under nine general categories. The overarching categories are traditional functions, task orientation, person orientation, dependability, open-mindedness, emotional control, communication, developing self and others, occupational acumen and concerns. The main contribution of the HTMC, as evidenced by its large number of competencies, is specificity. The HTMC has a strong emphasis on construct content and allows for a comprehensive understanding of the antecedents and consequences of managerial behaviour. As suggested by Ashton (1998), narrow trait scales – as offered by the HTMC – are more likely to capture important criterion variance that could be obscured by more general measures. In developing the HTMC, which is high in specificity, Tett et al. (2000) present a very detailed catalogue of managerial competencies. While it is acknowledged that a taxonomy high in specificity allows for a more detailed analysis of the nature and bases of leader behaviour, the HTMC is too detailed for practical use in the current research. The 53 dimensions of the HTMC attempt to capture all the behaviours and competencies of leaders in organisations. This is at odds with the current research that seeks to identify the most salient positive leader behaviours from a follower perspective.

Additionally, some behaviours captured by the HBT (i.e., recognising, external monitoring) do not have equivalent behaviours on the HTMC. Change-oriented behaviours as conceptualised by the HBT are also underrepresented in the HTMC. It appears that the HTMC is similar to the TMPR and the LMME in that it does not account for contemporary behaviours increasingly expected of lower-level leaders. Table 3 shows the overlap of at least 10 HTMC scales with HBT behaviours.

There are significant and substantial differences between the HTMC and the HBT. Behaviours such as recognising, envisioning change, advocating change, facilitating collective learning, and external monitoring appear to have no overlap with competencies on the HTMC. Similarly, there are a host of competencies (e.g., tolerance, adaptability, resilience, cultural appreciation) on the HTMC that are not included in the HBT. Therefore, the HBT was selected over the HTMC because it provides a theoretically driven classification of positive leader behaviours and because the HBT is a more wieldy taxonomy with adequate coverage of relevant leader actions from the perspective of followers.

British Taxonomy of Perceived Managerial and Leadership Effectiveness

Hamlin and Hatton (2013) used a qualitative multiple cross-case and cross-sector approach to deduce what British workers perceive as positive and negative managerial behaviour. The researchers developed the British Taxonomy of Perceived Managerial and Leadership Effectiveness (BTPMLE). A key driver of the development of the BTPMLE was the need for a taxonomy specific to British public, private and third sector organisations. This contrasts with most of the previous research on leader behaviour which has been conducted in the United States (e.g., Borman & Brush, 1993, Yukl et al., 2002), with the notable exception of Cammock et al., (1995) whose study sampled New Zealand managers.

The researchers sought to respond to concerns about the relevance and transferability of international management research on British managers by developing their own

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Table 3

Convergence/Divergence of the HBT with the HTMC

HBT (2012)	HTMC (2000)	HBT (2012)	HTMC (2000)
Convergence	*Convergence*	*Divergence*	*Divergence*
Planning	Short-term & strategic planning	Recognising	Decision making
Monitoring	Monitoring	Envisioning change	Coordinating
Problem solving	Problem awareness	Advocating change	Goal setting
Empowering	Decision delegation	Facilitating collective learning	Motivating by authority
Clarifying	Directing	External monitoring	Motivating by persuasion
Developing	Developmental goal setting & feedback		Team building
Supporting	Compassion		Productivity
Encouraging innovation	Creative thinking		Initiative
Networking	Sociability		Task focus
Representing	Organisational awareness & political astuteness		Urgency
			Decisiveness
			Cooperation
			Politeness
			Assertiveness
			Seeking input
			Customer focus
			Orderliness
			Rule orientation
			Personal responsibility
			Trustworthiness

Convergence/Divergence of the HBT with the HTMC cont.

HBT (2012)	HTMC (2000)	HBT (2012)	HTMC (2000)
Convergence	*Convergence*	*Divergence*	*Divergence*
			Professionalism
			Loyalty
			Tolerance
			Adaptability
			Cultural appreciation
			Resilience
			Stress management
			Listening skills
			Oral communication
			Public presentation
			Written communication
			Performance assessment
			Job enrichment
			Self-development
			Technical proficiency
			Quantity concern
			Quality concern
			Financial concern
			Safety concern

Note. HBT – Hierarchical Behaviour Taxonomy, HTMC – Hyperdimensional Taxonomy of Managerial Competence

taxonomy. The BTPLME identified 14 generic behavioural criteria. Eight behaviours represent positive behaviour and six negative behaviour.

The key difference between the HBT and the BTPMLE is that the latter does not fully account for change and externally-oriented behaviours. This is similar to criticism directed

toward taxonomies reviewed earlier. In comparing the BTPMLE to the HBT, Hamlin and Hatton themselves state that "there is a lack of overlap with most of Yukl's change-oriented and external component behaviours" (2013, p. 386). The authors explain this lack of convergence by arguing that this portion of the HBT's taxonomic structure is supported by strategic leadership research from top organisational executives hence, it is only relevant to that limited sample. While this is a fair assessment of the HBT, they do not present arguments for why change-oriented and externally-oriented behaviours are not included as positive behaviours for lower-level leaders.

While the BTMPLE provides generic behavioural criteria for positive and negative leader behaviour, it does have its weaknesses. First, the BTMPLE was developed using UK-based samples in response to the dominant US-centric taxonomies. Thus, the BTMPLE classifies critical leader effectiveness behaviours that are relevant to UK-based leaders. This may present transportability and generalisability concerns for geographically distant samples. Second, the developers of the BTMPLE acknowledge that the source studies used in developing the taxonomy over-represent leaders in the public sector and under-represent those in the private and third sector (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013). Consequently, it can be argued that the BTMPLE is a taxonomy that is most applicable to public sector leaders based in the UK.

Table 4 shows the convergence of at least seven BTPMLE behaviours with HBT behaviours. There are also some notable differences between the BTPMLE and the HBT. Interestingly, the authors identify "representing" which is an externally-oriented behaviour in the HBT as being similar to one of their positive generic behavioural criteria, "Fights in the interests of their staff and actively attends to their learning and development needs" (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013, p. 377). If this particular behaviour relates to all British managers in the

BTPMLE, then it is possible that other behaviours discounted as the territory of senior

management and top executives should also be included.

Table 4

Convergence/Divergence of the HBT with the BTPMLE

HBT (2012)	BTPMLE (2013)	HBT (2012)	BTPMLE (2013)
Convergence	*Convergence*	*Divergence*	*Divergence*
Planning	Planning & organising	Recognising	Open, personal and trusting managerial approach
Monitoring	Active supportive management	Developing	Autocratic & non-consultative style
Problem solving	Involves and includes staff in planning, decision-making and problem-solving	Facilitating collective learning	Unfair, inconsiderate & self-serving
Clarifying	Communicates well with staff and keeps them informed	Advocating change	Manipulative, undermining & intimidating
Empowering	Delegation & Empowerment	Encouraging innovation	Slack, management, abdicating & avoidant
Representing	Fights in the interests of their staff & actively attend to their learning & development needs	External monitoring	Depriving & withholding
Supporting	Care & concern for staff & other people	Networking	Closed mind & negative

Note. HBT – Hierarchical Behaviour Taxonomy, BTPMLE – British Taxonomy of Perceived Managerial Leadership Effectiveness

The open, personal and trusting managerial approach and the six negative generic

criteria of the BTPMLE are not captured by the HBT. The six negative generic behaviour

criteria of the BTMPLE are clearly dysfunctional behaviours that are not captured by the

HBT. They include behaviour that is self-serving, avoidant and manipulative. These generic

behaviour criteria are similar to leader mistreatment acts that have been investigated

elsewhere in organisational behaviour literature such as supervisor undermining (Duffy,

Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), abusive supervision (Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011) and leader hypocrisy (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015).

In sum, the BTPMLE is a taxonomy designed to categorise positive and negative leader behaviour associated with effectiveness in British organisations. The HBT was chosen over the BTMPLE because it has a stronger basis for generalisability and it is derived from diverse samples in multiple occupational sectors.

One objective of the current research is to evaluate the taxonomic structure of the HBT. Toward this effort, an assessment of Yukl's managerial practices survey (MPS) (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 1990; Yukl, 2012) and ethical leadership questionnaire (ELQ) (Yukl et al., 2013) is conducted. The MPS and the ELQ allow for a quantitative investigation of the HBT and an ethical dimension of leader behaviour associated with effectiveness. A detailed description of the MPS and the ELQ is provided in the Methods section of Chapter Three.

<div align="center">Negative leader behaviour</div>

To obtain a comprehensive understanding of leader behaviour, it is fitting, also, to investigate contrasting behaviour which followers perceive as negative. In the current research, negative leader behaviour is viewed as more than just the ineffectual performance or absence of positive leader behaviour. Negative leader behaviours are detrimental actions that followers wish leaders would eschew because they hinder the performance of their team, work unit, or organisation (Hamlin & Hatton, 2013; Yukl, 2012). According to Rose, Shuck, Twyford and Bergman (2015), this type of negative or dysfunctional behaviour occurs when "a person in a position of influence, status, and resource differential is overtly exhibiting verbal and nonverbal behaviour that impairs the operational function of individuals, teams, and organizations" (p. 4). In describing destructive leadership behaviour, Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer and Jacobs (2012) offer a similar definition in which a person in a position of

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power commits voluntary acts towards colleagues which most people perceive as harmful and deviant. These acts can be physical or verbal, active or passive, direct or indirect. Targets and witnesses of negative leader behaviour have colourful labels for perpetrators of negative leader behaviour that include tyrants, despots, tormentors and bullies.

While positive leader behaviour is characterised by actions that include clarifying, recognising and networking, the hallmarks of negative leader behaviour include hypocrisy, knowledge hiding and undermining. The prevalence of negative leader behaviours in organisations has been measured in several international studies. A Norwegian study focusing on laissez-faire leadership, supportive-disloyal leadership, derailed leadership and tyrannical leadership reported prevalence rates of approximately 33% (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010). In a Dutch study, Hubert and van Veldhoven (2001) focused on undesirable behaviours and mobbing emanating from leaders and colleagues and they reported a prevalence rate of 11%. Tepper and colleagues (2006; 2007) estimated that abusive supervision affects 13.6% of US employees at an annual cost of $23.8 billion through reduced productivity, absenteeism, and turnover.

Negative leader behaviour has been shown to have harmful effects on follower well-being in both work and personal life. At work, negative leader behaviours have been linked to increases in follower job tension and emotional exhaustion (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007), resistance behaviours (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), and deviant work behaviour (Duffy et al., 2002). In the personal domain, negative leader behaviour has been associated with followers' increased aggression at home (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011), confrontations with spouse or partner (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001), work-family conflict (Tepper, 2000), family destabilisation (Hoobler & Brass, 2006), and insomnia (Rafferty & Restubog, 2011).

Some writers have equated the experience of working for a leader high in negative behaviour to being "professionally skunked". That is, "the effects of a dysfunctional leader can linger and are noticed by many; it is unpleasant, and at times, nauseating" (Rose et al., 2015, p. 17). To exacerbate the situation, in response to negative leader behaviour, followers are more likely to engage in mimicry or retaliatory actions against the leader, their work unit and the organisation at large (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Demir & Rodwell, 2012; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012).

Negative leader behaviour frameworks

Organisational researchers have investigated negative leader behaviour through a diverse range of workplace mistreatment constructs. They include petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), supervisor social undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), aversive leadership (Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin, & Stovall, 2007), tyrannical leadership (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007), despotic leadership (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), and destructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Some authors have suggested that the increase in workplace mistreatment constructs has produced considerable definitional, conceptual and measurement overlap (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Fox & Spector, 2005).

Tepper's model of leader maltreatment behaviour

Tepper (2000) developed a popular framework for the study of leader mistreatment behaviour. Tepper argues that three characteristics are indicative of a leader high in negative behaviour and they include hostility, conformity and indifference. Hostility refers to a leader's use of position and authority for personal enhancement. This may include being unnecessarily argumentative, withholding information, taking undue credit for others' work, and belittling followers. Conformity relates to the application of hostile behaviours under the guise of following company procedures. Conformity provides organisational cover for a

leader high in negative behaviour because she or he can claim to be enforcing the

organisations policies and procedures when her or his actual intent is to hinder a follower's

ability to thrive professionally or socially (Rose et al., 2015). Lastly, indifference is

concerned with the lack of regard that leaders high in negative behaviour have for their

followers. By trivialising the concerns of followers or by simply being unresponsive to their

needs, a leader high in negative behaviour may cause emotional, social, or psychological hurt

(Tepper, 2000).

Herschcovis' workplace aggression model

In responding to the proliferation of workplace mistreatment constructs (Ashforth,

1997; Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007), Hershcovis (2011) proposes

a restructuring of the workplace mistreatment domain. Hershcovis argues that mistreatment

research has become so fragmented it is no longer appreciably adding to the scientific

knowledge of the domain. Instead, Hershcovis advocates for a more parsimonious research

model with one broad mistreatment variable. The broad mistreatment variable is composed of

several facets such as incivility, bullying, undermining, interpersonal conflict, abuse and

violence. In turn, Hershcovis suggests that a variety of moderators (e.g., intent, intensity,

frequency) and mediators (e.g., blame attribution, affect, justice perceptions) should then be

investigated to understand the impact of the broad variable on a host of outcomes including

follower attitudes, performance and well-being.

Implicit and explicit intent model of leader effectiveness

Both Hershcovis and Tepper's models provide insightful frameworks for

understanding mistreatment behaviours. Hershcovis (2011), advocates for a unification of

mistreatment constructs to create a broad workplace aggression construct. Tepper's (2000;

2007) model suggests a more nuanced understanding of specific constructs such as abusive

supervision. Merging mistreatment constructs into one broad construct may blur or conceal

their influence on outcome variables. The current research incorporates both perspectives and conceptualises negative leader behaviour as a broad construct that is comprised of three facets organised under two outcome-based categories; implicit and explicit intent. This framework is conceptually similar to Mitchell and Ambrose's (2007) two-factor model of abusive supervision. Through factor analyses, the authors distinguished between passive (e.g., invades my privacy), and active (e.g., my supervisor ridicules me) interpersonal abuse. In the current thesis, negative leader behaviour is separated by intent. Separation of negative leader behaviour by intent permits the investigation of covert and overt mistreatment actions.

Both leader hypocrisy (Greenbaum et al., 2015) and leader knowledge hiding (Connelly, Zweig, Webster, & Trougakos, 2012) are implicit low-level negative behaviours that weaken the resolve of followers. Leaders may engage in hypocritical behaviour because they think that their positional authority exempts them from the same obligations as followers. Similarly, leaders may hide knowledge because it endows them with power or privileged access to resources within the organisation. Both behaviours are negative and are likely to result in follower annoyance and frustration even though the effects are unintended (Rose et al., 2015). On the other hand, leader undermining is an explicit, premeditated negative behaviour. A leader high in undermining behaviour purposefully intends to have an adverse impact on follower outcomes (Duffy et al., 2002; Frazier & Bowler, 2015). In addition to annoyance and frustration, leader undermining is also likely to result in follower emotional exhaustion and burnout (Crossley, 2009; Duffy et al., 2002). So, while both implicit and explicit behaviours are negative, the latter are more likely to have a profound effect on followers.

Implicit negative leader behaviour

Leader hypocrisy

Leader hypocrisy refers to perceptions of misalignment between a leader's words and deeds (Brunsson, 2002). According to Greenbaum, Mawritz and Piccolo (2015), hypocrisy (misalignment) and integrity (alignment) are anchors on a leader's behavioural spectrum. Followers who perceive their leader's behaviour as hypocritical feel that she or he does not practice what she or he preaches, tells others to follow policies and procedures but does not do so her or himself, asks others to perform tasks that she/he would not do her or himself, and, is able to engage in behaviour that others cannot (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006). Essentially, hypocrisy occurs when a leader acts in a manner that someone in her or his position ought not to act.

Notions of leader hypocrisy have been explored through several related constructs. They include lack of trust (McAllister, 1995), lack of credibility (Simons, 2002), and breach of psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). The current thesis follows the conceptualisation of leader hypocrisy offered by Greenbaum and colleagues (2015) and seeks to further knowledge on the impact of leader word–deed misalignment. The study of hypocrisy in the current context does not make value judgements on the ethical or moral aspects of the leader's behaviour. The goal is to understand the impact of failing to "walk the talk" on employee attitudes and performance.

Cha and Edmondson (2006) conducted a qualitative study on leader hypocrisy within the context of charismatic leadership. The authors found that in value-driven organisations, followers are more likely to perceive charismatic leaders as individuals who endorse values that are misaligned with their actual attitudes or behaviours. If leaders are unable or unwilling to explain the word-deed incongruence, followers are likely to form a hypocrisy attribution which can lead to feelings of disenchantment (Cha & Edmondson, 2006). Recently, Simons,

Leroy, Collewaert and Masschelein (2015) conducted a quantitative review which included 14 published studies and seven unpublished works ($N = 12,307$). They reported that leader word-deed misalignment had a negative relationship with follower perceptions of trust, task performance and OCBs. The authors also found that leader behavioural integrity had a stronger relationship with follower perceptions of commitment and OCB when compared to leader psychological contract breach. As argued by Simons (2008), the research on word-deed (mis)alignment suggests that there is an integrity dividend to be reaped from reduced leader hypocrisy. Followers who see their leaders "walk the talk" are less likely to experience negative feelings (e.g., disenchantment, disillusionment) associated with witnessing incongruous behaviour.

Leader knowledge hiding

Connelly et al. (2012) define knowledge hiding as "an intentional attempt by an individual to withhold or conceal knowledge that has been requested by another person" (p. 65). In the current research, leader knowledge hiding occurs when a follower makes a specific request to a manager and the knowledge or information is not forthcoming. Webster and colleagues (2008) suggest that individuals engage in concealment behaviour because of power, politics, territoriality, personality characteristics, interpersonal dynamics, and organisational norms.

Based on their studies, Connelly and colleagues (2012) developed a tripartite model of knowledge hiding within organisations. First, they argued that individual's hide knowledge for evasive purposes. For example, a leader may agree to provide a follower with task-related information when she or he really does not intend to do so. Instead, she or he prevaricates or dithers in response to a specific request. Followers consider this type of behaviour to be duplicitous and a source of irritation. Playing dumb is the second type of knowledge hiding (Connelly et al., 2012). This occurs when a leader pretends not to know the requested

information even though they are fully aware of it. When a follower realises that a leader withheld requested information by pretending not to know it, an erosion of trust is likely to occur. The third type of knowledge hiding is rationalised hiding (Connelly et al., 2012). It is considered to be a more noble concealment strategy because sharing the requested information may be detrimental to the follower's work morale and performance (Lane & Wegner, 1995; Sitkin & Roth, 1993). Rationalised hiding is intended to maintain a positive work climate and to minimise the likely negative impact of the requested information on work performance. Takala and Urpilainen (1999) argue that leaders do not view knowledge hiding as deception if it is intended for the good of the requestor or the organisation at large.

Knowledge hiding has both positive and negative outcomes for the leader and for the organisation (Webster et al., 2008). In some cases, the difference in how the outcome is observed is simply temporal. A leader who conceals knowledge and does not make an effort to disseminate information should have more time to dedicate to her or his own agenda. Subsequently, her or his performance should be higher or better than that of co-workers, especially those who are high in sharing behaviour (Webster et al., 2008). However, a long-term risk of knowledge hiding is that co-workers could reciprocate it as a form of retaliation (Mawritz et al., 2012). In turn, this may negatively affect work performance and morale by creating norms of secrecy and concealment within a team, department, or organisation. Other undesirable outcomes may arise for the leader and these include loss of image and loss of opportunities. Colleagues who perceive a leader's knowledge withholding behaviour as instrumental to her or his own selfish needs are more likely to have a negative portrayal of all the manager's intentions - the so-called horn effect (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977; Thorndike, 1920) - and be less willing to work collaboratively with her or him.

The organisation can also be impacted by leader knowledge hiding behaviour. Sitkin and Brodt (2006) suggest that knowledge transfer choices may be made disregarding the best

interests of the organisation, especially when knowledge sharing guidance norms and policies are vague and unclear. The lack of clarity about what knowledge must be shared, with whom, and when, creates room for abuse. A leader may choose to withhold knowledge for well-intentioned reasons such as intellectual property and organisational security. However, these reasons could also be used as justification for maintaining control and authority over others.

Empirical research on knowledge hiding has found that evasive hiding, playing dumb and rationalised hiding were positively associated with interpersonal distrust (Connelly et al., 2012). That is, employees who distrust a co-worker are more likely to conceal knowledge from them. They also found the complexity of knowledge to be positively related to evasive hiding behaviour. This suggests that employees are more likely to avoid providing knowledge if they think it is complicated or difficult to explain. Findings from an event study which investigated the prevalence of knowledge sharing revealed that 11% of actual knowledge transfer events involved knowledge hiding (Connelly et al., 2008). This is likely to be a conservative estimate given that knowledge hiding is counterproductive work behaviour (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2006) that may cause reticence in the reporting of its actual prevalence and severity.

The current research makes a contribution to this avenue of research by investigating the impact of leader knowledge hiding on follower outcomes. Specifically, the link between knowledge hiding through playing dumb and follower attitudes and performance is investigated. While all three types of knowledge hiding behaviour can occur in organisations, this research limits its focus to knowledge hiding through playing dumb because of its cunning and deceptive qualities. A follower is also more likely to give the leader the benefit of the doubt if they believe the leader actually does not know the information. It is also more difficult for a follower to prove that a leader knows information that she or he is unwilling to share. It requires more effort to obtain evidence of playing dumb hiding. On the other hand,

evasive hiding or "playing hard to get" by a leader is easier to expose (e.g., paper trail, electronic messages, voicemail) and therefore, less likely to occur.

Explicit negative leader behaviour

Leader social undermining

Social undermining refers to "behaviour intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favourable reputation" (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 332). Leader social undermining occurs when a person with positional power shows direct aggression (e.g., intentionally saying derogatory things, belittling employees or their ideas) or indirect hostility (e.g., silent treatment, glaring) towards followers (Duffy et al., 2002; Duffy, Ganster, Shaw, Johnson, & Pagon, 2006).

There are two important caveats to understanding the nature of leader social undermining behaviour. First, for a leader's behaviour to be considered socially undermining, the follower must perceive the leader's actions as intentional and committed to hinder her or his performance (Duffy et al., 2002). Behaviour that hinders the follower's performance but is unintended, careless or thoughtless does not fall under leader social undermining. For instance, a leader who is inundated with role commitments may fail to return work-related telephone calls or electronic messages. Even though the leader's inability to respond may hinder the follower's performance, it is not classified as social undermining behaviour because it is unpremeditated.

Second, leader social undermining behaviours are not high profile, conspicuous behaviours that have an immediate, visible and palpable effect on followers. Instead, leader undermining behaviours are sinister and progressively weaken the follower's performance, relationships and reputation (Duffy et al., 2002). This represents an important distinction between leader social undermining and other negative workplace outcomes such as leader aggression (Barclay & Aquino, 2011; Demir & Rodwell, 2012). When a leader engages in

aggressive behaviour, it is likely to be high in intensity, have no ambiguity and may involve physical contact (Harden Fritz, 2009). Leader social undermining on the other hand is low to moderate in intensity. The leader may successfully disguise undermining behaviour as inadvertent on the basis that she or he was simply trying to motivate the follower (Duffy et al., 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1997).

Although there is some conceptual overlap with other mistreatment actions (e.g., bullying, deception, mobbing), the social undermining construct as envisaged by Duffy and colleagues (2002; 2006) is unique in that it explicitly identifies its outcomes in its definition (Hershcovis, 2011). Social undermining harms the target's work related success, hinders social relationships, and diminishes personal reputation (Duffy et al., 2002).

Research conducted on a police force sample found leader social undermining to be related to reduced self-efficacy and organisational commitment in subordinates (Duffy et al., 2002). The authors also found a positive relationship between leader social undermining and follower counterproductive work behaviour and somatic complaints (e.g., headache, dry-mouth). In a sample of employees from diverse organisations in the United States, found that the simultaneous presence of supervisor undermining and high interpersonal justice expectations was positively related to follower perceptions of leader hypocrisy (Greenbaum et al., 2015). In turn, increased perceptions of leader hypocrisy were positively associated with turnover intentions. The current thesis contributes to scientific understanding of the effects of leader social undermining on follower attitudes and performance. The effect of explicit (undermining) negative leader behaviour on follower outcomes is explored while the influence of implicit negative behaviour and positive behaviour is allowed to covary.

Follower Outcomes

In the current research, the effect of positive and negative leader behaviour on follower outcomes (attitudes and performance) is investigated. As stated by Harrison,

Newman and Roth (2006), "Job attitudes and job performance are perhaps the two most central and enduring sets of constructs in individual-level organizational research" (p. 305). Research has shown that attitudes are of significant importance in understanding employee behavioural outcomes such as performance. In their meta-analytic study (N = 14,945) Harrison et al. (2006) found that overall job attitude as measured by job satisfaction organisational commitment is linked to a higher-order behavioural construct comprised of desirable contributions individuals make to their work role (r = .59). Contributions include increased focal and contextual performance. Meta-analytic research (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004) has also shown that leader consideration is strongly correlated with subordinate satisfaction (r = .78), and leader initiating structure is moderately correlated with subordinate satisfaction with the leader (r = .33). Conversely, other researchers have shown that negative leader behaviours such as abusive supervision and supervisor undermining are associated with negative employee attitudes (Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2007). Therefore, examining the role of positive and negative leader behaviours as precursors of follower outcomes is warranted.

Job attitudes

In a recent review, Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) stated that job attitudes are the most venerable, most enduring, and most influential areas of inquiry in organisational behaviour research. The authors define job attitudes as "evaluations of one's job that express one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 344). The most commonly investigated job attitudes are job satisfaction and organisational commitment at both global and facet levels (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). According to Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012), job attitudes matter because jobs or roles matter to the individuals in them. That is, job attitudes are important to understand because jobs influence employee's identities, subjective well-being and health. Second, job

attitudes matter because they predict important employee behaviour (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Most job attitudes research assumes that attitudes are key antecedents of behaviour (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Dasgupta, Suar, & Singh, 2012; Harrison et al., 2006; Prottas, 2013). The popularity of Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) is clear evidence of the scholarly acceptance of this assumption.

Extant studies have shown that postive leader behaviour is an antecedent of follower attitudes. For example, ethical leadership behaviour has been associated with increased follower perceptions of interactional fairness and increased trust in the leader (M. E. Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Authentic leadership has also been linked with increased follower satisfaction with supervisor, organisational commitment and OCB (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). In addition, findings from another study showed that transformational leadership was a predictor of follower empowerment (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). Taken together, research findings suggest that positive leadership and leader behaviour is a precursor of improved follower attitudes.

Conversely, negative leader behaviour (e.g., abusive supervision, undermining, petty tyranny) has been linked to several follower outcomes including increased job tension and exhaustion (Harvey et al., 2007), increased resistance behaviour (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006) and intention to quit (Tepper, 2000). Negative leader behaviour has also been linked to reduced family well-being (Hoobler & Brass, 2006) and reduced follower job satisfaction (Tepper, 2000). In combination, these various findings support the investigation of the predictive validity of the proposed positive leader behaviour model and the ineffective behaviour model on relevant follower outcomes.

The next section discusses two job attitudes: satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement that were examined as follower outcomes of leader behaviour. The selection of both job attitudes was guided by the compatibility principle of attitude theory

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(Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). The theory states that the attitude-behaviour link is strongest when an attitude is matched in specificity or generality to behaviour. Thus, satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement are regressed on specific leader behaviours (e.g., clarifying, recognising, undermining). Also, satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement were chosen because of their probable sensitivity to variations in positive and negative leader behaviour. Given that prior work (Walumbwa et al., 2008) has identified a link between authentic leadership and satisfaction with supervisor, the same link is investigated using models of positive and negative leader behaviour as predictor variables. To the best of my knowledge, assessing the predictive validity of leader behaviour on follower cognitive engagement using competing positive and negative models is a novel contribution to the literature.

Satisfaction with supervisor

Weiss (2002) defines job satisfaction as "a positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation" (p. 175). This definition suggests that job satisfaction is an attitude that an employee can evaluate. In contrast, some scholars argue that job satisfaction is akin to a pleasurable affective reaction or feeling that stems from a person's assessment of what happens on the job versus what they expect or think they deserve (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Locke, 1976). The attitudinal approach (Weiss, 2002) to job satisfaction is appropriate for the current research because followers are asked to make an evaluative judgement about their satisfaction with a facet of their job – their leader. Attitude researchers contend that it is the evaluative component of satisfaction with a leader that establishes it as an attitude (Olson & Zanna, 1993; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997).

Along with satisfaction with pay, contingent rewards and promotion opportunities, satisfaction with the supervisor is a facet of job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). In the current thesis, followers are asked to evaluate how satisfied they are with their supervisor's general

performance. That is, followers are asked to rate how well a leader demonstrates competence, fairness, and attentiveness to their concerns. Research has shown that certain job characteristics which include justice perceptions, role ambiguity, communication satisfaction and supervisor receptivity are linked to satisfaction with the leader (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Sudin, 2011; Wheeless, Wheeless, & Howard, 1984). A leader high in positive leader behaviour may positively influence follower satisfaction by the fair administration of justice procedures, increasing role clarity and being more receptive to follower input. Equally, a leader who is high in negative behaviour is likely to reduce follower satisfaction by engaging in hypocritical and undermining behaviours. Therefore, positive leader behaviour is expected to positively predict follower satisfaction while negative leader behaviour is likely to negatively predict follower satisfaction.

Cognitive engagement

General employee engagement is "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviours that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active, full performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700). Conceptualised as such, an employee who is high in engagement is thought to be fully psychologically present in the performance of their work (Saks, 2006).

Rothbard (2001) provides a definition similar to Kahn's but emphasises the cognitive aspect of employee engagement. She identifies attention and absorption as critical features of cognitive engagement. Attention refers to the amount of cognitive resources (e.g., concentration, memory, psychic energy) a person uses at work. Some theorists contend that attention is a finite resource and individuals have to choose how to allocate it at work (Gardner, Dunham, Cummings, & Pierce, 1989). In contrast, absorption relates to the intensity of focus and deep engrossment a person experiences when working. An employee high in mental absorption is fully immersed in her or his work and is not easily distracted by

other tasks or activities (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011). Such employees are likely to be experiencing a state of flow in which they do not experience themselves as separate from their work activities (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Put succinctly, attention refers to quantity and absorption relates to quality of cognitive engagement (Rothbard, 2001).

Scholars specialising in occupational health have also provided definitions of employee engagement specific to well-being or lack thereof. For example, Schaufeli, Salanova, Gozalez-Roma and Bakker (2002) define work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (p. 74). If workers feel stimulated and energised by their work, they are more likely to vigorously apply themselves to tasks. Similarly, if they find the work to be significant and meaningful, they are more likely to experience higher dedication to it. And, if workers find their work to be engrossing or captivating, they are more likely to experience increased absorption. In contrast, burnout researchers define employee engagement as the antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). The authors argue that the three hallmarks of engagement; energy, involvement, and efficacy are the exact opposite of the three burnout dimensions which are exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy.

Similar to job satisfaction, an attitudinal approach towards employee engagement is adopted in this research. That is, followers are expected to make an evaluative judgment of their levels of cognitive engagement. As discussed earlier, by matching specific positive and negative leader behaviours to specific follower attitudes such as cognitive engagement and job satisfaction with supervisor, stronger relationships are more likely to be identified than when broader measures of employee engagement are used. Cognitive engagement is a specific aspect of employee engagement that captures the quantity and quality of psychological investment in work performance. Cognitive engagement was selected as an employee attitude in the current research because it has been linked to work performance. In

a sample of insurance workers, Ho, Wong and Lee (2011) found that absorption and attention explained the relationship between harmonious and obsessive job passion and work performance. Thus, given the importance of the cognitive engagement as an antecedent of important work outcomes, it is relevant to investigate precursors of cognitive engagement such as leader behaviour. Also, as a practical matter, the decision to limit the examination of employee engagement to its cognitive dimension was made to minimise the number of items on the survey questionnaire.

As noted by Rich and colleagues (2010), some measures of employee engagement (e.g., Utrecht Work Engagement Scale) confound the engagement construct with antecedent conditions. For example, in the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), some of the items also measure the respondent's perceptions of meaningfulness, purpose and challenge of work as opposed to engagement by itself. Despite this, the UWES is the most popular measure of engagement because of a very productive group of European researchers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). However, in the current thesis, Rich, LePine and Crawford's (2010) model of employee engagement is used because it has a theoretically derived subscale of cognitive engagement. In developing the subscale, the authors incorporate Rothbard's (2001) work on the critical aspects of cognitive engagement; attention and absorption resulting in a measure with sound psychometric properties (Shuck & Reio, 2014).

As noted by Saks and Gruman (2014), leadership has been established as a key antecedent of employee engagement. However, the leadership-engagement link has primarily focused on transformational leadership as the antecedent. Theoretical work by Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter (2011) proposes that transformational and empowering leadership are precursors of employee engagement in different degrees under varying conditions. It is theorised that leaders who communicate an inspirational vision or show individualised

consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006), promote engagement because they provide employees with meaningfulness in their roles.

In delineating the engagement construct, Macey and Schneider (2008) advanced the notion that, when leaders set clear expectations, demonstrate fairness and acknowledge commendable work performance, their behaviour is likely to have a positive effect on employee engagement by engendering a sense of attachment to the job. In a quantitative review, Christian, Garza and Slaughter (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011) identified several antecedents of employee engagement which are partial to leader influence and they include trust in leadership, psychological safety and autonomy. In a seminal study on antecedents of employee engagement, Saks (2006) found that job characteristics and perceived organisational support predicted employee engagement.

Job performance

Improved employee performance is one of the targeted outcomes of effective leadership (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Employee performance is generally seperated along task and contextual dimensions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Christian et al., 2011). Task performance is defined as the "effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process, or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99). Task performance criteria for employees are largely derived from their job descriptions. For example, an office-based customer services representative in a call centre is expected to answer calls in timely manner, effectively addressed the customer's problem in a reasonable time frame, and ensure that the customer's query has been satisfactorily addressed.

In contrast, contextual performance refers to behaviours that "contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape the organizational, social, and psychological

context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100). For a call centre representative, contextual performance may include mentoring of junior representatives, offering suggestions on effectively addressing customer queries, and volunteering to skip meal breaks or work longer hours for other co-workers who may not be available. Employee organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) is a form of contextual performance and the terms are used interchangeably in organisational behaviour literature (Werner, 2000). In the current thesis, task proficiency is used to investigate follower task performance and OCB is used to measure follower contextual performance.

Task proficiency

In the current research, individual task proficiency as conceptualised and measured in Griffin, Neal and Parker's (2007) model of positive work role behaviours is used. Embedded in the model are three levels of role behaviour (individual, team, and organisation) which capture employee proficiency, adaptivity and proactivity. As a measure of follower performance, the current research focuses on individual task proficiency because it captures the extent to which an employee's performance meets or exceeds the prescribed or predictable requirements of her or his role. In essence, task proficiency refers to behaviours that distinguish the essential elements of one job from another (J. P. Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993).

Viewed through COR theory, positive leader behaviour is a resource that has a positive effect on follower outcomes. In a sample of military personnel, Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002) established a causal link between transformational leader behaviour and follower performance. Leroy, Palanski and Simons (2012) also identified a relationship between authentic leadership and leader behavioural integrity on follower work performance. Behavioural integrity refers to the perceived pattern of alignment between an actor's words

and deeds (Simons et al., 2015). It is the polar opposite of the leader hypocrisy construct described earlier and it captures the extent to which leaders are seen to keep promises and behave according to the values they espouse. Empirical research has shown that role clarity is a significant predictor of individual task proficiency (Griffin et al., 2007). Taken together, various types of leadership and leader influenced behaviour may be antecedents of follower task proficiency.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is defined as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006, p. 3). OCB is discretionary because it involves actions that are not specified in an employee's job description or that are extra to what is contractually required. If, out of her or his own volition, an experienced employee helps new hires with on-the-job training or mentoring, she or he is engaging in OCB because that assistance is not specified in her or his job description. Other OCBs include adjusting work schedules to accommodate co-workers' requests for time off, or defending the organisation from unjustified criticism. Performing OCBs does not guarantee organisational rewards but, employees cannot be sanctioned for not engaging in them.

Scholars have proposed several dimensions of OCB but those with the most research support include altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy and sportsmanship (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Altruism refers to behaviour intended to help a specific person (C. A. Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). This includes assisting someone with a heavy workload or explaining the informal power structure to a new hire. According to Graham (1986), employees demonstrate civic virtue when they contribute to the organisation through responsible and constructive participation. Civic-minded employees

attend and actively participate in meetings and organisational functions. Conscientiousness is one of the Big Five personality factors (McCrae & Costa, 1987). It describes a tendency to demonstrate self-discipline, diligence, and a desire to achieve based on set measures or expectations.

Courtesy refers to behaviours that seek to prevent problems from happening to co-workers and other constituents (Organ, 1988). It differs from differs from helping in that it is proactive rather than reactive. Lastly, sportsmanship is the extent to which an employee refrains from unnecessary complaining (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Although employee's are entitled to express concern or displeasure about workplace related issues, a disproportional escalation of relatively minor or temporary inconveniences shows a lack of sportsmanship.

In the current research, overall OCB is used to measure contextual work performance. An examination of OCB at the dimension level is beyond the scope of this thesis. Similar to task proficiency, conservation of resource theory is used to investigate the leader behaviour and follower OCB relationship. I argue that positive leader behaviour is a resource that will likely result in increased follower OCBs. Three quantitative reviews on OCB have shown that leader behaviour and leader support are strong predictors of OCB. In their meta-analysis ($N = 3, 062$), Organ and Ryan (1995) found that leader consideration was a related to OCB ($r = .35$). In another review, leader behaviours (e.g., transformational leadership, leader role clarification, contingent reward behaviour) had a range ($r = .09$ to $.36$) in strength of correlation with OCB dimensions and overall OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In their meta-analysis, LePine, Amir and Johnson (2002) found that the leader support antecedent had the strongest relationship with OCB ($r = .25$) when compared to satisfaction ($r = .20$), commitment ($r = .17$), fairness ($r = .20$) and conscientiousness ($r = .19$).

CHAPTER THREE: DESIGN OF A SHORT POSITIVE

SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOUR SCALE

Brad Gilbreath and his colleagues have advanced the study of supervisor behaviour and its potential to create healthy work environments (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; Gilbreath, 2006; Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012; Karimi et al., 2014). However, their research has been conducted using a supervisor practices instrument (Gilbreath, 2008; Gilbreath, 2010) that is yet to be psychometrically assessed or validated in the academic research domain. According to Gilbreath (2010), the supervisor practices instrument is a conglomerative tool comprised of 52 positive behaviours and 11 negative behaviours. Behaviours are categorised to fit into one of 12 dimensions that include: fosters dialogue and seeks input, provides protection, provides resources and creates a sense of purpose (Karimi et al., 2014). In this chapter, a short scale of positive supervisor behaviour is designed and psychometrically evaluated using three samples. The scale is derived from a larger instrument that has been used in multiple research studies on leader behaviour (Hassan et al., 2013; O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 1990; Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl et al., 2009; Yukl et al., 2013)

Practical considerations justify the development of a short, reliable and meaningful measure of positive supervisor behaviour. The managerial practices survey (MPS) is a 60-item leader behaviour scale that requires significant organisational investment to obtain accurate and reliable ratings. First, employees must undergo training (weeks) to identify and differentiate the 15 leader behaviours. Second, for raters, a period of systematic observation (months) is required to ascertain how frequently a leader engages in each behaviour. Third, the organisation must allocate time for the completion of the MPS scale and other constructs of interest resulting in a lengthy and time-consuming questionnaire.

Tensions in the academic-practitioner relationship may also explain organisational hesitancy toward research participation. According to Bartunek and Rynes (2014), tensions

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represent dichotomies or contradictory pulls that demand a choice of one option over another. For instance, time horizons between academics and practitioners tend to differ quite considerably. Academics have a preference for longer timelines that allow for high-quality research (e.g., multi-wave longitudinal studies using validated instruments) while managers and professionals prefer shorter timelines that promote business objectives (Bansal, Bertels, Ewart, MacConnachie, & O'Brien, 2012). Therefore, if academics are to obtain access to organisations, they must design data collection tools and methods that have minimal impact on organisational resources and maximum contribution to business objectives.

The debate between rigour and relevance is another tension in the academic-practitioner gap likely to influence organisations' reluctance to participate in research (Avenier & Cajaiba, 2012). The dichotomy between rigour and relevance has become the subject of intense debate, with some scholars even suggesting that the two are mutually exclusive (Daft & Lewin, 2008; Kieser & Leiner, 2009). In their quest to collect and publish high-quality data, academics may unintentionally alienate managers and practitioners whose primary focus is relevance and applicability. In general, academics tend to be sceptical about research that emphasises relevance only (Knights, 2008). Instead, academics have a proclivity for research that is rigorous because relevance is not always immediately obvious, especially in the short-term (Walsh, Tushman, Kimberly, Starbuck, & Ashford, 2007). Research on the age-performance relationship is a prime example of this. Researchers began to focus on the relationship between age and performance in the workplace in the mid-1980s (Waldman & Avolio, 1986). At that time, the work performance of older employees was not well understood or appreciated. Today, that early work appears to have been prescient in our understanding of older workers (i.e., baby boomers) on a variety of performance indicators such as task performance, creativity and counterproductive work behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2008).

On the other hand, proponents of relevance lament the focus on rigorously executed studies that appear in top-tier academic journals at the expense of work that is more accessible to practitioners and immediately applicable (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). They claim that a purist approach to leader behaviour research consumes significant time and effort from organisations and their employees. Most organisations, particularly for-profit entities, require academics to demonstrate relevance before authorising research. As proposed by Hodgkinson, Herriot and Anderson (2001), the current research takes a pragmatic science approach to leader behaviour research. Rigorous methods are used to design a short, reliable and meaningful measure of positive leader behaviour that is suitable for research and relevant for organisations.

Methodology

From a methodological perspective, this thesis takes a post-positivist approach to addressing the research questions. Similar to traditional positivists, post-positivists acknowledge that theories, background, knowledge and values held by a researcher can bias observed phenomena (Colin, 2002). However, post-positivists also argue that knowledge is based on human conjectures that are testable and justified by warrants that can be modified or withdrawn as a result of further investigation. Post-positivism advances the notion of an objective truth but recognises the possible effects of researcher biases (Colin, 2002).

The post-positivistic assumptions of the current research dictated the collection of data from relevant organisational samples using psychometrically sound measurement scales. Although the researcher influences the data collection process through the sample they choose and the measurement instruments they use, various data collection procedures (e.g., option to skip questionnaire items, refusal to participate) and ethics provisions (e.g., assurances of confidentiality and anonymity) are implemented to mitigate external influences.

In this chapter, three studies that describe the development and psychometric evaluation of the supervisor behaviour scale (PSBS) are presented. Study One (N = 333) contains a mixed sample of New Zealand and United States-based employees. In this study, items from the MPS are subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to identify positive leader behaviours (factors) with the highest and most interpretable loadings (T. A. Brown, 2006). Study Two (N = 250) uses a sample of New Zealand based employees. In this study, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is conducted to test the four-factor positive leader behaviour model derived from the EFA in Study One. Construct validity of the hypothesised model is also assessed. Finally, in Study Three (N = 342), a CFA is conducted on a sample of United States-based employees to examine the stability of the four-factor PSBS model on a geographically distant sample. Construct validity is again assessed using a second method. Lastly, the measurement invariance or equivalence of the hypothesised model on a geographically distant sample is also assessed. This three-study method is consistent with work conducted by applied researchers in organisational psychology and management (T. A. Brown, 2006; Rich et al., 2010).

<div align="center">Study One</div>

<div align="center">*Method*</div>

Participants and Procedure

A sample of 333 participants (185 female and 149 male) in full-time employment was used for data analyses in Study One. One-third of the data (n = 122) were drawn from participants in the researcher's network via social networking websites - LinkedIn.com and Facebook.com. A general message was sent to contacts on both websites to advertise the survey and individuals choosing to participate were asked to provide a personal or professional email address. A formal invitation accompanied by a participant information sheet and the survey link was then sent to potential respondents. Using the snowball technique (Heckathorn, 2002),

contacts within the researcher's network distributed a link to the questionnaire to their contacts. From the 204 participants who started the survey, 82 cases were removed because of incomplete responses.

Approximately two-thirds of the sample (n = 211) was obtained through Qualtrics Panels. This participant recruitment method is consistent with the recent trend for data collection by academic researchers (Crump, McDonnell, & Gureckis, 2013; Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012). Third party organisations such as Amazon Turk, Profile Plus and Qualtrics are retained for their data collection services. In this study, Qualtrics worked in conjunction with local data collection partners to set up an online recruiting system to access individuals who had previously agreed to participate in surveys. Due to the cheaper cost, the Qualtrics sample was derived from participants based in the United States. Participants were offered monetary compensation of up to USD3.00 for the completion of each survey. From a database of more than fifty thousand eligible participants, email invitations were sent to 2,040 potential respondents. From the 279 participants who started the survey, 246 completed it for an overall response rate of 12%. Attrition occurred as a result of the strict criteria imposed on the quality of responses (see Careless Responding section).

Careless Responding

To mitigate the possible influence of the USD3.00 monetary incentive on data quality, two criteria were imposed on the dataset to determine good complete cases. First, four bogus questions (see Measures Section) were embedded into the survey (Meade & Craig, 2012). Cases were removed from the dataset if the participant did not provide the appropriate answer as requested for by the last two bogus questions (e.g., *disagree or strongly disagree*). A decision was made to focus only on the last two bogus questions because responder fatigue and boredom were expected to be of concern towards the end of a lengthy questionnaire. Second, an additional 34 cases were removed from the dataset because they did not meet the

survey duration criterion for good completes. Pilot testing of the survey instrument indicated that respondents should spend at least 10 minutes completing the questionnaire. Meade and Craig (2012) suggest that response time thresholds used in combination with bogus items are reasonable methods for detecting careless responding. Given their experience with data collection for scholarly research (Strauss et al., 2012), Qualtrics also endorsed this strategy for data cleaning.

Demographics

Participants were employed in a range of office-based jobs including health care and social assistance, education and training, financial and insurance services, and manufacturing. The modal age range was 26 to 35 (n = 104) 31%, and most 29% (n = 98) of the participants reported having worked under their current manager or supervisor for 1 to 2 years. Participants identified as Asian 3% (n = 10), Black 12% (n = 40), Latino 2% (n = 8), White 80% (n = 267) and unspecified 3% (n = 9). Regarding educational attainment, 27% (n = 91) reported having a post-graduate qualification (e.g., Masters, Doctorate) while 43% (n = 143) indicated that they had attained a Bachelor's degree. The remaining 30% (n = 100) had attained a diploma, certificate, high school or other qualification.

Measures

Managerial practices survey (MPS).

Items used to develop the PSBS were obtained from a revised version of Yukl, Gordon and Taber's (2002) MPS. A revised MPS G16-4 with 60-items (See sample items in Appendix) was made available to the researcher (G. Yukl, personal communication, October 28, 2012). The MPS has been used as a full and partial scale in other studies (O'Donnell et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 1990; Yukl et al., 2009). In addition to the three categories of the original MPS, the revised instrument includes a fourth category labelled external-oriented behaviour. External-oriented behaviours were discussed in the HBT section of Chapter Two.

The ethical leadership questionnaire (ELQ) assessing perceptions of leader ethical conduct was also added to the survey (Hassan et al., 2013). Ethical conduct does not fall under the four categories of leader behaviour as theorised by the HBT but, research suggests that it is a key leader behaviour with strong modelling cues for followers (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Hassan et al., 2013; Yukl et al., 2013). Responses to all items of the MPS were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*).

Bogus items.

To measure careless responding, four bogus questions developed by Meade and Craig (2012) were embedded into the questionnaire (e.g., *I am paid bi-weekly by leprechauns*). The four questions were distributed evenly throughout the questionnaire and responses were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*).

Demographic items.

Demographic data were collected using five items that required respondents to indicate their age range, sex, race, highest level of educational attainment and occupational sector. Responses were coded using categorical scales specific to each question. For example, race was coded as 1 (*Asian*), 2 (*Black*), 3 (*Latino*), 4 (*Middle Eastern*), 5 (*White*) and 6 (*Other*).

<center>*Data Analysis and Results*</center>

An EFA using principal axis factoring was used to extract the most salient positive leader behaviours. Principal axis factoring does not make any distributional assumptions and is less prone to improper solutions when compared to other methods such as maximum likelihood (T. A. Brown, 2006). HBT research (Yukl, 2012) suggests that leader behaviours are distinct but interrelated, therefore, direct oblimin rotation with Kaiser normalisation was used to obtain a simple structure (T. A. Brown, 2006; Costello & Osborne, 2005). When factors in an EFA are theoretically assumed to be correlated, oblique direct oblimin

rotation is the most frequently used method because it yields high eigenvalues. Promax is the other oblique rotation method but it is typically used for large datasets because of its computational speed. Initial results supported a seven-factor solution with eigenvalues of at least 1.0. A decision was then made to retain items that had both substantive and conceptual relevance while systematically eliminating those that contributed to poorly defined factors (T. A. Brown, 2006). Items loading less than .50 (Costello & Osborne, 2005) on any factor or that cross-loaded at more than .30 on two or more factors were removed one at a time and the analysis was repeated. Factors on which only two or three items had salient (> .50) loadings were also removed (T. A. Brown, 2006; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Analyses were re-run and re-evaluated until all the items that did not define a given factor or that were cross-loaded were removed. Remaining items were then assessed on how well they loaded on to the underlying factors.

The removal of unsuitable items resulted in a parsimonious scale with a relatively strong and stable four-factor structure. Each factor was measured by at least four items loading at .70 or greater. The four-factor solution explained 77% of the variance in the remaining items. In total, 16 items measuring four latent factors were retained while 48 items assessing 12 other hypothesised factors were deleted. Item content and pattern matrix loadings are presented in Table 5. To test the stability of the derived four-factor structure, a parallel analysis was conducted to determine the number of factors that could occur by chance with the same data parameters. O'Connor (2000) provides syntax for conducting a Monte Carlo parallel analysis on raw data in IBM SPSS. Specifications were set for a principal axis factor analysis to be carried out on permutations of the raw data as opposed to normally distributed randomly generated data. The number of parallel data sets was specified at 1000 and the desired percentile of the distribution was set at 95. As shown in Table 6, four

Table 5

Item content and factor loadings (from the pattern matrix) for the PSBS in Study One

		Factor			
		1	2	3	4
Ethical Conduct					
ETL01	Sets an example of ethical behavior in his/her decisions and actions	**.92**	-.01	-.00	-.03
ETL02	Insists on doing what is fair and ethical even when it is not easy	**.90**	-.00	.00	-.05
ETL03	Opposes the use of unethical practices to improve performance	**.89**	.02	-.08	-.05
ETL04	Communicates clear ethical standards and guidelines for members	**.72**	.06	.23	.06
Networking					
NET01	Builds and maintains a wide network of contacts among peers and outsiders	.08	**.94**	-.04	.04
NET02	Attends social and professional events to meet people with useful information	.02	**.83**	-.01	.02
NET03	Joins social networks that include outsiders with useful information	-.09	**.74**	.03	-.01
NET04	Develops cooperative relations with people who can provide resources and assistance	.07	**.73**	.02	-.14
Clarifying					
CLA01	Clearly explains the job responsibilities and task assignments to members	.07	.03	**.86**	.06
CLA02	Explains what results are expected for a task or assignment	-.03	-.00	**.86**	-.04
CLA03	Explains the rules, policies, and standard procedures that must be followed	.02	.02	**.83**	.02
CLA04	Sets specific performance goals and deadlines for important aspects of the work	-.02	-.02	**.72**	-.11
Recognising					
REC01	Provides recognition for good performance by the team or work unit	-.01	-.04	.01	**-.99**
REC02	Provides recognition for member achievements or important contributions	.02	-.01	-.02	**-.96**
REC03	Praises effective performance by members of the work unit	.11	.02	-.01	**-.84**
REC04	Recommends high performing members for appropriate rewards	-.03	.12	.10	**-.74**

Table 6

Principal Axis factoring (PAF) parallel analysis using raw data permutation in Study One

Root	Raw data	Means	Percentile
1.000000	8.301076	0.452217	0.541004
2.000000	1.588218	0.366244	0.432332
3.000000	1.308216	0.297436	0.354658
4.000000	0.915569	0.239822	0.292429
5.000000	0.066763*	0.185810*	0.228391*
6.000000	0.032428	0.137774	0.179151
7.000000	0.004910	0.092693	0.129699

Note. The PAF parallel analysis on the raw data supports a four-factor scale with only the fifth factor estimated as being lower than the Means and the 95th percentile.

eigenvalues (8.30, 1.59, 1.31, .92) were greater than the raw data eigenvalues at the 95th percentile (.54, .43, .35, .29) providing further support for a four-factor solution.

Descriptive statistics and estimates of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) are shown in Table 7. The four factors of the PSBS each demonstrated excellent internal reliability ($\alpha > = .90$). Bivariate correlations showed medium to large magnitudes of effect sizes between most of the factors ($r = .42$ to .59). However, the relationship between ethical conduct and recognition behaviour revealed a strong to very strong correlation of .65(J. Cohen, 1988). Results from Study One suggested a four-factor model for positive supervisor behaviour.

Study Two

In Study Two, the validity of the four-factor structure of the PSBS is assessed using CFA on a sample of employees based in New Zealand. The sample includes both full-time and part-time workers to assess variability across workers employed in different capacities. In addition, the construct validity of the hypothesised model is examined. Construct validity

Table 7

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations between PSBS factors in Study One

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Gender					
2. Ethical leadership	-.04				
3. Networking	.11*	.46**			
4. Clarifying	.04	.54**	.42**		
5. Recognizing	-.08	.65**	.59**	.53**	
M		13.68	11.68	13.64	12.34
SD		4.69	4.34	3.90	4.81
Skewness		-.37	-.02	-.21	-.06
Kurtosis		-.85	-.84	-.57	-1.05
Cronbach's alpha		.94	.90	.90	.95

Note. The means for all scales ranged from 4 (low) to 20 (high). Study 1 n = 333, * = p < .05 and ** = p < .01

refers to the degree to which inferences and decisions can be made from the measures in the study (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

Construct Validity

Convergent validity is the first type of construct validity to be investigated. To establish convergent validity, evidence must be presented to show that measures of theoretically related constructs are in reality, observed as being related to each other (D. T. Campbell & Fiske, 1959). As suggested by Fornell and Larker (1981), this study assesses convergent validity using average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE estimate indicates the amount of variation a latent construct explains in the observed variables or indicators to which it is theoretically related (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). Ranging from 0 to 1, an AVE of .5 or more means that on average, the latent factor explains 50 percent or more of the variance

in the indicators. According to the structural equation modelling (SEM) literature, an AVE of .5 or more is considered adequate for convergent validity (Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 2006; Malhotra & Dash, 2011).

Discriminant validity is the second type of construct validity to be examined in this study. Discriminant validity indicates that measures of theoretically unrelated constructs are in reality, not related (D. T. Campbell & Fiske, 1959). To assess for discriminant validity, the AVE is compared to indicators of shared variance. Essentially, shared variance refers to the amount of variance a factor (e.g., clarifying) is able to explain in another factor (e.g., recognising). Shared variance is the square of a correlation between any two factors and is generally presented as the maximum shared variance (MSV) or the average squared variance (ASV). According to SEM literature, adequate discriminant validity is said to exist when the AVE is greater than the MSV or the ASV. Convergent validity can also be established by having a square root of the AVE that is greater than inter-factor correlations (Hair et al., 2006; Malhotra & Dash, 2011).

Method

Participants and Procedure

A sample of 250 participants (121 female and 129 male) employed in New Zealand was used in Study Two. Nearly 30% (n = 70) of participants were drawn from two New Zealand-based organisations. The first organisation (n = 40) is a large infrastructure company operating in multiple sectors including transportation, mining, energy, industrial engineering, utilities and communications. The researcher approached the organisation's general manager for Human Resources and was granted permission to contact managers in four divisions about the study. Managers were emailed information about the research study with participation information sheets. Managers were then asked to forward an internet link to the survey to followers inviting them to participate in the research project.

Thirty participants were recruited from the New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF). NZDF members who were scheduled to undergo a professional development course were asked to complete the questionnaire voluntarily. From a total of 91 participants from both organisations who started the survey, 21 cases were removed because of incomplete responses. That is, they started completing the questionnaires but stopped participation with at least 50% of the survey instrument uncompleted. Bogus questions to detect careless responding were not used in either organisation because employees were not offered a monetary incentive for participation. However, the criterion for duration of questionnaire completion (10 minutes or more) was applied on response cases that were retained for analysis.

The remainder of the sample was collected using the snowball technique (Heckathorn, 2002). The researcher approached New Zealand-based contacts on LinkedIn.com and Facebook.com and asked them to forward a link to the survey to their contacts who live and work in New Zealand. As an additional screening measure, participants were required to confirm that they were employed in a full or part-time capacity in New Zealand before completing the survey. Similar to Study One, a stringent analysis of careless responses was also conducted. Response cases were only retained if the participant provided the appropriate responses (*e.g., Disagree or Strongly disagree*) to all four bogus questions and they took at least 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. From the 309 participants who started the questionnaire, 129 cases were removed because they were incomplete, they did not meet the careless responding criterion, or they did not meet the duration of questionnaire criterion. In total, from the 400 participants who started the surveys in Study Two, 150 cases were removed for a response rate of 63%.

Demographics

In addition to the employees from the two organisations that participated in the study, other respondents were employed in various sectors including education and training, professional and support services, healthcare and social assistance, and financial and insurance services. The modal age range was 36 to 45 years old with 36% (n = 90) of respondents. Thirty-five percent (n = 87) of the participants reported having worked under their current manager or supervisor for 1 to 2 years. Participants identified as Asian 4% (n = 11), Maori 2% (n = 5), Pasifika 4% (n = 11), White 82% (n = 205) and other 6% (n = 15). Regarding educational attainment, 32% (n = 79) reported having a post-graduate qualification (e.g., Masters, Doctorate) while 29% (n = 72) indicated that they had attained a Bachelor's degree. The remaining 39% (n = 99) had attained a diploma, certificate, high school or other qualification.

Measures

Supervisor behaviour scale (PSBS).

Participants completed an online version of the 16-item PSBS derived from the EFA in Study One. The PSBS measures four leader behaviours that include clarifying, recognising, networking and ethical conduct (See Table 5). Responses to all items of the PSBS were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*). The reader is referred to the Study One measures section for a description of the instruments used to measure careless responding and demographics.

Data Analysis and Results

Model Test

A CFA was conducted to test the hypothesised four-factor model of positive supervisor behaviour. As per the recommendation of Barrett (2007), the sample size (> 200) is appropriate for conducting a CFA using structural equation modelling because it can be reasonably expected to contain likely members of the full-time and part-time employee

population. MPLUS version 7 (Muthen & Muthen, 2010) was used to perform the CFA. In the CFA, the four latent factors and the indicator (item) to factor loadings were specified a priori. As noted by Brown (2006), a CFA is usually conducted in the latter stages of scale development or construct validation when exploratory investigations have been completed. The EFA in Study One tentatively established the underlying structure of positive supervisor behaviour and the CFA tests the hypothesised four-factor model. CFA also has the added benefit of accounting for measurement error. Most, if not all, methods used in the behavioural sciences contain some amount of measurement error. CFA allows for indicator-factor relationships to be estimated after adjusting for measurement error (T. A. Brown, 2006).

The CFA was conducted using a maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator with standard errors (Muthen & Muthen, 2010). In the present study, followers are asked to provide frequency ratings of positive supervisor behaviour. It is reasonable to expect that an individual who has attained a leadership position has and continues to exhibit positive leader behaviours on a regular basis. There is a possibility of restriction of range on the PSBS because incumbent leaders are more likely to be a homogenous group that generally displays positive leader behaviours. Individuals who are low in positive leader behaviours are less likely to occupy leadership positions. The MLR is robust to the non-normality of data that may arise from range restriction.

As shown in Figure 1, the items (indicators) assessing each of the four subscales of positive leader behaviour were modelled as loading onto distinct but correlated latent factors. Descriptive statistics including bivariate correlations, skew, kurtosis and estimates of internal reliability are shown in Table 8. Factors in the PSBS showed excellent internal reliability ($\alpha >= .90$). Although a number of indices can be used to assess a model for fit, I present a combination of absolute, parsimony and comparative fit indices as recommended by Brown
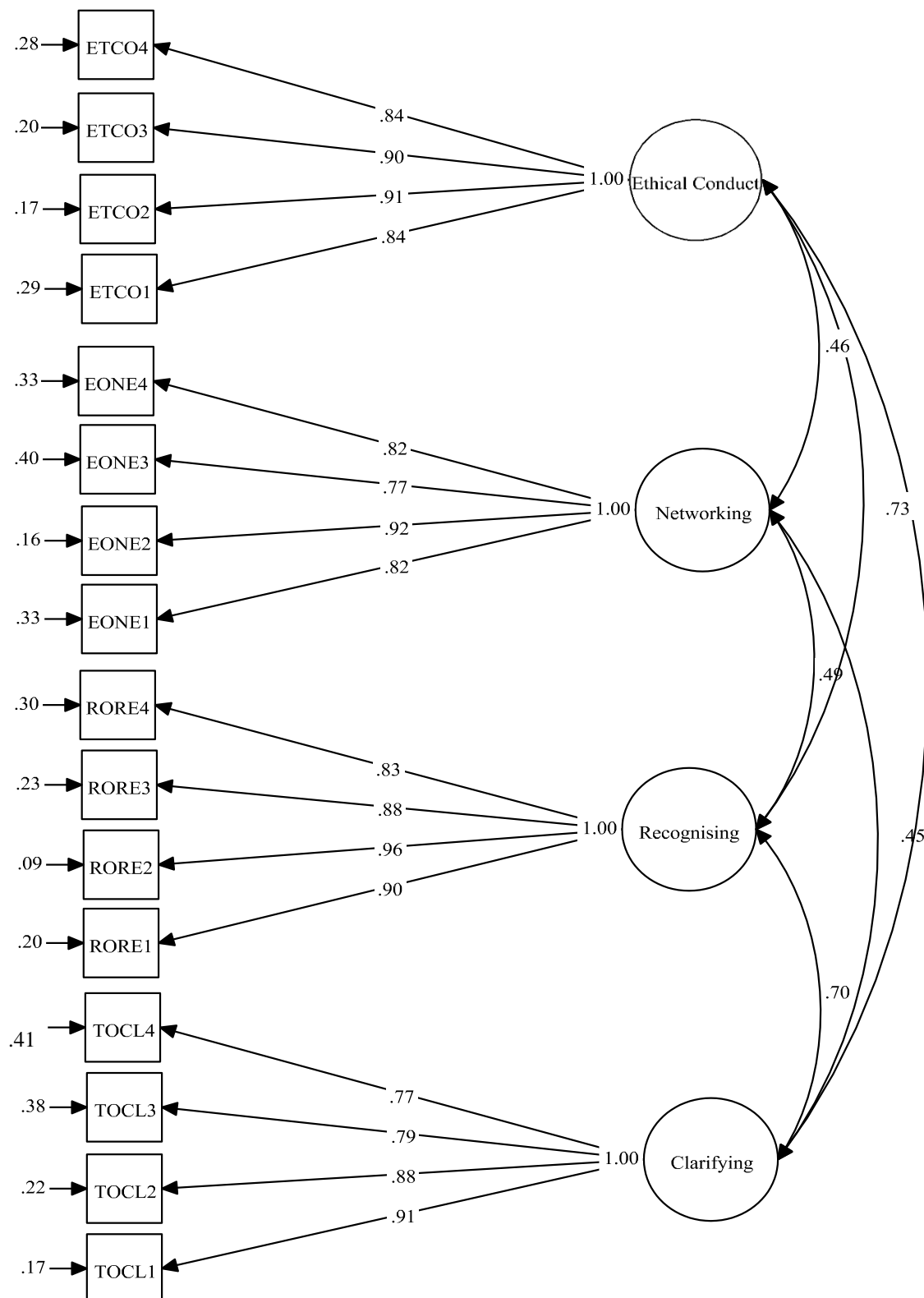
Figure 1. Confirmatory factor analysis with standardised parameter estimates of the PSBS model in Study Two

Note. ETCO = Ethical Conduct, EONE = External Oriented Networking, RORE = Relations Oriented Recognising, TOCL = Task Oriented Clarifying.

Table 8

Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations between PSBS factors in Study Two

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Gender					
2. Ethical leadership	-.16*				
3. Networking	-.15*	.40**			
4. Clarifying	-.17**	.71**	.38**		
5. Recognizing	-.10	.69**	.46**	.65**	
M		15.42	14.77	14.21	14.29
SD		3.96	3.65	3.89	4.22
Skewness		-.93	-.55	-.54	-.49
Kurtosis		.39	-.20	-.53	-.71
Cronbach's alpha		.93	.90	.90	.94

Note. The means for all scales ranged from 4 (low) to 20 (high). Study 1 n = 250, * = p < .05 and ** = p < .01

(2006). These indices were chosen on the basis of their wide acceptance in applied research as well as favourable performance in Monte Carlo research (L. Hu & Bentler, 1999). First, absolute indices assess model fit at the absolute level. According to Kenny (2014), an absolute measure of fit presumes that the best fitting model has a fit of zero. These indices can also be described as "badness" measures of fit where large indices indicate a poor performing model. Chi-square and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) are the absolute fit indices presented here because they provide an indication of how far the model is from perfect. A chi-squared test shows the difference between observed and expected covariances (Mueller & Hancock, 2008). The SRMR on the other hand is best described as the *average discrepancy* between observed and expected covariances (T. A. Brown, 2006).

Second, parsimony indices differ from absolute indices in that they account for model complexity (T. A. Brown, 2006). Generally, model fit improves as more parameters are added to a model. However, a parsimony index will indicate worse fit if parameters that do not make a useful contribution to the model are added (Mueller & Hancock, 2008). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is the most widely used parsimony index and is presented here. Third, comparative fit indices also known as incremental or relative fit indices, "evaluate the fit of a user-specified solution in relation to a more restricted, nested baseline model" (T. A. Brown, 2006, p. 84). To calculate a comparative fit index, the chi-square for the hypothesised model is compared to a baseline or 'null' model where the covariances among all its input indicators are fixed at zero. The Tucker-Lewis (TLI) index is presented here because it has a penalty function for model complexity (Tucker & Lewis, 1973). As opposed to the RMSEA which accounts for additional parameters that do not significantly improve model fit, the TLI levies a penalty for doing so (T. A. Brown, 2006).

Similar to the debate about which goodness-of-fit indices should be used, the cutoff criteria for good or poor fitting models is a controversial topic in SEM literature (Barrett, 2007; L. Hu & Bentler, 1995; L. Hu & Bentler, 1998; L. Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). Based on findings from a comprehensive evaluation of cutoff criteria for the maximum likelihood method, Hu and Bentler (1999) have provided the several recommendations that have been widely accepted in the academic literature. They suggest SRMR values close to .08 or below, RMSEA values close to .06 or below and TLI values of .95 or greater. They use the phrase "close" because these are rules of thumb that fluctuate as a function of modelling conditions (T. A. Brown, 2006). Fit indices for the hypothesised four-factor model of the PSBS were χ^2 (98) = 134.80, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .04 and TLI = .98. The hypothesised model fit the data well as measured by the three goodness-of-fit indices.

The hypothesised PSBS model was then tested against other likely models (See Table 9). This approach tests the four-factor model against other theoretically plausible models (Mueller & Hancock, 2008). The first comparison was made against a three-factor model in which ethical conduct and clarifying were combined into one factor because they are highly correlated (r = .71). A second comparison was made against a one-factor model which hypothesises that all 16 indicators measure one latent factor. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to compare between the models for best fit. The AIC is a

Table 9

Fit indices for the four-factor PSBS model and alternative models in Study Two

	χ^2 *(df)*	AIC	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Hypothesised four-factor model	134.80 (98)	8,751.90	.98	.04	.04
Alternative models					
Three-factor model	337.13 (101)	8,985.28	.90	.05	.10
Single-factor model	1019.05 (104)	9,818.30	.61	.12	.19

comparative measure of fit when two different (non-nested) models are estimated (Bozdogan, 1987; Mueller & Hancock, 2008). Lower values indicate a better fit, so the model with the lowest AIC represents the best fitting model. The PSBS four-factor model (AIC = 8,751.90) fit the data significantly better than a three-factor model (AIC = 8,985.28). The PSBS four-factor model also fit the data better than an alternative single factor model (AIC = 9,818.30) in which all 16 indicators were loaded on a single latent factor.

Construct Validity

To examine the model for construct validity, a CFA model was specified in IBM AMOS 23. From the output generated by the specified model, estimates from the factor correlations and standardised regression weights were used to calculate the AVE, MSV, ASV

and inter-factor correlations using a Microsoft Excel macro developed by Gaskin (2015). As

shown in Table 10, the AVE for the four factors was .69 or greater providing adequate

evidence for convergent validity. In addition, the AVE for each of the four factors was

greater than the MSV, ASV, and the inter-factor correlations of the hypothesised model. This

suggests that each of the PSBS factors has adequate discriminant validity.

Table 10

Indicators of construct validity in Study Two

	AVE	MSV	ASV	Clarification	Networking	Ethical Conduct	Recognising
Clarification	.71	.59	.42	.84			
Networking	.69	.24	.21	.45	.83		
Ethical Conduct	.76	.59	.44	.77	.46	.87	
Recognising	.80	.53	.42	.70	.49	.73	.89

Note. AVE = Average Variance Extracted, MSV = Maximum Shared Variance, ASV = Average Shared Variance.

Study Three

In Study Three, the psychometric properties for the PSBS were further examined on

full-time employees based in the United States. The first goal of this study was to use CFA to

test the performance and stability of the hypothesised four-factor model on a geographically

distant sample. The second goal was to re-examine the construct validity of the PSBS model

using two methods. The first method replicated the construct validity assessment procedures

done in Study Two on a different sample. The second method examined the relationship

between PSBS factors and other theoretically related and unrelated constructs in the

leadership literature. The third goal of Study Three was to evaluate the PSBS for

measurement invariance between a New Zealand and a United States sample. Measurement

or factorial invariance is a statistical property which indicates whether an instrument (model) is measuring the same construct across specified groups (Widaman, Ferrer, & Conger, 2010).

Construct Validity

The first type of construct validity assessed was convergent validity. Using the second method, evidence must be presented to show that measures of theoretically related constructs are in reality, observed as being related to each other (D. T. Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The first element of the PSBS model is clarifying behaviour. When a leader provides her or his followers with adequate role clarity, she or he reduces or eliminates the ambiguity associated with the employee's work (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Thus, the absence of role ambiguity is theoretically similar to the presence of role clarification in the PSBS model. Recognising is the second element of the PSBS model. Recognising is conceptually similar to contingent reward and refers to the awarding of desirable reinforcers (e.g., praise, compliments) for the performance of commendable work behaviour (Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, & Huber, 1984). Leaders are generally vested with the power to distribute contingent rewards based on performance.

The third element of the PSBS model is networking. Douglas and Ammeter (2004) conceptualise networking ability as a political skill that individuals use to successfully navigate organisational life. This construct is similar to networking in the PSBS model that views networking behaviour as an action intended to build alliances and social capital to further the interests of the leader, her or his team, and the organisation. The final element of the PSBS model is ethical conduct. In their conceptualisation of ethical leadership, Brown, Trevino and Harrison (2005), suggest that it is an amalgamation of considerate, trustworthy and fair behaviour by a leader. This is similar to ethical conduct in the PSBS model where followers rate their leaders on how frequently they communicate clear ethical guidelines and oppose the use of unethical practices to improve performance (Hassan et al., 2013).

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To show evidence for convergent validity, a general measure of the relationship quality between leaders and followers was compared against the hypothesised PSBS model. Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory suggests that leaders develop different styles and relationships to suit each follower (Graen & Scandura, 1987). The quality of a leader-follower (member) relationship is dependent on several dimensions including interpersonal affect, loyalty and professional respect (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). It is reasonable, then, to suggest that effective leaders elicit trust, allegiance and professional admiration from their followers. Therefore, we can expect a high correlation between a measure of leader-follower relationship quality (i.e., LMX) and each factor of the PSBS.

The second type of construct validity assessed was discriminant validity. Using the second method, evidence is presented to show that measures of theoretically unrelated constructs are in reality, not related. Similar to extant work in organisational research (Viljevac, Cooper-Thomas, & Saks, 2012) and research methodology (A. Cohen, 1996), variables that are not theoretically expected to be related must be pre-specified to establish discriminant validity. Therefore, a correlational analysis of the four PSBS factors with three theoretically unrelated variables (age, gender, educational attainment) is conducted to assess for discriminant validity.

Measurement Invariance

Measurement or factorial invariance refers to how similarly a model fits the data across different groups or samples (Widaman et al., 2010). In this study, the following question is posed; "Do the psychometric properties of the PSBS hold for office-based workers in New Zealand and the United States?" The PSBS is designed for use as a general measure of positive supervisor behaviour, so it is important to show that it assesses the same constructs across different samples. To determine whether the PSBS is a suitable measure of positive supervisor behaviour across geographically distant employees, multiple group

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confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) is conducted using the New Zealand only sample (group 1) described in Study Two and a United States sample (group 2) described in Study Three. MGCFA is an extension of CFA and provides a test of measurement invariance by estimating CFA models for separate groups and comparing the models simultaneously (Joreskog, 1971; Muthen & Muthen, 2009).

Measurement invariance is assessed at three settings (levels) from least to most stringent (Muthen & Muthen, 2009). The configural setting is the least stringent form of assessing measurement invariance. In the configural setting, factor loadings, intercepts, and residual variances are *all free* to vary across groups. Also, factor means are fixed at zero in all groups. The configural setting evaluates the extent to which the basic factor structure and loading patterns of the PSBS hold across different groups. In this study, configural invariance is obtained if a significant difference is not detected between the New Zealand and the United States samples.

The metric setting is a more stringent examination of measurement invariance. In this next setting, *factor loadings are constrained to be equal across groups* while intercepts and residual variances are free to vary across groups. Factor means remain fixed at zero in all groups. In the case of the PSBS, metric invariance would indicate that the actual values for the factor loadings are comparable. The implication here is that participants in both the New Zealand and the United States samples have interpreted the scale items in the same way and, therefore, the same construct is being assessed across samples.

Lastly, the scalar setting is the most stringent examination of measurement invariance. The scalar setting has *factor loadings and intercepts constrained to be equal across groups*. Only the residual variances are free to vary across groups. Regarding the factor means, they are fixed at zero in one group or sample, and they are free to vary in the other. Scalar invariance allows for the comparison of mean differences on the scores of the latent factors

(i.e., clarifying, recognising). If mean differences are not significantly different, this suggests scalar equivalence. That is, the mean (intercept) scores on the PSBS items are comparable.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Similar to Study One, participants in Study Three were obtained through Qualtrics Panels. The sample was derived from participants working in full-time office roles in the United States. From a database of more than fifty thousand eligible participants, email invitations were sent to 1,217 potential respondents. A total of 102 participants opted not to proceed with the survey after reading the consent form. From the 1,115 who began the survey, 342 completed it adequately for an overall response rate of 28%. Since participants were offered monetary compensation of up to USD3.00 for the completion of each survey, strict criteria (see Study One Careless Responding section, p. 4) were imposed on the quality of responses, and this led to the large attrition rate.

Demographics

Participants were employed in a range of office based jobs including healthcare and social assistance 14% (n = 47), education and training 13% (n = 45), professional and support services 11% (n = 38), financial and insurance services 9% (n = 32), and manufacturing 9% (n = 30). The modal age range was 36 to 45, 29% (n = 100), and most 26% (n = 90) of the participants reported having worked under their current manager or supervisor for 7 years or more. Participants identified as Asian 5% (n = 16), Black 7% (n = 23), Latino 4% (n = 12), Middle Eastern 1% (n = 2), White 81% (n = 282) and unspecified 2% (n = 7). Regarding educational attainment, 22% (n = 76) reported having a post-graduate qualification (e.g., Masters, Doctorate) while 50% (n = 171) indicated that they had attained a Bachelor's degree. The remainder 28% (n = 95) attained a diploma, certificate, high school or other qualification.

Measures

Positive Supervisor Behaviour Scale (PSBS).

To measure participants' perceptions of positive supervisor behaviour, an online version of the 16 item PSBS was used. The four positive supervisor behaviours measured by the PSBS are clarifying, recognising, networking and ethical conduct (See Table 5). Responses to all items of the PSBS were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*).

Role ambiguity.

As outlined above, supervisor clarifying behaviour in the PSBS is considered conceptually similar to the absence of role ambiguity. Rizzo, House and Lirtzman's (1970) 6-item role ambiguity scale was adapted from a self-report structure to a follower-report structure so that it could be used by an employee rating her or his supervisor. Example items were: My line manager or supervisor… "clearly explains how much authority I have" and "lets me know exactly what is expected of me".

Contingent reward.

Contingent reward was identified as theoretically similar to the supervisor recognising behaviour in the PSBS model. Therefore, 6-items from Podsakoff, Todor, Grover and Huber's (1984) contingent reward behaviour scale were used to rate employee agreement with supervisor acknowledgment. Example items were: My line manager or supervisor… "always gives me positive feedback when I perform well" and "personally pays me a compliment when I do outstanding work".

Network building.

The 6-item network building scale developed by Douglas and Ammeter (2004) was used to rate employee agreement with supervisor networking behaviour. Example items were:

My line manager or supervisor… "is good at building relationships with influential people" and "is good at using connections and networks to make things happen at work".

Ethical leadership.

Ethical leadership was measured using the 10-item ethical leadership scale developed by Brown and colleagues (2006). The scale contains the following example items: My line manager or supervisor… "disciplines employees who violate ethical standards" and "sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics".

Leader-member exchange multidimensional measure (LMX-MDM).

The 12-item LMX-MDM was used as a general measure of the quality of the leader-follower relationship (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Example items were: "My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question" and "I admire my supervisor's professional skills". Responses on all measures except the PSBS were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). In line with the recommendations from Schriesheim and Denisi (1980), the scales assessing for convergent validity were presented to respondents in random order. Randomisation was done for two reasons. First, to reduce error and hence to increase validity by minimising attempts at distortion by respondents. Second, to mitigate the effects of boredom as participants completed the leader effectiveness section that had a large number of items measuring similar constructs.

Demographic variables.

Age, gender and educational attainment variables were used to collect data to assess the discriminant validity of the PSBS model.

<div align="center">

Data Analysis and Results

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Model Test

A CFA was conducted to test the hypothesised four-factor model of positive leader behaviour. Similar to Study Two, the four latent factors and the indicator (item) to factor loadings were specified a priori. As shown in Figure 2, the indicators assessing each of the four subscales of positive leader behaviour were modelled as loading on distinct but correlated latent factors. Descriptive statistics including bivariate correlations, means, standard deviations and estimates of internal reliability are shown in Table 11. Once again, factors in the PSBS showed excellent internal reliability ($\alpha >= .90$). Fit indices for the hypothesised four-factor model of the PSBS were χ^2 (98) = 215.00, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .04 and TLI = .97. Similar to the New Zealand sample in Study Two, the hypothesised model performed well on the United States sample as indicated by all the fit indices.

Table 12 shows the results of testing the hypothesised PSBS model against two other theoretically plausible models to determine the best fit. The PSBS four-factor model fit the data significantly better than the other two.

Construct Validity

In this study, construct validity was assessed in two ways. In the first method (see Study Two), a CFA model was first specified and the output used to calculate the AVE, MSV, ASV (Gaskin, 2015). As shown in Table 13, the AVE for the four factors was .75 or greater providing adequate evidence for convergent validity. In addition, the AVE for each of the four factors was greater than the MSV, ASV, and the inter-factor correlations of the hypothesised model. This suggests that each of the PSBS factors has adequate discriminant validity.

To assess for convergent validity using the second method, simple bivariate correlations were examined (A. Cohen, 1996). As shown in Table 11, correlations between PSBS factors and facet measures assessing similar elements were high with a mean

correlation of .83 (r = .77 to .86). Also, all four factors of the PSBS were positively

associated with a
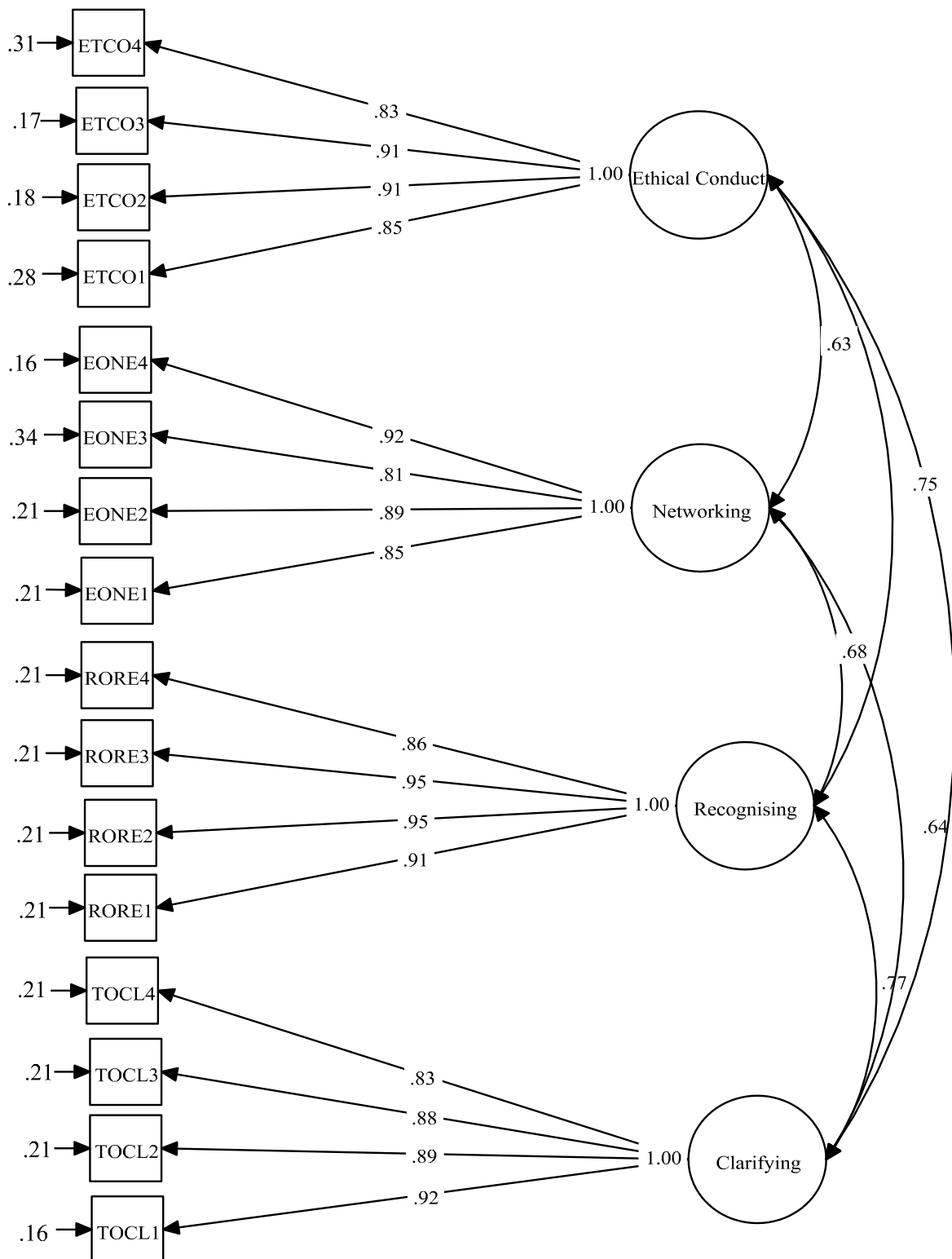
Figure 2. Confirmatory factor analysis with standardised parameter estimates of the PSBS model in Study Three

Note. ETCO = Ethical Conduct, EONE = External Oriented Networking, RORE = Relations Oriented Recognising, TOCL = Task Oriented Clarifying.

Table 11

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the PSBS and other positive leader behaviour constructs and demographic variables in Study Three

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
PSBS												
1. Clarifying	(.93)											
2. Recognising	.73	(.95)										
3. Networking	.59	.65	(.92)									
4. Ethical Conduct	.77	.72	.58	(.92)								
Other positive leader behaviour constructs												
5. Role clarity	.85	.70	.55	.76	(.96)							
6. Contingent Reward	.67	.85	.55	.69	.72	(.97)						
7. Networking	.71	.69	.77	.64	.68	.63	(.96)					
8. Ethical Leadership	.76	.78	.58	.86	.80	.80	.68	(.96)				
9. LMX-MDM	.72	.77	.57	.78	.74	.81	.67	.86	(.96)			
Demographic variables												
10. Age	-.10	-.14	-.09	-.03	-.01	-.07	-.11	-.36	-.32			
11. Gender	-.02	-.05	-.00	-.04	-.06	-.03	-.06	-.04	-.03	.06		
12. Educational Attainment	-.00	-.05	-.03	-.00	-.04	-.05	-.03	.03	-.03	-.03	.14	
MEAN	3.62	3.36	3.24	3.66	4.90	4.81	4.98	5.12	5.17	3.24	1.51	5.08
SD	1.03	1.12	1.11	1.06	1.54	1.63	1.46	1.38	1.31	1.20	.50	1.61

Table 12

Fit indices for the four-factor PSBS model and alternative models in Study Three

	χ^2 *(df)*	AIC	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Hypothesised four-factor model	215.00 (98)	11,865.30	.97	.04	.06
Alternative models					
Three-factor model	449.06 (101)	12,151.98	.90	.04	.10
Single-factor model	1306.79 (104)	13,262.83	.67	.09	.18

Table 13

Indicators of construct validity in Study Three

	AVE	MSV	ASV	Clarification	Networking	Ethical Conduct	Recognising
Clarification	.78	.66	.55	.88			
Networking	.75	.47	.42	.64	.87		
Ethical Conduct	.77	.67	.54	.82	.63	.88	
Recognising	.84	.59	.54	.77	.69	.74	.92

Note. AVE = Average Variance Extracted, MSV = Maximum Shared Variance, ASV = Average Shared Variance.

general measure of leader-member relationship quality (LMX-MDM) with a mean correlation of .71 (r = .57 to .78). The strong positive associations between the PSBS factors, facet measures and a general measure of positive leader behaviour suggest some degree of overlap.

Similarly, bivariate correlations were also examined to assess for discriminant validity (Viljevac et al., 2012). As shown previously in Table 11, correlations between PSBS factors and theoretically similar constructs were weak. The four factors of the PSBS were not practically or significantly related to the pre-specified demographic variables and had the

following mean correlations; age (r = -.09), gender (r = -.03) and educational attainment (r = -.04).

Model Invariance Testing

Table 14 shows the results of two standard CFAs for each sample that was presented earlier. In addition to the individual CFAs, an overall CFA with both samples combined ($N = 592$) indicated an excellent fit χ^2 (220) = 383.13, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .06 and TLI = .98. However, more importantly, an MGCFA indicated that the PSBS showed similar properties in the New Zealand and United States samples. The tests for configural, metric and scalar invariance performed adequately with RMSEAs of .05 and SRMRs of .04. This suggests that the basic factor structure and loading pattern of the PSBS are similar for the New Zealand and the United States samples.

Table 14

Fit indices for the multigroup CFA assessing the invariance of the PSBS on a New Zealand and United States sample in Study Three

	χ^2	*df*	AIC	RMSEA	90% CI	SRMR
Standard CFAs						
New Zealand	134.80	98	8,751.90	.04	[.020, .054]	.04
United States	215.00	98	11,865.30	.06	[.048, .070]	.04
Overall model	383.13	220	20,596.75	.05	[.042, .058]	.04
Multigroup CFA						
Configural model	351.88	196	20,617.20	.05	[.043, .060]	.04
Metric model	396.00	208	20,607.82	.05	[.043, .060]	.04
Scalar model	383.13	220	20,596.75	.05	[.042, .058]	.04

Note. Metric against Configural model, χ^2 (12) = 15.88, *p* = .20. Scalar against Configural model, χ^2 (24) = 28.67, *p* = .23. Scalar against Metric model, χ^2 (12) = 12.91, *p* = .38. Standard and Multigroup models estimated using Maximum Likelihood with robust error estimation (MLR). CI = Confidence Interval.

Also, chi-square difference tests on more constrained models that levied metric and scalar invariance did not differ in fit from the less stringent configural model. Metric versus configural model χ^2 (12) = 15.88, p = .20. Scalar versus configural model, χ^2 (24) = 28.67, p = .23. The scalar and metric models also did not differ significantly in fit, χ^2 (12) = 12.91, p = .38. This is more evidence of the adequate performance of the PSBS under restrictive assumptions.

CHAPTER FOUR: EVALUATING THE PREDICTIVE VALIDITY OF MODELS OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE LEADER BEHAVIOUR ON FOLLOWER ATTITUDES AND PERFORMANCE

Studies on positive leader behaviour have primarily focused on actions viewed as constructive or beneficial (Kelloway, Mullen, & Francis, 2006; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). The focus on positive leader behaviour has fuelled academic and practitioner interest in several constructs including transformational (Bass & Avolio, 1990), charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1994), ethical (M. E. Brown & Trevino, 2006), and authentic (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004) leadership. The emphasis on positive leader behaviours is not surprising as both academics and practitioners are motivated to improve the functioning of organisations (Staw, 2016).

Positive Leader Behaviours

Following on from the first research question, which explored the leader behaviours that followers perceive to be positive in organisational settings, the second question driving the current chapter examines how well the identified positive leader behaviours predict follower outcomes. Consequently, two studies were conducted to evaluate how well the PSBS predicts follower attitudes and performance (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In this section, study hypotheses justifying the link between PSBS behaviours and follower outcomes are generated from a diverse set of leadership, social and behavioural theories, although overarching these, conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002) is proposed as a unifying system that best explains the broad relationship between positive leader behaviour and follower outcomes. In COR theory, Hobfoll posits "that people seek to obtain, retain, and protect resources and that stress occurs when resources are threatened with loss or lost or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 312). Resources are objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or

energies that are valued by an individual (Hobfoll, 2002). In this thesis, positive leader behaviours are viewed as resources that aid followers in the accomplishment of their goals (Hobfoll, 2011). More specifically, positive leader behaviours are instrumental resources that leaders provide to their followers within the context of their relationship (Lemmon, Glibkowski, Wayne, Chaudhry, & Marinova, 2016). For example, recognising behaviour is a leader provided resource that has a motivating effect on followers. Meta-analytic research has shown that nonfinancial reinforcements from leaders (i.e., positive feedback, social recognition, attention) are just as effective as financial incentives in improving performance (F. Luthans & Stajkovic, 1999).

The application of COR theory to the current thesis also suggests that positive leader behaviours also operate as coping resources that are part of a followers stress resistance armoury when she or he encounters negative events (Hobfoll, 2002). For example, leader clarifying behaviour is a resource that counters the effects of follower role conflict thereby reducing employee stress. Leader recognising behaviour is another example of a resource that mitigates stress because it acknowledges the efficacy of follower performance. When a leader provides a follower with recognition for work performance, the follower is no longer in doubt about the adequacy of their work. Thus, it is plausible to argue that, in addition to facilitating desirable outcomes, positive leader behaviours also allow followers to cope with negative stressors that may emerge from the work environment.

To better understand how positive leader behaviours operate as resources that aid followers in the accomplishment of their goals within COR theory, I refer to the path-goal theory of leadership. Path-goal theory posits that leaders are effective because of the impact they have on a follower's motivation, satisfaction and ability to perform effectually (House, 1971; House, 1996). House and Mitchell (1971) assert that a leader motivates her or his followers by clarifying the path between effort and reward. This is achieved through setting

clear performance expectations and standards, and reducing roadblocks and pitfalls. Given

that a leader is in a position of authority, she or he can have a positive impact on followers by

providing cognitive clarifications to followers so that they are clear on and have an improved

likelihood of attaining work goals and thus experience positive attitudes associated with

success. House (1996) also argues that a critical function of a leader is to provide the

necessary information, support, and resources, over and above those provided by the formal

organisation or the follower's environment, to ensure follower satisfaction and effective

performance. Thus, viewed within COR as an overarching framework of providing resources,

and path-goal theory as a more specific motivational explanation, clarifying behaviour is a

leader-provided resource that followers seek to obtain, maintain and protect because it

facilitates positive work experiences and allows them to cope with demanding or stressful

circumstances.

Building on their seminal 1971 article, House and Mitchell (1974), advanced the

notion of four general classes of leader behaviour that satisfy follower needs. These are

directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented behaviours. Directive path-goal

clarifying leader behaviour is of relevance to the current research because it provides

followers with psychological structure and clarity about work expectations. A leader may

provide directive path-goal guidance through appropriate scheduling and co-ordination of

work, specific instructions about the execution of work, and clarification about organisational

policies, rules, and procedures. Again, within COR, these types of directive guidance may

operate as instrumental leader provided resources that facilitate success at work.

The path-goal theory of leadership was subsequently reformulated from a strictly

dyadic theory of supervision between leaders and followers to one that explains the effect of

leaders on both individual followers and work units or teams (House, 1996). In the final

iteration of the path-goal theory of leadership, House (1996) presents four axioms that are

assumed to be true for studying leader behaviour and its consequences. The first and second axioms are relevant to leader clarifying behaviour and its effect on follower outcomes. The first axiom states that, "leader behavior is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction" (House, 1996, p. 335). The second axiom states that "leader behavior will enhance subordinate goal oriented performance to the extent that such behavior (a) enhances the motivation of work unit members, (b) enhances task relevant abilities of work unit members, (c) provides guidance, (d) reduces obstacles, and (e) provides resources required for effective performance" (House, 1996, p. 335).

It is plausible to argue that the enablement of follower work success by leader clarifying behaviour is likely to be associated with improved follower attitudes and performance. Extent research has found positive links between leadership behaviours and follower job satisfaction (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994; Schriesheim & DeNisi, 1981), engagement (Greco, Laschinger, & Wong, 2006; Mendes & Stander, 2011), and performance (Loi, Ngo, Zhang, & Lau, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

In accordance with COR theory, clarifying behaviour is a leader-provided instrumental resource that mitigates follower stress evoked by role ambiguity (House, 1971). Leader clarifying behaviour is likely to lead to greater follower satisfaction with a supervisor because it provides followers with definitive information about the standard of work expected in their role. Leader clarifying behaviour is also likely to result in greater follower engagement because a leader who clarifies work expectations makes a proactive investment in the success of her or his followers. Followers feel empowered and are able to immerse themselves in their work. Extent research suggests that increasing clarity of expectations is associated with an increase in positive emotions which in turn leads to engagement of employees (Russell, 2008). Lemmon and colleagues (2016), have shown that there is a positive link between supervisor-provided

task resources (i.e., clarifying, feedback) and in-role performance. Therefore, leader clarifying behaviour as conceptualised in the PSBS is likely to be associated with increased task proficiency because followers feel they have adequate information and resources to do their jobs. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1. Leader clarifying will be positively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

The third axiom of the path-goal theory of leadership posits that leader behaviour can have a motivating effect if it makes satisfaction of followers' needs and preferences contingent on effective performance, makes rewards contingent on goal accomplishment, and supplements the followers' work environment by providing psychological structure, support, and rewards necessary for effective performance (House, 1996).

As suggested by COR theory, recognising is an instrumental resource that endorses current behaviour thereby increasing the chances of it being repeated in the future (Hobfoll, 2011). Recognising is an intangible reward, which is at the immediate disposal of an organisational leader (Hobfoll, 2002; Spector, 1985). It differs from other rewards such as increased pay and autonomy, fringe benefits and promotion that tend to be allocated after a prescribed organisational process. Leaders are able to use recognising as a resource that has an immediate impact on follower attitudes and performance by providing specific, accurate and timely acknowledgement of commendable effort.

While COR provides a framework for understanding how recognising operates as a leader-provided resource, a more specific theory that explains how recognising works is contingent reward leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1982). Contingent reward leadership theory provides one explanation for the link between leader recognising behaviour and follower outcomes. Yammarino, Spangler and Dubinsky (1998) state that, "contingent reward leadership involves a focus on transactions, exchanges, and contingent rewards and

punishments" (p. 33). Contingent reward leadership refers to person-oriented leader behaviour that employs exchanges or transactions for desired follower performance. As stated previously, leader recognising is an intangible behaviour that affirms previous follower performance, which enhances follower attitudes and motivates future performance.

Extant research has shown that contingent reward leadership is positively related to follower job satisfaction (Yammarino et al., 1998), commitment and performance (Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997; Yammarino et al., 1998). Illustrating this in detail, in a seminal meta-analysis that examined the relative validity of transformational and transactional leadership, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found that contingent reward leadership was positively associated with follower job satisfaction, follower satisfaction with leader, and follower motivation. They also found that contingent reward uniquely predicted follower outcomes even when transformational, laissez-faire, and management by exception leadership were included as control variables. In sum, theoretical and empirical work on contingent reward leadership fits within the resource-oriented framework provided by COR.

Leader recognising affirms previous efforts that are likely to result in increased psychological safety. A work climate characterised by psychological safety is much more likely to improve follower attitudes such as satisfaction (Dollard & Bakker, 2010) and engagement (Kahn, 1990). Leader recognising behaviour is also likely to result in improved performance because of its affirming component. When a follower receives positive acknowledgement from her or his leader, she or he feels that current levels of performance are validated and she or he is likely to respond with greater effort. Hence, the following hypothesis is advanced:

H2. Leader recognising will be positively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

If followers believe that they are able to access their leader's social capital, they are likely to view her or his external networking behaviour as positive. As proposed by COR

theory, the positive appraisal of leader networking behaviour suggests that it is an instrumental resource that followers can leverage to meet personal and organisational goals (Hobfoll, 2002). Defined from a communal or bridging perspective, social capital is "the process by which social actors create and mobilize their network connections within and between organizations to gain access to other social actors' resources" (Knoke, 1999, p. 17). It can also be defined as "the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures" (Portes, 1998, p. 6). Social capital is embedded in social connections and is created when relationships among people facilitate a desired objective (Coleman, 1988). One way in which organisational leaders build their social capital is through external-oriented networking behaviour.

Empirical research on leader networking ability has shown it to be a significant and positive predictor of work unit performance (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). There is a paucity of research investigating the link between leader networking behaviour and other follower outcomes (i.e., engagement, performance). However, as theorised by Ibarra and Hunter (2007), leaders in contemporary organisations are expected to network for operational, personal and strategic purposes. Not only should they focus on building networks with adequate depth and breadth, they should also focus on networking for leverage. It is the leverage or social capital earned by a leader that followers view as a resource to obtain successful experiences at work or to mitigate stressful circumstances. According to Pfeffer (1992), individuals high in networking ability strategically position themselves to create and capitalize on opportunities.

Leaders that are high in networking ability develop friendships and build strong alliances and coalitions that can be leveraged by themselves and their followers when needed (Ferris et al., 2005). Therefore, leaders with numerous, diverse and influential connections are attractive to followers because they have contacts with access to desirable jobs, project

assignments, promotions, and other rewards within organisations (Coleman, 1988). Followers who work with leaders that are high in networking behaviour are likely to report higher satisfaction and engagement if they can also access the social capital derived from those networks. The leader's social capital is a constructive resource that allows a follower to attain her or his goals (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). The link between leader networking behaviour and improved follower attitudes (i.e., satisfaction, engagement) is proposed because followers with leaders that are willing to let them tap into their networks are likely to feel more trusted or favoured by the leader. Similarly, followers are more likely to improve their job performance if they can reasonably expect to have access to necessary work resources via their leader's network. It is plausible, then, to argue that the social capital earned by a leader from her or his networking is likely to be associated with improved attitudes and performance in followers if they have access to it. Hence, I advance the following hypothesis:

H3. Leader networking will be positively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

From the perspective of COR theory, leader ethical conduct is an instrumental resource which followers can use as a standard or guide for their own ethical behaviour. Social learning theory posits that learning is a cognitive process that takes place in a social context and can occur purely through observation or direct instruction, even in the absence of reinforcement (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory thas five key principles (Grusec, 1992). First, social learning theory asserts that learning is not purely behavioural. Rather, learning can also be viewed as a cognitive process that occurs in a social context. Second, learning can also occur through the observation of behaviour and its consequences. Third, learning involves observation, extraction of information from observations, and deciding how to behave based on the learners interpretations of the observations. Fourth, reinforcement

influences learning but it is not entirely responsible for learning. The last tenet of social learning asserts that learners are not passive recipients of information. Cognition, environment, and behaviour all mutually influence each other to determine social learning (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1986).

Applied to the current research, social learning suggests that followers learn about appropriate ethical conduct from their leaders. First, leaders serve as models for followers (Bandura, 1977). As a model, a leader displays the desired expressions and behaviours when dealing with an ethically challenging situation. Second, a leader can model ethically appropriate behaviour through verbal instruction. She or he may describe the behaviour in detail and then coach or instruct followers on how to practise it. Lastly, a leader can model behaviour through symbolic communication. Through organisational communication channels (i.e., email, intranet, website), a leader can communicate standards and expectations of appropriate ethical behaviour to followers.

Leader ethical conduct is an instrumental resource with a strong effect on followers because of the asymmetrical power relationship between the two parties (Hobfoll, 2002). Followers are motivated to attend to their leader's ethical conduct because it reflects the behaviour endorsed by the organisation. When faced with an ethically challenging scenario, followers can choose to replicate behaviour previously demonstrated or encouraged by their leader. Extant research has shown that ethical leadership has a positive influence on follower job satisfaction (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009), dedication, willingness to report organisational problems to management (M. E. Brown et al., 2005) and affective commitment (Neubert et al., 2009).

Knowing the type and standard of behaviour that is accepted by the organisation, and their leader, and correctly reproducing it when required, is likely to result in improved follower attitudes (i.e., satisfaction, engagement). This is because the leader's exemplar or

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guidance frees followers from having to formulate their own responses to ethically challenging situations, instead providing a condition resource that followers can draw on. That is, the leader's ethical conduct provides clarity about the ethical standards expected of followers. This leader's provision of an ethical template or resource suggests that followers can efficiently address ethically ambiguous situations and concentrate on their job roles. Therefore, I advance the following hypothesis:

H4. Ethical conduct will be positively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

In sum, the four PSBS behaviours are supervisor-provided instrumental resources that facilitate follower success within the organisation and mitigate the effects of organisational stressors. It is therefore plausible to suggest that the utility of the four PSBS behaviours can be expressed through increased follower satisfaction, engagement and performance. To obtain a more complete understanding of positive leader behaviour (or to address the lack thereof), researchers are increasingly focusing on behaviour that is negative or dysfunctional (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Rose et al., 2015; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). More specifically, researchers are now investigating constructs such as supervisor undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997) and bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). While some scholars (Aryee, Sun, Chen, & Debrah, 2008) argue that negative leader behaviours are low base rate phenomena, the deleterious consequences of these behaviours warrant further investigation. As stated previously, COR theory postulates that resources are part of an individual's stress resistance armoury when she or he encounters negative events (Hobfoll, 2002). Thus, when a follower is exposed to negative leader behaviours, she or he is likely to report a reduction in work attitudes and performance because the negative actions are threatening to, or actually depleting her or his coping resources.

Negative Leader Behaviours

The primacy of resource loss is a key aspect of COR theory. It states that "resource loss is disproportionately more salient than resource gain" (Hobfoll, 2011, p. 117). Individuals are particularly attentive to resource loss and they tend to invest more resources against loss. In advancing the mobilisation-minimisation hypothesis (Taylor, 1991), asserts that adverse or threatening events elicit powerful affective cognitive and behavioural responses. Negative leader behaviours such as supervisor undermining, knowledge hiding and leader hypocrisy represent negative workplace stressors that are likely to evoke feelings of distress, lack of control and helplessness (Mandler, 1984; Taylor, 1991). Adverse events have been linked with increased causal attributional activity and complex cognitive representations about the self (Bandura, 1997).

Supervisor undermining.

Extant research on the supervisor undermining construct has found it to be a significant and negative predictor of follower self-efficacy and commitment (Duffy et al., 2002). Supervisor undermining has been linked to increased voluntary turnover amongst followers (Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubensteing, & Song, 2013) as well as increased perceptions of supervisor hypocrisy (Greenbaum et al., 2015). In response to undermining behaviours such as public put downs, silent treatment, or being subjected to malicious rumours, followers are likely to indicate reduced satisfaction, engagement and work proficiency because followers interpret the supervisor's behaviour as rejecting, devaluing and diminishes of their confidence as followers (Duffy et al., 2002). Therefore, I advance the following hypothesis:

H5. Supervisor undermining will be negatively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

Leader hypocrisy..

Prior research suggests that leader hypocrisy is associated with lower perceptions of interpersonal justice, intent to stay with the organisation, and job satisfaction (Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean Parks, 2007). Recent work has also found that perceptions of leader hypocrisy mediate the interactive effect of supervisor undermining and interpersonal justice expectation on turnover intentions (Greenbaum et al., 2015). That is, when supervisor undermining and interpersonal justice expectations are both high, followers are more likely to formulate hypocrisy attributions that are manifest in increased turnover intentions.

In response to hypocritical behaviour when followers infer leader word-deed misalignment, followers are also likely to express a reduction in work attitudes and performance. A leader who routinely displays hypocritical behaviour is likely to foster feelings of mistrust amongst followers because of the incongruence between her or his espoused values and enacted behaviours (Simons et al., 2015). In the long-term, followers will come to view hypocritical leaders as unreliable resources. They increase the unpredictability of work life (Greer, De Hoogh, Van Kleef, & De Dreu, 2013). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6. Leader hypocrisy will be negatively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency

Leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb.

Knowledge hiding theorists contend that in the long term, withholding behaviour that is reciprocated by hiding behaviour from followers may result in increased interpersonal conflict, reduced trust and lower job performance (Webster et al., 2008). The knowledge-hiding construct is relatively new and research focusing on the consequences of leader withholding behaviour on follower outcomes is sparse (Connelly et al., 2012). When a supervisor routinely withholds knowledge requested by followers through playing dumb, followers are more likely to interpret the behaviour as deceptive because the leader pretends to be ignorant of the

requested information. In essence, knowledge hiding through playing dumb contains elements of incivility such as discourtesy and rudeness that violate workplace norms of respect amongst individuals (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2004). In response to leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb, followers are likely to feel affronted which in turn is likely to result in reduced satisfaction, engagement and work proficiency. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H7. Knowledge hiding through playing dumb will be negatively related to follower a) satisfaction with supervisor, b) cognitive engagement, c) task proficiency.

A recent meta-analysis by Schyns and Schilling (2013) explored the effects of destructive leadership on follower attitudes, affect, well-being and other organisation-related outcomes. The disproportionate salience of resource loss as opposed to resource gain that is explicated by COR theory (Hobfoll, 2011), provides a persuasive explanation of the effects of negative leader behaviours on follower outcomes. Followers are attentive to a leader's negative behaviour because it represents either a potential or actual resource loss or the addition of a stressor. Followers are compelled to respond to the behaviour by investing accumulated resources from their stress resistance armoury. The loss of these accumulated resources is likely to result in reduced follower attitudes and performance. Schyns and Schilling found that followers were more likely to harbour negative attitudes towards destructive leaders (r = -.57). They were also more likely to display resistance behaviours towards her or him (r = .30). Second, regarding self-evaluation and well-being, Schyns and Schilling found that destructive leadership was significantly and negatively related to positive self-evaluation (r = -.17) and well-being (r = -.35). They also reported significant and positive relationships between destructive leadership and negative affectivity (r = .34) and stress (r = .24). Together, these findings suggest that destructive leader behaviour has a negative effect on follower self-evaluation and well-being. In addition, destructive leader

behaviour is likely to increase follower negative affectivity and work stress. Thus, it is unsurprising that in response to destructive leader behaviour, followers develop negative attitudes that may then lead to resistance behaviours.

Third, regarding job-related effects, Schyns and Schilling (2013) found a significant negative relationship between destructive leadership and job satisfaction. They argue that through their behaviours, leaders shape follower perceptions of their jobs. Therefore, if a leader consistently engages in destructive behaviour, followers are more likely to express dissatisfaction with their leader. With respect to organisational effects, Schyns and Shilling found significant positive relationships between destructive leadership and turnover intention and counterproductive work behaviour with destructive leadership. They also reported a significant negative relationship between both perceptions of justice and organisational performance and destructive leadership. As noted by Schyns and Schilling, this supports the overspill hypothesis (Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008). The overspill hypothesis suggests that destructive leadership engenders negative follower feelings towards the leader and these feelings overspill to the organisation as a whole. In general, followers view leader behaviour as representative of what the organisation tolerates. Destructive leader behaviour of any kind has harmful effects on both the employees and the organisation. Followers are likely to respond to implicit validation of destructive leadership through reduced performance (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), increased tardiness, absenteeism and turnover (Van Dick et al., 2004).

A seminal review by Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finekenauer and Vohs (2001) suggests that bad is stronger than good in a broad range of psychological phenomena. As the authors succinctly state, "close relationships are more deeply and conclusively affected by destructive actions than by constructive ones, and by conflict than harmony" (p. 355). Therefore, in workplace leader-follower relationships, it is reasonable to expect that negative leader

behaviour will have a stronger effect on follower outcomes when compared to its positive counterpart.

Extant research also suggests that aversive or negative events elicit affective and cognitive reactions that desirable or positive events do not (Taylor, 1991). From a follower perspective, negative leader behaviour cannot be simply ignored because it represents a problem that she or he needs to resolve. This explanation is closely related to the salience hypothesis, which states that when compared to good behaviour, bad behaviour occurs so infrequently such that it has a jarring effect on targets and witnesses of it (Kellermann, 1984). Also related to the salience hypothesis is the notion that bad behaviour is more informative than good because it violates established norms (Baumeister et al., 2001). There is a general expectation that all employees, especially leaders, will primarily display positive or constructive behaviours at work. When leaders exhibit negative or destructive behaviours, they are defying situational and social standards which may be more indicative of particular leader traits and dispositions (Skowronski & Carlston, 1992).

This chapter extends the work of Schyns and Schilling (2013) who hypothesised that effect sizes for the relationships between destructive leadership and follower attitudes and behaviors will be higher (stronger) than those for constructive leadership and follower attitudes and behaviors. Contrary to their hypothesis, Schyns and Schilling found that most of the correlations between constructive leadership and a variety of outcomes were higher than those between destructive leadership and the same outcomes except for follower commitment and well-being. Specifically, they found that LMX and transformational leadership were positively associated with attitudes toward supervisor, satisfaction with supervisor, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and individual performance. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H8. The effect sizes found for the relationships between positive negative leader behaviour, and follower outcomes will be higher than those for positive leader behaviour and follower outcomes.

In the current research, contributions are made to organisational research literature in two main ways. First, the variables used to operationalise negative leader behaviour and follower outcomes differ from those examined in Schyns and Schilling's (2013) work. Schyns and Schilling focused on abusive supervision, petty tyranny, aversive and despotic leadership. In the present research, negative leader behaviour is assessed through three constructs; leader hypocrisy (Greenbaum et al., 2015), knowledge hiding through playing dumb (Connelly et al., 2012) and supervisor undermining (Duffy et al., 2002). Leader hypocrisy and knowledge hiding are relatively new constructs that have received much less research attention compared to abusive supervision or supervisor undermining. Also, the three constructs examined in the current research represent graduated levels of negative leader behaviour. Leader hypocrisy and leader knowledge hiding typify implicit negative leader behaviours that can have an annoying or irritating effect on followers (Rose et al., 2015). On the other hand, supervisor undermining is an explicit negative leader behaviour that can have an emotionally traumatising effect on followers.

In terms of follower outcomes, the current studies examine two job attitudes and two job performance indicators. Similar to Schyns and Schilling (2013) follower satisfaction with supervisor (Spector, 1985) and task proficiency (Griffin et al., 2007) are assessed because they are represent outcomes directly linked to positive and negative leader behaviour. As an extension of Schyns and Schilling's (2013) work, the effect of positive and negative leader behaviour on follower engagement and OCB is also assessed. In the first and second studies, (Busi, 2013) follower cognitive engagement is measured to obtain a clearer understanding of how positive and negative leader behaviour influences follower mental absorption. In Study

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Two, the effect of leader behaviour on OCB is also assessed as a separate dimension of performance that was inadvertently omitted in Study One (Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). The positive and negative leader behaviour models are comprised of specific leader behaviours whose level of influence on specific outcomes can be assessed. Therefore, hypotheses are generated at the behavioural level to specific outcome level.

Study One

Method

Participants and Procedure

In total, three samples were used for the current thesis. Two of the samples were used for the purposes of developing the shortened PSBS (see Chapter Three) and for assessing the scales' predictive validity relative to follower attitudes and performance. Using the same samples for scale reduction and assessing predictive validity is unusual but it is not unprecedented (e.g., Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). A potential problem with using the same samples to design a scale and to test predictive validity is the lack of generalisability. The PSBS may show good psychometric properties for the sample it was derived from but it may not perform similarly for other samples.

For the current thesis, the same samples were used for designing the PSBS and assessing predictive validity because it was a practical solution to address the difficulties encountered with obtaining access to organisational respondents. Citing a variety of reasons, organisations were reluctant to avail their employees as research participants. On one occasion, my supervisor and I met with a national bank's representative about the possibility of collecting data and subsequently, after many months of communication and negotiation, they opted not to participate citing pressing business priorities. In another instance, I approached a large engineering organisation that provided access to 150 employees to participate voluntarily but this only yielded 17 responses. A significant amount of effort was

invested into obtaining data locally within New Zealand, but ultimately these efforts were unsuccessful.

Given the practical difficulties of obtaining organisational access for data collection, I opted to use the same samples to design the PSBS and to assess predictive validity. Once the design of the PSBS was completed, I used the same samples to assess the predictive validity of the PSBS. The design of the shortened scale was conducted in complete isolation from the follower outcome data that was used in the predictive validity studies. It would have been ideal to have different samples for scale design and predictive validity assessment. However, the scale performed well in two geographically distinct samples and showed stability in predicting follower outcomes across the samples. The same sample described in Study One of Chapter Three was used for the first predictive validity study that is described below.

Positive and negative leader behaviour measures

Supervisor behaviour scale (PSBS).

Participants completed an online version of the 16-item PSBS developed and tested in Chapter Three. The PSBS measures four positive leader behaviours which include clarifying, recognising, networking and ethical conduct. Example items were: My line manager or supervisor… "clearly explains the job responsibilities and task assignments of members" (clarifying), "praises effective performance by members of the work unit" (recognising), "joins social networks that include outsiders with useful information" (networking), and "opposes the use of unethical practices to improve performance" (ethical conduct). Responses to items on the PSBS were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*).

Leader social undermining.

A 13-item scale developed by Duffy et al. (2002) was used to rate the frequency of leader social undermining behaviour within the last 12 months. Example items were: How

often has your line manager or supervisor intentionally… "made you feel incompetent" and "put you down when you questioned work procedures". Responses to items on the supervisor undermining scale were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 6 (*Every day*). The leader social undermining scale has demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha = .97$) in published studies (Greenbaum et al., 2015).

Leader hypocrisy.

Leader hypocrisy was assessed using Dineen et al's (2006) four-item supervisor behavioural integrity scale. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the behavioural integrity of their supervisor. Sample items were: "I wish my supervisor would practise what he or she preaches more often" and "My supervisor can get away with doing things I can't". Responses to items on the supervisor behavioural integrity scale were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). All four items on the supervisor behavioural integrity scale were reverse coded to indicate leader hypocrisy. Extant work (Greenbaum et al., 2015) has demonstrated ample reliability ($\alpha = .85$).

Knowledge hiding.

Leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb was measured through a four-item subscale developed by Connelly et al. (2012). Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement with their supervisors' knowledge hiding behaviour through playing dumb in the last 12 months. Example items included: "pretended that he/she did not know, even though they did" and "pretended that they did not know what I or my co-worker were talking about". Responses on the playing dumb knowledge hiding subscale were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all*) to 7 (*To a very great extent*). Previous studies have shown adequate reliability ($\alpha = .73$ to $.84$) for the playing dumb subscale (Connelly et al., 2012).

Follower attitudes and performance measures

Satisfaction with supervisor.

A three-item subscale developed by Spector (1985) was used to assess follower satisfaction with their supervisor. Participants were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with their supervisor's general performance. Subscale items were: "My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job", "My supervisor is unfair to me" and "My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates". Responses on the satisfaction with supervisor subscale were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Disagree very much*) to 6 (*Agree very much*). The last two items were reverse coded before analyses. The satisfaction with supervisor subscale has demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha = .80$) in previous studies (Auerbach, McGowan, Ausberger, Strolin-Goltzman, & Schudrich, 2010).

Cognitive engagement.

Follower cognitive engagement was measured using five items from Rich et al.'s. (2010) three-dimension engagement scale. Participants were asked to indicate their level of cognitive engagement with their job. Sample items were: "At work, I am absorbed by my job" and "At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job". Responses on the cognitive engagement subscale were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Previous research (Rich et al., 2010) using the cognitive engagement subscale has reported adequate reliability ($\alpha = .89$).

Task proficiency.

From Griffin et al.'s. (2007) three-dimension performance scale, a three-item subscale measuring individual task proficiency was used to measure follower task performance. Participants were asked to rate how frequently they had engaged in task performance or job role behaviour in the past month. Items on the individual task proficiency scale were: How often have you engaged in the following behaviour in the past month…"carried out the core parts of your job well", "completed your core tasks well using the standard procedures" and "ensured your tasks were completed properly". Responses on the individual task proficiency

subscale were rated on Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Very little*) to 5 (*Frequently*). Past work (Griffin et al., 2007) using the individual task proficiency subscale demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha = .87$)

Bogus items.

To measure careless responding, four bogus questions developed by Meade and Craig (2012) were embedded into the questionnaire (e.g., *I am paid bi-weekly by leprechauns*). The four questions were distributed evenly throughout the questionnaire and responses were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*).

Demographic items.

Demographic data were collected using five items that required respondents to indicate their age range, sex, ethnicity, highest level of educational attainment and occupational sector. Responses were coded using categorical scales specific to each question. For example, race was coded as Asian, Black, Latino, Middle Eastern, White and Other.

Data Analysis

Measurement model.

A CFA was conducted to examine the full measurement model that included items assessing positive and negative leader behaviour, and follower outcomes. A CFA allows for an examination of the discriminant validity of the scales used in the current study. The 10-factor full measurement model was estimated using MPLUS 7.1 where each item was estimated on its respective latent variable. All non-estimated paths were set to zero by default. As shown in Table 15, the 10-factor full measurement model fit the data reasonably well ($\chi^2 = 1,698.23$, $df = 1,035$, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .94). All items in the model produced relatively high factor loadings ranging from .59 to .96. The 10-factor measurement model was then tested against three theoretically plausible models for best fit. The first alternative was a seven-factor model that combined supervisor undermining, leader

hypocrisy and knowledge hiding into one negative leader behaviour factor. Follower

satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement were also combined to form a single

job attitude factor. The second alternative model extended the first by combining clarifying,

recognising, networking, ethical conduct (PSBS) into a single positive leader behaviour

factor to create a four-factor model. Finally, a one-factor model that specified all the items on

to a single factor was created. Fit data from all four models is presented in Table 15. The

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to compare between the models for best fit

(Bozdogan, 1987; Mueller & Hancock, 2008). The 10-factor model fit the data significantly

better than all three of the alternative models.

Table 15

Fit indices for the hypothesised and alternative measurement models in Study One

	χ^2 *(df)*	AIC	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Hypothesised model					
10-factor model	1,698.23 (1035)	32,497.68	.94	.05	.04
Alternative models					
7-factor model	4,480.02 (1059)	35,663.49	.69	.12	.10
4-factor model	6,143.83 (1074)	37,586.90	.55	.13	.12
1-factor model	8,290.35 (1080)	40,161.18	.36	.15	.14

Results

Table 16 displays the correlations, means, and standard deviations of the variables. Internal consistency coefficients for each of the measurement scales are also presented in parentheses. All 10 variables demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha > = .82$). Positive and negative leader behaviours (independent variables) are moderately to strongly related to each other. The same is true for follower outcomes (dependent variables) in the study. Therefore, conducting a regression analyses in a SEM is appropriate because it allows the independent variables to covary with each other and, the dependent variables to covary with each other. While interpretation of the results becomes more complicated, it provides an accurate reflection of the amount of influence an independent variable has on a dependant variable given its relationship with other independent variables. Similarly, we are able to see how much unique variance is explained in a dependent variable when it is allowed to covary with similar variables.

Path analyses were then conducted to test the study hypotheses. Path analyses allow for a direct comparison within and between both models while accounting for the shared variance amongst all factors. Results for each model are shown in Figures 3 and 4. To assess the predictive strength of the PSBS, all three factors of the negative leader behaviour model were set to zero. The structural model provided adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 1,822.39$, $df = 1,044$, SRMR $= .07$, RMSEA $= .05$, TLI $= .93$). As shown in Table 17, when all four factors of the PSBS were simultaneously regressed on the three follower outcomes, significant pathways were detected between clarifying and cognitive engagement, recognising and satisfaction with supervisor, ethical conduct and satisfaction with supervisor and ethical conduct with task proficiency. Therefore, hypotheses 1b, 2a, 4a and 4c were supported. The PSBS model accounted for 61% , 10% and 6% of variance in follower satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement and task proficiency respectively.

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Table 16

Summary of descriptive statistics including bivariate correlations, reliability indices, means and standard deviations in Study One

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Positive leader behaviour										
1. Clarifying	(.90)									
2. Recognising	.53**	(.95)								
3. Networking	.42**	.59**	(.90)							
4. Ethical conduct	.54**	.65**	.46**	(.94)						
Negative leader behaviour										
5. Supervisor undermining	-.20**	-.37**	-.19**	-.43**	(.95)					
6. Leader hypocrisy	-.36**	-.53**	-.35**	-.64**	.54**	(.88)				
7. Leader knowledge hiding	-.27**	-.38**	-.19**	-.48**	.48**	.55**	(.92)			
Follower outcomes										
8. Satisfaction with supervisor	.45**	.66**	.41**	.70**	-.66**	-.69**	-.55**	(.82)		
9. Cognitive engagement	.29**	.25**	.16**	.24**	-.20	-.14*	-.09	.14*	(.94)	
10. Task proficiency	.15**	.05	.05	.17**	-.05	-.07	-.17**	.18**	.39**	(.90)
MEAN	3.41	3.09	2.92	3.42	1.36	2.45	1.88	4.65	3.93	4.56
SD	.97	1.20	1.09	1.17	.59	1.14	1.33	1.28	.78	.62

Note. $*p < .05.$ $**p < .001.$
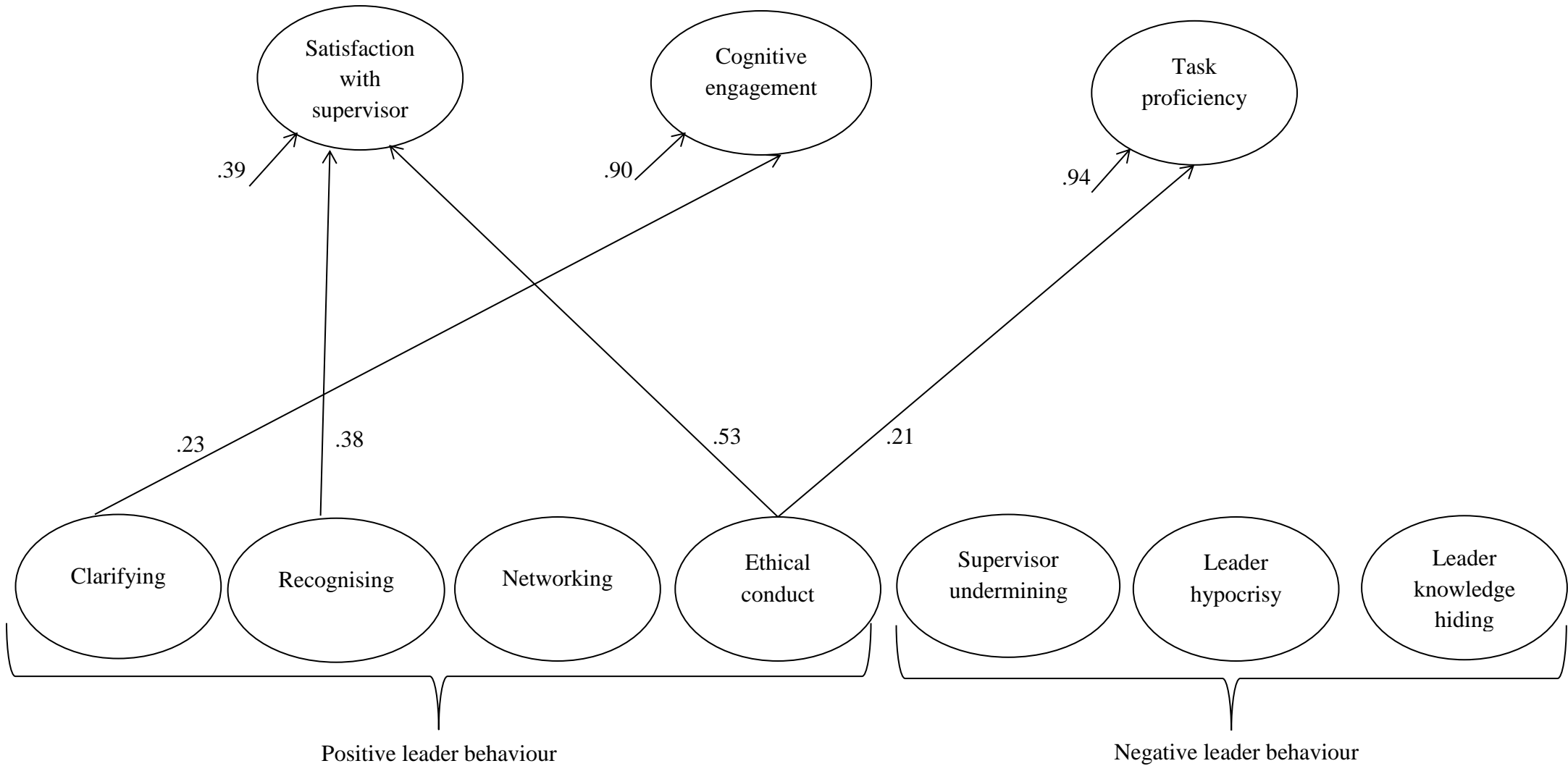
Figure 3. Standardised coefficients for a model using positive (PSBS) leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study One. Only significant paths are shown
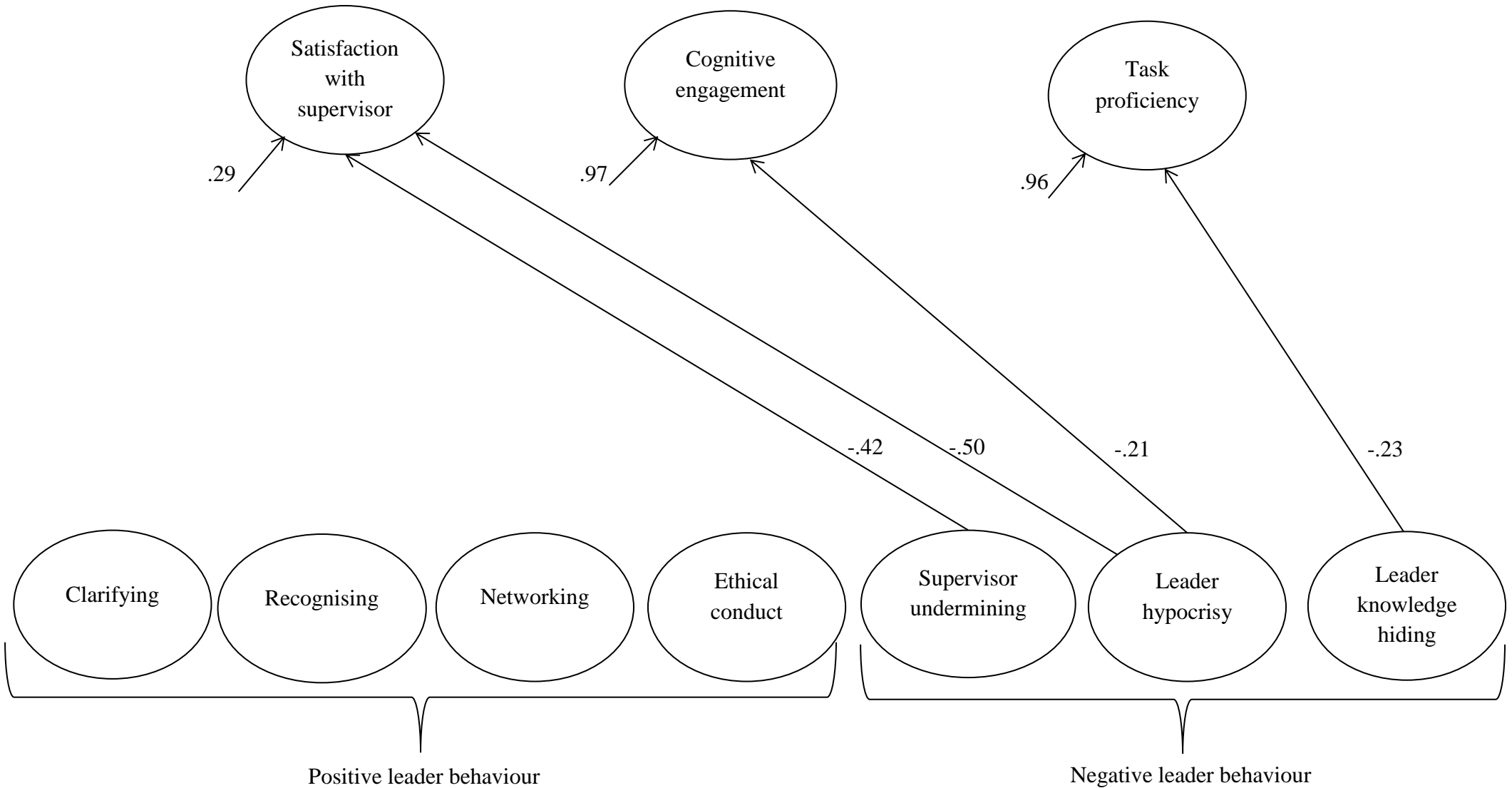
Figure 4. Standardised coefficients for a model using negative leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study One. Only significant paths are shown

Table 17

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for the positive (PSBS) leader behaviour model predicting follower outcomes in Study One

Variable	Satisfaction with supervisor			Cognitive engagement			Task proficiency		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Clarifying	-.00	.07	-.03	.17	.08	.23*	.12	.09	.17
Recognising	.39	.08	.38**	.06	.09	.10	-.08	.04	-.15
Networking	-.10	.07	-.05	-.00	.08	-.00	-.03	.04	-.06
Ethical conduct	.61	.08	.53**	.04	.08	.05	.13	.04	.21*
R^2			.61**			.10*			.06

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .001$.

A model testing the predictive strength of negative leader behaviour was then specified. All four factors of the PSBS were set to zero. The structural model provided adequate fit (χ^2 = 1,796.99, df = 1,047, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .05, TLI = .93). As shown in Table 18, when all three factors of the negative leader behaviour model were simultaneously regressed on the three follower outcomes, significant positive pathways were identified between supervisor undermining and satisfaction with supervisor, leader hypocrisy and satisfaction with supervisor, leader hypocrisy and cognitive engagement, knowledge hiding through playing dumb and task proficiency. Therefore, hypotheses 5a, 6a, 6b and 7c were supported. The negative leader behaviour model accounted for a significant 71% of variance in follower satisfaction with supervisor. The model did not explain variance in follower cognitive engagement or task proficiency.

Following the suggestions of DeShong, Grant and Mullins-Sweatt (2015) and Kline (2011), a model that freely estimated all paths was evaluated. This method allows for a simultaneous comparison of all the factors within the PSBS and the negative leader behaviour models. Results for this model are shown in Figure 5. The structural model provided adequate fit (χ^2 = 1,698.23, df = 1,035, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .94). As shown in Table 19, regarding the PSBS, significant positive pathways were identified between clarifying and cognitive engagement, recognising and satisfaction with supervisor and, ethical conduct and satisfaction with supervisor. Regarding the negative leader behaviour model, significant negative pathways were detected between supervisor undermining and satisfaction with supervisor, leader hypocrisy and satisfaction with supervisor, playing dumb hiding and task proficiency. These results provide mixed support for hypothesis 8.

Table 18

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for the negative leader behaviour model predicting follower outcomes in Study One

| Variable	Satisfaction with Supervisor			Cognitive Engagement			Task Proficiency		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Supervisor undermining	-.78	.06	-.42**	.11	.07	.11	.05	.08	.06
Leader hypocrisy	-.58	.07	-.50**	-.14	.09	-.21*	.01	.09	.02
Leader knowledge hiding	-.03	.08	-.04	-.01	.08	-.03	-.10	.09	-.23*
R^2			.71**			.03			.04

Note. $*p < .05. **p < .001.$
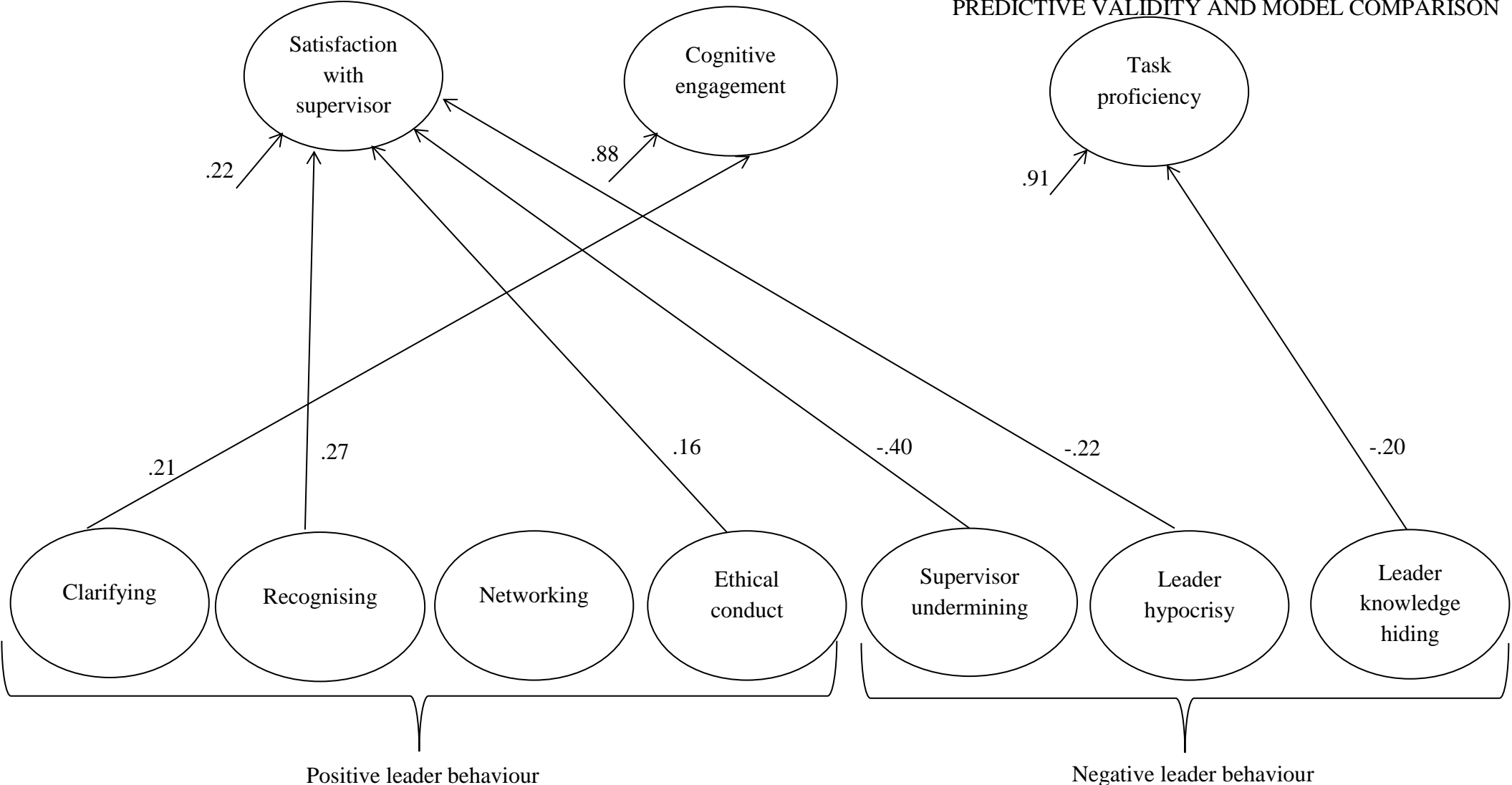
Figure 5. Standardised coefficients for a model using positive (PSBS) and negative leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study One. Only significant paths are shown

Table 19

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for the combined positive (PSBS) and negative models predicting follower outcomes in Study One

Variable	Satisfaction with supervisor			Cognitive engagement			Task proficiency		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Clarifying	.10	.06	.08	.16	.08	.21*	.11	.09	.17
Recognising	.29	.06	.27**	-.08	.09	.12	-.09	.09	-.15
Networking	-.06	.04	-.05	-.01	.08	-.01	-.02	.08	-.03
Ethical Conduct	.19	.08	.16	.09	.10	.13	.13	.11	.22
Supervisor undermining	-.73	.05	-.40**	.11	.07	.11	.04	.08	.05
Leader hypocrisy	-.25	.08	-.22*	.03	.11	.05	.08	.12	.15
Leader knowledge hiding	-.02	.06	-.03	-.01	.07	-.02	-.09	.08	-.20*
R^2			.78**			.12*			.09*

*Note. *p < .05. **p < .001.*

Although supervisor undermining had the highest effect size in predicting satisfaction with supervisor, the effect sizes of recognising and clarifying in predicting satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement were comparable to those of the negative leader behaviours. The combined positive and negative leader behaviour model accounted for a significant 78% of variance in satisfaction with supervisor, 12% of variance in cognitive engagement, and 9% of variance in task proficiency.

Summary of Study One

An examination of the predictive strength of the PSBS model alone shows that only five of the 12 hypotheses were supported. Leader networking behaviour did not predict any of the follower outcomes. With respect to the negative behaviour model only, four of the nine hypotheses were supported. When examined together, both positive and negative leader behaviours were strong predictors of follower satisfaction with supervisor but less so with cognitive engagement and task proficiency. From the positive leader behaviour model, recognising and ethical leadership were significant predictors of satisfaction with supervisor. This suggests that leader behaviour that endorses commendable follower performance combined with ethical conduct that is consistent and predictable are key predictors of follower satisfaction with supervisor. On the other hand, undermining behaviour combined with leader hypocrisy was shown to predict reduced follower satisfaction with the leader. This suggests that the negative leader behaviours described above should be mitigated or avoided because they impair follower performance.

Study Two

The mixed results from Study One warrant further examination using a geographically distant sample to assess the stability of the findings. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is added as a dependent variable to measure a different

dimension of follower performance. The same hypotheses presented in Study One are tested in Study Two with the exception of OCB.

Method

Participants and Procedure

The same sample described in Study Three of Chapter Three was used for the first predictive validity study that is described below.

Measures

The same measures described in Study One were used to collect data in Study Two. However, OCB was added as a follower performance measure in Study Two.

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

Spector's (2010) 10-item short version of the organisational behaviour checklist (OCB-C) was used to measure citizenship behaviour. Participants were asked how frequently they performed OCBs in their current role. Sample items were: How often have you done each of the following things on your present job…"helped new employees get oriented to the job" and "gave up meal and other breaks to complete work". Responses on the OCB-C were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Every day*).

Data Analysis

Measurement model.

A CFA was conducted to examine the full measurement model which included items assessing positive and negative leader behaviours, and follower outcomes. A CFA allows for an examination of the discriminant validity of the scales used in the current study. The 11-factor full measurement model was estimated using MPLUS 7.1 where each item was estimated on its respective latent variable. All non-estimated paths were set to zero by default. As shown in Table 20, the 11-factor full measurement model fit the data reasonably well ($\chi^2 = 2,487.66$, *df* = 1,484, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .93). All items in the

model produced relatively high factor loadings ranging from .56 to .96. The 11-factor measurement model was then tested against three theoretically plausible models for best fit. The first alternative was a seven-factor model which combined supervisor undermining, leader hypocrisy and knowledge hiding into one negative leader behaviour factor. Follower satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement were combined to form a single job attitude factor and, task proficiency and OCB were also combined to create a single job performance factor. Similar to Study One, the second alternative model extended the first by combining clarifying, recognising, networking, ethical conduct (PSBS) into a single leader positive leader behaviour factor to create a four-factor model. Finally, a one-factor model which specified all the items on to a single factor was created. Fit data from all four models is presented in Table 20. The AIC was again used to compare between the models for best fit (Bozdogan, 1987; Mueller & Hancock, 2008). The 11-factor model fit the data significantly better than all three of the alternative models.

Results

Table 21 displays the correlations, means, and standard deviations of the variables in Study Two. Reliability estimates for each variable are also presented in parentheses. The majority of variables demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha > = .90$) with the exception of satisfaction with supervisor that had adequate reliability ($\alpha = .77$). Regarding positive leader behaviours (PSBS), clarifying was significantly and positively related to all four follower outcomes. Recognising and clarifying were significantly and positively related to three follower outcomes with the exception of task proficiency. Lastly, ethical conduct was significantly and positively related to follower satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement and task proficiency. Regarding negative leader behaviours, leader hypocrisy was negatively related to follower satisfaction with supervisor and cognitive engagement. Supervisor undermining was negatively and significantly related to follower satisfaction with

supervisor. Knowledge hiding through playing dumb was negatively and significantly related to follower satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement and task proficiency. Surprisingly, both supervisor undermining and knowledge hiding through playing dumb were positively and significantly related to follower OCB.

Table 20

Fit indices for the hypothesised and alternative measurement models in Study Two

	χ^2 *(df)*	AIC	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Hypothesised model					
11-factor model	2,487.66 (1484)	41,297.45	.93	.05	.04
Alternative models					
7-factor model	5,228.17 (1518)	44,552.39	.75	.14	.09
4-factor model	6,421.09 (1533)	45,974.26	.67	.15	.10
1-factor model	11,084.48 (1539)	52,046.92	.31	.17	.14

Table 21

Bivariate correlations, reliability indices, means and standard deviations in Study Two

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Positive behaviour											
1. Clarifying	(.93)										
2. Recognising	.73**	(.95)									
3. Networking	.59**	.65**	(.92)								
4. Ethical Conduct	.77**	.72**	.58**	(.93)							
Negative behaviour											
5. Supervisor undermining	-.38**	-.37**	-.21**	-.42**	(.97)						
6. Leader hypocrisy	-.52**	-.55**	-.28**	-.63**	.53**	(.93)					
7. Leader knowledge hiding	-.36**	-.36**	-.18**	-.46**	.53**	.65**	(.94)				
Follower outcomes											
8. Satisfaction with supervisor	.56**	.57**	.36**	.62**	-.56**	-.75**	-.60**	(.77)			
9. Cognitive engagement	.34**	.24**	.18**	.25**	-.05	-.13*	-.16**	.17**	(.95)		
10. Task proficiency	.11*	.06	.02	.11*	-.06	-.25	-.11*	.10	.39**	(.90)	
11. OCB	.16**	.17**	.20**	.05	.16**	.09	.19**	-.11*	.22*	.19**	(.91)
MEAN	3.62	3.36	3.24	3.65	1.43	2.60	2.10	4.70	4.15	4.61	3.19
SD	1.04	1.12	1.11	1.06	.77	1.30	1.50	1.22	.81	.55	.88

Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$.

Path analyses conducted in Study One were replicated to assess whether the positive or negative leader behaviour model was a stronger predictor of follower attitudes and performance. Results of model tests are shown in Figures 6 and 7. First, to test hypotheses 1 to 4 on the predictive strength of the positive leader behaviours, all three factors of the negative leader behaviours were set to zero. The structural model provided moderate fit ($\chi^2 = 2,625.58$, $df = 1,496$, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .05, TLI = .92). As shown in Table 22, when all four factors of the positive leader beahviour model were simultaneously regressed on the four follower outcomes, significant positive pathways were detected between clarifying and cognitive engagement, recognising and satisfaction with supervisor, networking and OCB, ethical conduct and satisfaction with supervisor. Therefore, hypotheses 1b, 2a, 3d, and 4a were supported. Opposite to study hypotheses, significant negative pathways were detected between networking and satisfaction with supervisor, ethical conduct and OCB. Therefore hypotheses 3a and 4d were contradicted. The PSBS model accounted for a significant amount of variance 48% , 13% and 9% in follower satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement and OCB respectively. The model did not explain significant variance in follower task proficiency.

A model testing the predictive strength of negative leader behaviour was also specified with all four factors of the positive leader behaviour model were set to zero. The structural model provided moderate fit ($\chi^2 = 2,552.96$, $df = 1,500$, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .05, TLI = .93). As shown in Table 23, when all three factors of the negative leader behaviour model were simultaneously regressed on the four follower outcomes, significant negative pathways were identified between supervisor undermining and satisfaction with supervisor, leader hypocrisy and satisfaction with supervisor, knowledge hiding through playing dumb and task proficiency. Thus, hypotheses 5a, 6a, and 7c were supported.

Figure 6. Standardised coefficients for a model using positive (PSBS) leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study Two. Only significant paths are shown.

Figure 7. Standardised coefficients for a model using negative leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study Two. Only significant paths are shown

Table 22

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for the positive (PSBS) leader behaviour model predicting follower outcomes in Study Two

Variable	Satisfaction with supervisor			Cognitive engagement			Task proficiency			OCB		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	B	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Clarifying	.01	.15	.02	.38	.13	.47**	.05	.12	.10	.16	.07	.18
Recognising	.21	.09	.28*	-.03	.10	-.03	-.02	.11	-.04	.15	.07	.17
Networking	-.16	.09	-.22*	-.02	.09	-.03	-.03	.10	-.07	.19	.06	.23*
Ethical conduct	.46	.15	.59**	-.08	.13	-.09	.05	.11	.10	-.38	.07	-.41*
R^2			.48**			.13*			.02			.09*

*Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .001$.

Table 23

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for the negative leader behaviour model predicting follower outcomes in Study Two

Variable	Satisfaction with supervisor			Cognitive engagement			Task proficiency			OCB		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Supervisor undermining	-.25	.08	-.23*	.10	.08	.09	-.01	.10	-.02	.15	.07	.12
Leader hypocrisy	-.40	.08	-.62**	-.08	.09	-.11	.03	.08	.08	-.08	.09	-.10
Leader knowledge hiding	-.05	.08	-.09	-.08	.09	-.13	-.06	.08	-.17*	.12	.09	.19*
R^2			.71**			.04			.02			.04

Note. $*p < .05.$ $**p < .001.$

Opposite to the study hypothesis, positive pathways were detected between knowledge hiding through playing dumb and OCB. Therefore, hypothesis 7d was contradicted. The negative leader behaviour model accounted for a significant 71% of variance in follower satisfaction with supervisor. The model did not explain significant variance in follower cognitive engagement, task proficiency and OCB.

Following the individual assessment of the positive and negative leader behaviour models in predicting follower outcomes, a model that freely estimated all paths was evaluated (DeShong et al., 2015). Results are shown in Figure 8. The structural model provided adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 2{,}487.66$, $df = 1{,}484$, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .04, TLI = .93). As shown in Table 24, significant positive pathways were identified between clarifying and cognitive engagement, as well as recognising and OCB. Regarding negative leader behaviour, significant negative pathways were detected between supervisor undermining and satisfaction with supervisor, leader hypocrisy and satisfaction with supervisor, knowledge hiding through playing dumb and cognitive engagement, knowledge hiding through playing dumb and task proficiency. Surprisingly, significant positive pathways were detected between supervisor undermining and OCB, as well as leader hypocrisy and task proficiency. The combined positive and negative leader behaviour model accounted for a significant 73% of variance in satisfaction with supervisor, 16% of variance in cognitive engagement, and 13% of variance in OCB. The model did not explain significant variance in follower task proficiency.

Summary of Study Two

An assessment of the predictive strength of the positive leader behaviour model, shows that six of the 16 hypotheses were supported. Three significant pathways which had been detected in Study One were confirmed in Study Two.
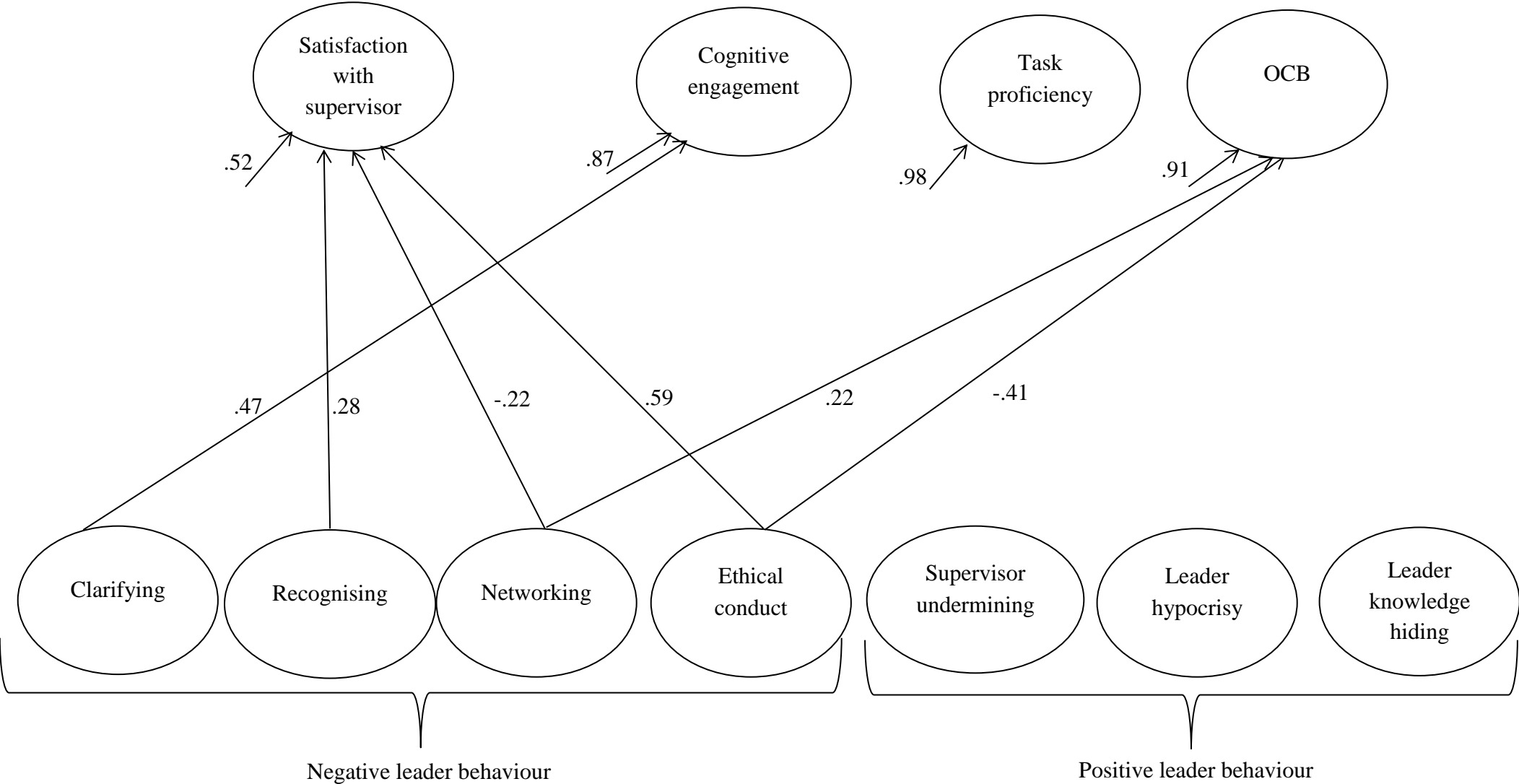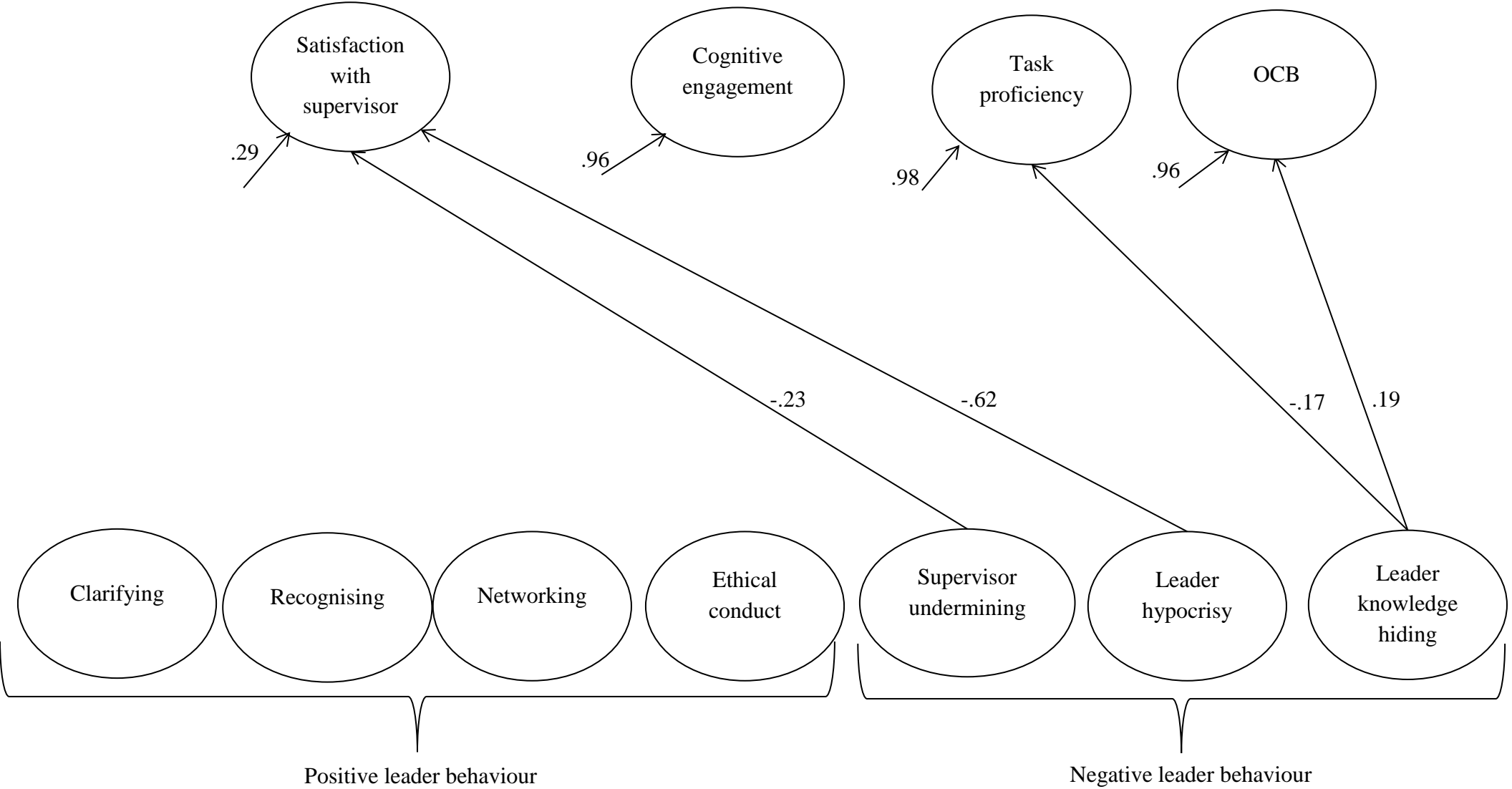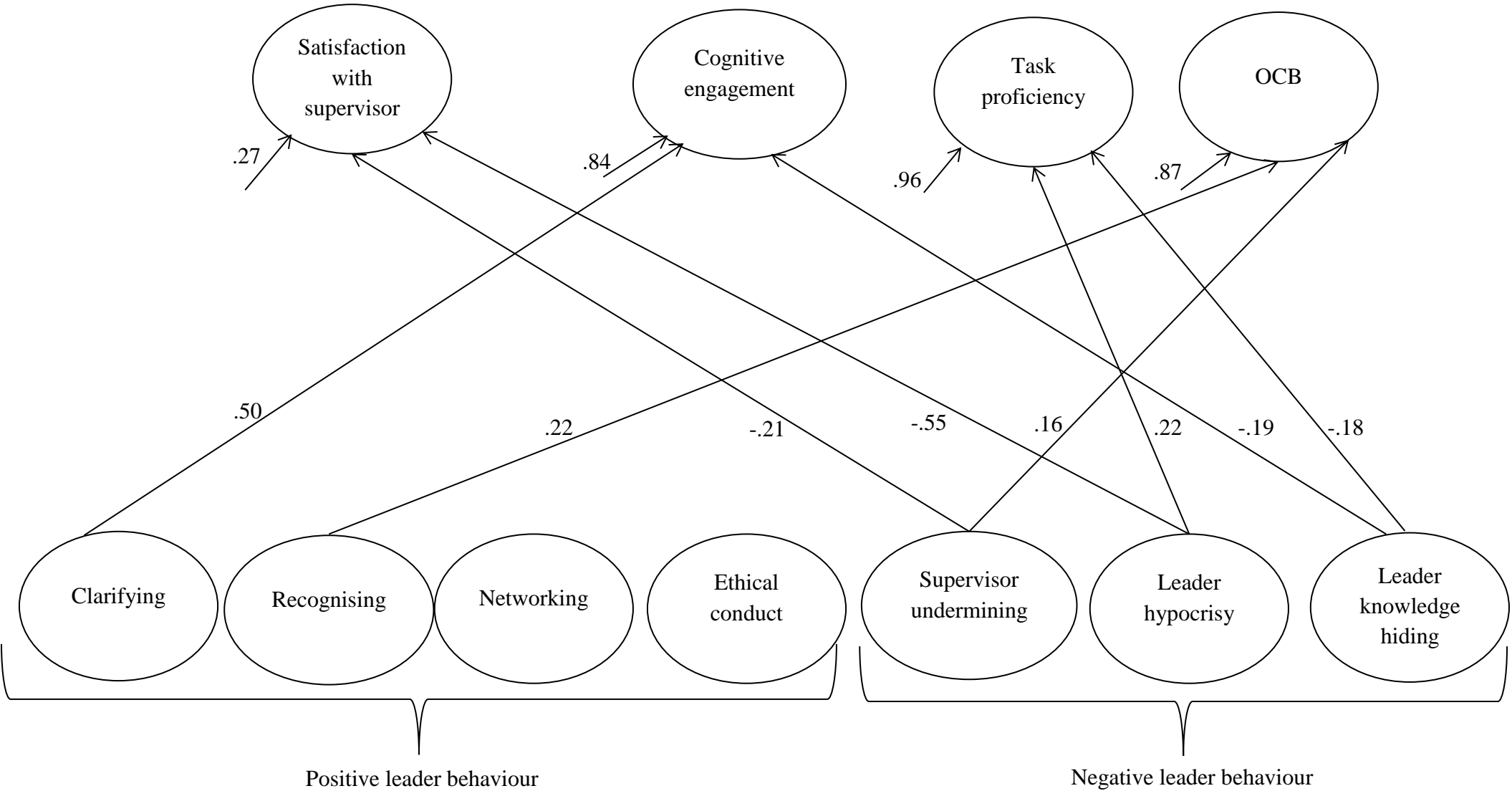
Figure 8. Standardised coefficients for a model using positive (PSBS) and negative leader behaviours to predict follower outcomes in Study Two. Only significant paths are shown

Table 24

Summary of simple regression analyses conducted in MPLUS 7.1 for positive and negative leader behaviour models predicting follower outcomes in Study Two

Variable	Satisfaction with supervisor			Cognitive engagement			Task proficiency			OCB		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	B	B	SE B	β
Clarifying	.05	.08	.06	.41	.13	.50**	.06	.12	.11	.16	.11	.18
Recognising	.06	.08	.08	.00	.10	.01	-.00	.11	-.00	.20	.10	.22*
Networking	.04	.06	.06	-.05	.10	-.06	-.05	.09	-.09	.11	.09	.12
Ethical Conduct	-.03	.10	-.04	-.04	.16	-.05	.08	.13	.15	-.18	.13	-.19
Supervisor undermining	-.24	.08	-.21*	.17	.08	.15	-.00	.11	-.00	.21	.07	.16*
Leader hypocrisy	-.36	.09	-.55**	.10	.10	.14	.09	.11	.22*	.04	.11	.05
Leader knowledge hiding	-.06	.07	-.11	-.11	.09	-.19*	-.06	.08	-.18*	.08	.08	.13
R^2			.73**			.16**			.04			.13**

Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$.

A comparison of the hypotheses supported in Study One and Study Two is provided in Tables 25 and 26. Three new and significant pathways (clarifying-OCB, Networking-OCB, Ethical conduct-OCB) were detected in Study Two. With respect to the negative leader behaviour model, seven of the 12 hypotheses were supported by the data. Three significant pathways which had been detected in Study One were replicated in Study Two. Also, four new and significant pathways (supervisor undermining-OCB, playing dumb-satisfaction with supervisor, playing dumb-cognitive engagement, playing dumb-OCB) were detected in Study Two. When examined together (see Table 27), both positive and negative leader behaviours were strong predictors of follower satisfaction with supervisor and OCB. Fewer leader behaviours predicted cognitive engagement and task proficiency. Interestingly, the results suggest that followers react to some forms of negative leader behaviour by increasing task and citizenship behaviours.

Summary of the positive and negative leader behaviour models

As illustrated in Table 28, there are differences in the quality of the positive, negative and combined models across the two studies. The AIC is used to assess model superiority in both studies. As mentioned in chapter three, the AIC allows for best model selection because it estimates the quality of each model, relative to each of the other models. Given a set of candidate models with different variables for the same set of data, the preferred model is the one with the minimum AIC value (Bozdogan, 1987). The AIC values from study one and two show that the negative leader behaviour model is superior to the positive leader behaviour model in predicting follower outcomes. However, across the two studies, a combined model that freely estimated all the paths from the positive and negative leader behaviour models is shown to be superior to the individual models.

Table 29 provides a summarised comparison of the strength between the positive and negative leader behaviour models in predicting follower job attitudes and performance.

Table 25

Summary of positive (PSBS) leader behaviour hypotheses in Study One and Two

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependant Variable	Study One	Study Two
1a.	Clarifying	Satisfaction with supervisor		
1b.	Clarifying	Cognitive engagement	✓	✓
1c.	Clarifying	Task proficiency		
1d.	Clarifying	OCB*		
2a.	Recognising	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
2b.	Recognising	Cognitive engagement		
2c.	Recognising	Task proficiency		
2d.	Recognising	OCB*		
3a	Networking	Satisfaction with supervisor		✓#
3b.	Networking	Cognitive engagement		
3c.	Networking	Task proficiency		
3d.	Networking	OCB*		✓
4a.	Ethical conduct	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
4b.	Ethical conduct	Cognitive engagement		
4c.	Ethical conduct	Task proficiency	✓	
4d.	Ethical conduct	OCB*		✓#

Note. * Data on follower OCB was only collected in Study Two. # Findings contradicted proposed hypothesis.

Table 26

Summary of negative leader behaviour hypotheses in Study One and Two

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Study One	Study Two
5a.	Supervisor undermining	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
5b.	Supervisor undermining	Cognitive engagement		
5c.	Supervisor undermining	Task proficiency		
5d.	Supervisor undermining	OCB*		
6a.	Leader hypocrisy	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
6b.	Leader hypocrisy	Cognitive engagement	✓	
6c.	Leader hypocrisy	Task proficiency		
6d.	Leader hypocrisy	OCB*		
7a	Leader knowledge hiding	Satisfaction with supervisor		
7b.	Leader knowledge hiding	Cognitive engagement		
7c.	Leader knowledge hiding	Task proficiency	✓	✓
7d.	Leader knowledge hiding	OCB*		✓[#]

Note. * Data on follower OCB was only collected in Study Two. [#] Findings contradicted proposed hypothesis.

Table 27

Summary of the paths identified by the positive and negative models in Study One and Two

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Study One	Study Two
Clarifying	Cognitive engagement	✓	✓
Recognising	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	
Recognising	OCB*		✓
Supervisor undermining	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
Supervisor undermining	OCB*		✓[#]
Leader hypocrisy	Satisfaction with supervisor	✓	✓
Leader hypocrisy	Task proficiency		✓[#]
Leader knowledge hiding	Cognitive engagement		✓
Leader knowledge hiding	Task proficiency	✓	✓

Note. * Data on follower OCB was only collected in Study Two. [#] Findings contradicted proposed hypothesis.

Table 28

Statistical analysis of model superiority in Study One and Two

	χ^2 *(df)*	AIC	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Study1					
Positive (PSBS) model	1,822.38 (1,044)	32,623.19	.93	.07	.05
Negative behaviour model	1,796.99 (1,047)	32,583.21	.93	.06	.05
Combined model	1,698.23 (1,035)	32,497.68	.94	.05	.04
Study 2					
Positive (PSBS) model	2,625.58 (1,496)	41,440.78	.92	.07	.05
Negative behaviour model	2,552.96 (1,500)	41,341.42	.93	.07	.05
Combined model	2,487.66 (1,484)	41,297.45	.93	.05	.04

Table 29

R-square indices as indicators of predictive accuracy in Study One and Two

	Satisfaction with supervisor	Cognitive engagement	Task proficiency	OCB
Study1				
Positive (PSBS) model	.61***	.10**	.06	N/A
Negative behaviour model	.71***	.03	.04	N/A
Combined model	.78***	.12**	.09*	N/A
Study 2				
Positive (PSBS) model	.48***	.13**	.02	.088*
Negative behaviour model	.71***	.04	.02	.044
Combined model	.73***	.16***	.04	.13***

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

The r-square values of the follower outcomes provide an indication of the predictive power of the both models as well as the combined model.

Across both studies, all three models explain significant variance in follower satisfaction with supervisor. The combined model explains the most variance (78% & 73%), followed by the negative leader behaviour model (72% & 71%), and the positive leader behaviour model (61% & 48%). Regarding follower cognitive engagement, the combined model explains the most variance (12% & 16%) followed by the positive leader behaviour model (10% & 13%). Only the combined model in study one explained significant variance in follower task proficiency (9%) but this was not replicated in study two. Lastly, regarding follower OCB which was only measured in study two, the combined model explained 13% of variance followed by the negative leader behaviour model at 9%.

Overall, the results suggest that the combined model is the best model for predicting follower attitudes and performance. The AIC values indicate that it is a superior model when compared to the individual models. In terms of model quality, the combined model is then followed by the negative and positive leader behaviour models respectively. The r-square values also suggest that the predictive accuracy for each of the follower outcomes is strongest with the combined model. However, compared to the negative leader behaviour model, the positive leader behaviour model is stronger in predicting follower cognitive engagement and OCB.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Development of a short positive leader behaviour scale

It is reasonable to suggest that the four PSBS factors represent what followers in office-based settings regard to be the most important positive leader behaviours. Followers have access to limited information and based on what they observe, the four PSBS behaviours resonate strongly. As suggested by the figure/ground notion of attribution theory (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Weiner, 1985), because followers have limited information, they possess a less refined understanding of the range of positive behaviours required for a leader to be effective in her or his role. While leaders may engage in other (unseen) positive behaviours, followers have a limited view of the leader's positive behavioural repertoire and can only reliably identify and rate behaviour that influences their attitudes, performance and well-being. Even though follower observation of a leader is limited, it remains relevant because the leader depends on individuals under her or his supervision to achieve both personal and organisational objectives. In line with this, research has demonstrated that perceptions of positive leader behaviour are linked to leader and work unit performance (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004), and the findings from this research also show that positive leader behaviour is linked to increased follower satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement, and OCB.

Leader support is a work feature that has a significant impact on follower attitudes, performance and well-being. Research has found links between leader support and follower outcomes such as job satisfaction (Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006), role clarity (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009), in-role and extra-role performance (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006), job strain (Rooney, Gottlieb, & Newby, 2009), and turnover intentions. Results from the PSBS design and evaluation studies provide a nuanced understanding of leader support. The four factors of the PSBS (clarifying, recognising, networking, and ethical conduct)

represent distinct but interrelated behaviours that office-based employees can use to reliably rate their leaders on supportive behaviour.

Researchers have mainly used a modified subscale of the survey of perceived organisational support (SPOS) to collect data on perceived leader support (DeConinck, 2010; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). In using the modified SPOS, researchers replace the word *organisation* with the term *supervisor* to create a measure of leader support. It is important to note that the modified scale measures rater levels of agreement or disagreement with the expression of leader support and it does not measure the frequency of that support. The PSBS represents an alternative measure of leader support. It measures the frequency of specific positive behaviours that fall under the broader leader support category.

Other researchers (Brotheridge & Lee, 2006; Fullarton, Fuller-Tyszkiewicz, & von Treuer, 2014; Gottlieb, Maitland, & Shera, 2013; Sakurai & Jex, 2012) have measured leader support using a subscale from the Moos' work environment scale (WES) (Moos, 1981). The WES supervisor support subscale is a proprietary instrument that measures the frequency of general leader supportive actions (e.g., willingness to listen to personal problems, easy to talk to). The PSBS differs from the WES subscale in that it measures specific positive behaviours associated with leader support. In turn, these positive leader behaviours are related to improved follower attitudes and performance.

The relevance of the four PSBS behaviours for followers is best explained through conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002). COR theory "posits that people seek to obtain, retain, and protect resources and that stress occurs when resources are threatened with loss or lost or when individuals fail to gain resources after substantive resource investment" (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 312). The PSBS measures instrumental leader

behaviours that can be leveraged by followers to meet desirable personal and organisational goals. Moreover, in keeping with Hobfoll's (2002) propositions on the role of resources, the four PSBS leader behaviours represent resources that are part of a followers stress resistance armoury. That is, followers can employ these leader provided resources to buffer or mitigate the effects of stressors at work. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) put it neatly when they state that, "a high quality relationship with one's supervisor may alleviate the influence of job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional and physical demands) on job strain, since leaders' appreciation and support puts demands in another perspective" (p. 315). In sum, followers may rank the four PSBS behaviours highly because they facilitate goal achievement and because they provide coping resources against negative circumstances.

What follows in the next section is a discussion of each of the four PSBS behaviours and why they appear to resonate with followers. Role theory posits that each social role is a set of rights, duties, expectations, norms and behaviours that a person has to face and fulfil (Merton, 1957). Thus, supervisor clarifying behaviour simplifies duties, expectations and norms for followers. Seminal work on role theory has shown a link between the lack of role clarity and follower attempts at coping (Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Rizzo et al., 1970). Attempts at coping were done at the expense of productive work behaviours. Therefore, a leader who is high in clarifying behaviour is likely to increase follower role clarity. She or he achieves this by clearly and proactively explaining work assignments and responsibilities to followers.

Role clarity at work is a key leader provided resource because it allows followers to focus their energy on role performance. Self-determination theory also suggests that the need for competence is a motivator for followers (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In providing role clarity, a leader addresses the followers need for competence as she or he is clear about what needs to be accomplished. Meta-analytic research on correlates of role clarity has shown it to be

negatively linked to organisational commitment, job involvement, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with promotion, boundary spanning (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983) and job performance (Tubre & Collins, 2000). A recent meta-analysis has demonstrated a positive association between role ambiguity and depression (Schmidt, Roesler, Kusserow, & Rau, 2014). Together, these findings suggest that leader clarifying behaviour would be beneficial to followers because it is associated with improved work performance, promotes positive job attitudes and mitigates the effects of stress and anxiety.

Similar to Podsakoff, Todor, Grover and Huber's (1984) contingent reward construct, leader recognising behaviour is said to occur when a leader provides a follower with a non-monetary reward (i.e., praise, compliment, positive feedback) for commendable performance. Recognising behaviour is an important leader provided resources because it explicitly reinforces desired follower performance. Followers identified recognising as a relevant leader behaviour because it is an unambiguous acknowledgement of exemplary role performance. Applied to SDT, leader recognising behaviour provides followers with positive feedback on their competence and mastery of the role (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Efficacious role performance by a follower may eventually earn her or him increased autonomy.

Research also suggests that employees are especially responsive to recognition that is timely, specific, frequent and accurate (K. Luthans, 2000; Wiley & Kowske, 2012). This implies that leaders are best placed to provide tailored recognition because of their frequent interaction with followers. Wiley and Kowske (2012) reported that 81% of employees who were satisfied with the amount of recognition they received viewed their superiors as effective when compared to only 30% of under-recognised employees who viewed their leaders as effective. Other studies have shown that recognition of employees by leaders is a precursor of improved work performance (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; McGregor, 1960; Vroom, 1964). Luthans and Stajkovic (1999) found that performance

increased by 15% in the service sector when superiors recognised employee efforts. Luthans (2000) further suggests that employees place a premium on personalised recognition for outstanding work as a critical aspect of their compensation. Other researchers have found a positive link between recognition and on-the-job learning (Lippit, 1997). A survey of public sector organisations in Canada and the United States found links between employee recognition and commitment, satisfaction and retention (Saunderson, 2004). In sum, it can be argued that leader recognising behaviour motivates future job performance, learning, commitment, and intent to stay in followers.

The emergence of networking as a salient leader provided resource corroborates the findings from Douglas and Ammeter's (2004) work on leader political skill and its relationship with leader performance. Using a sample of school personnel, the authors asked staff members to rate school administrators and supervisors on the four dimensions of political skill; social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005). Factor analysis only supported a two factor model comprising networking ability and interpersonal influence (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). Of the two factors, networking ability was found to be the sole predictor of leader performance. Findings from the current research suggest that leader networking is a salient behaviour generalisable to multiple occupational sectors.

Ibarra and Hunter (2007), contend that leaders engage in networking behaviour for three main reasons. First, leaders engage in *operational networking* to build relationships with people who can provide tangible support and assistance to accomplish their work. Second, leaders participate in *personal networking* to develop social capital by developing personal and professional contacts. The leader establishes contacts with internal and external stakeholders to find support for her or his ideas. Lastly, leaders engage in *strategic*

networking when their work involves envisioning future opportunities and challenges for themselves and the organisation.

From a follower's perspective, a leader proficient at operational and personal networking serves as a resource with access to more resources (e.g., funding, materials, technical assistance) when needed. A leader who is adept at networking builds and maintains a wide network of contacts among peers and outsiders who can provide resources and assistance. In so doing, the leader accrues social capital which followers can then access to accomplish their own tasks. Social capital is defined as ''the actual and potential resources individuals obtain from knowing others, being part of a social network with them, or merely from being known to them and having a good reputation'' (R. A. Baron & Markman, 2000, p. 107). Therefore, the more social capital a leader acquires, the more followers view them as a useful resource because they can convert their leader's social capital into tangible benefits. It is likely that followers of leaders with significant social capital experience less bureaucracy in trying to access additional resources when the need arises.

Another explanation for the salience of networking behaviour as rated by followers is that a networked leader is likely to be an informed individual with a broad perspective on work-related topics. A leader high in networking attends professional events to meet outsiders with different thinking styles and perspectives. Research suggests that leader networking and the accumulation of social capital may lead to a reduction in transactions costs, better information flows and knowledge creation (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) improved creativity (Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003), and enhanced organisational performance (Acquaah, 2007; Leana & Pil, 2006). Contrasting the proactive behaviour of networking, research has identified leader inaction (Beer & Eisenstat, 1996; Burdett, 1999) and perpetuation of ideas (Barr, Stimpert, & Huff, 1992; Zeffane, 1996) as sources of resistance to organisational change. Thus, it can be argued that a leader high in networking

behaviour is a useful resource for followers. The leader's wider exposure to a variety of ideas is likely to make them more receptive to follower initiatives. Followers are more likely to suggest innovative solutions to organisational problems because they are reasonably confident that the leader will give their ideas due consideration.

Work done by Brown, Trevino and Harrison (2005) provides insight into the emergence of ethical leadership as a leader provided resource. The authors defined ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (p. 120). This definition is rooted in social learning theory which proposes that individual conduct is influenced by attractive behavioural models (Bandura, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

For leaders to be considered attractive ethical models, they must appear to be credible and legitimate (M. E. Brown & Trevino, 2006). That is, followers must view a leader's behaviour as being honest, altruistic, fair and considerate of others (D. M. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009). When applied to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), a leader high in ethical conduct models behaviour that followers ought to engage in because it is obligatory, beneficial and fair to multiple stakeholders (i.e., employees, vendors, customers, general public). Perceptions of a just and fair leader are particularly important to a follower because they represent consistent and predictable behaviour (Scandura, 1997). Followers can then reliably predict how the leader will respond to their ethical conduct.

Increasing the salience of ethical messages has been shown to be an effective tool for amplifying desired behaviour in a complex organisational context (Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). Therefore, by simply drawing attention to instances of ethical and unethical behaviour, leaders are perceived as being high in ethical conduct (M. E. Brown et al., 2005).

A leader who highlights ethical and unethical behaviour as it occurs provides real-time guidance to her or his followers of what is and what is not appropriate behaviour.

Meta-analytic research has shown that perceived behavioural integrity of managers is positively associated with employee satisfaction with the job, the leader, organisational commitment, and affect towards the organisation (Davis & Rothstein, 2006). Findings from a multi-level study found a negative relationship between both top (senior) management and supervisory ethical leadership with employee group-level deviance, and a positive relationship with employee group-level organisational citizenship behaviour (D. M. Mayer et al., 2009). Taken together, leader ethical conduct is a resource which provides behavioural clarity for ethically challenging situations.

Even if employees had all the relevant information on leader behaviour, there is no assurance that it would be factored into their perceptions of positive leader behaviour. In the same way that organisations have advocated for leader behaviours that promote organisational effectiveness (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Bryman, 2007; Hui, Chiu, Yu, Cheng, & Tse, 2007), followers are concerned with leader actions that facilitate or enhance their performance as followers (J. M. Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). This may be a reason for the non-emergence of change-oriented behaviour as a factor in the PSBS. Change-oriented behaviour primarily addresses the objectives of the organisation and is distally located from the followers concerns. This suggests that followers attach less importance to leader behaviours that are not directly relevant to their roles. Therefore, they are more likely to identify leader actions as positive when they addresses their personal needs for clarification and direction, recognition and praise, access to networks and resources, and provide an ethical exemplar of predictable behaviour.

The non-identification of a salient change-oriented behaviour was unexpected. While it is conceivable that followers do not identify innovation, envisioning and advocating for

change as positive leader behaviour that is within their purview, it still fails to explain the non-emergence of the fourth change-oriented behaviour of facilitating collective learning. It is reasonable to assume that a leader who is skilful at helping followers understand the causes of work unit performance or who encourages the sharing of new knowledge amongst followers would be viewed positively. It is probable that followers view facilitating collective learning positively but attach less importance to it when compared to the four behaviours of the PSBS. More research with diverse samples may extend or reduce the proposed model of positive supervisor behaviour.

Potential applications of the PSBS

The PSBS is a short and practical measure of the frequency of positive leader behaviour in office-based organisational contexts. The PSBS draws on a longer, theoretically derived measure of managerial practices (MPS) (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). As noted earlier, the MPS is a lengthy instrument that requires rater training and an extended period of systematic observation for raters to distinguish behaviour. The PSBS measures fewer behaviours that raters (followers) can distinguish without training or systematic observation. Followers are able to distinguish and rate the positive leader behaviours in the PSBS because they are relevant to their own attitudes, performance and well-being at work. Across the three studies used to design the PSBS, the scale showed excellent psychometric properties.

The PSBS represents pragmatic science in that it addresses the needs of both academics and practitioners. Contemporary quantitative methods were used to develop a scale with sound psychometric properties. From an applied perspective, a concise measure of positive leader behaviour such as the PSBS is an attractive option. A recent report on employee engagement in the United Kingdom (Frost, Lawrence, Dhaliwal, & Bridges, 2014) found that 60% of organisations conducted some type of employee survey annually. Eighteen percent surveyed more than once a year and 4% surveyed even more frequently. Clearly,

organisations are regularly surveying their employees for various reasons. To increase the likelihood of collaboration with organisations that have a host of other priorities, academics are encouraged to use short survey instruments that minimise disruptions to respondents' normal work functions. Also, when positive leader behaviour is not the sole variable under study, a short scale like the PSBS will allow researchers to include this construct in larger multivariate studies without making the survey questionnaire too long (Nenkov, Morrin, Schwartz, Ward, & Hulland, 2008; G. T. Smith, McCarthy, & Anderson, 2000). Not only do longer questionnaires take more time to complete, they have tend to have more missing data and higher refusal rates (Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, & Smith, 2002).

In the three studies that describe the design and psychometric evaluation of the PSBS, recommendations regarding the shortening of scales by organisational research methods scholars are incorporated. These include preserving the content coverage of each specific factor, assessing for adequate internal reliability, assessing for adequate construct validity and scale invariance in geographically distinct samples (G. T. Smith et al., 2000; Stanton et al., 2002). However, it should be noted that this is the first iteration of a scale that seeks to measure the frequency of positive leader behaviour by followers in organisational settings. The PSBS can be used in more rigorous research designs (i.e., multi-level, multi-wave, longitudinal studies) to increase confidence in the content and construct validity of the scale.

While the PSBS measures the frequency of behaviour on a continuum from low to high, it does not provide a categorical yes/no assessment of positive leader behaviour. Users of the PSBS are advised to exercise caution in interpreting factor scores in relation to each other. For example, a leader who does not frequently engage in recognising behaviour is not necessarily devoid of the behaviour. Recognising or any of the other behaviours in the PSBS may just be underdeveloped behaviours in her or his portfolio.

Concluding Comments

The PSBS is a measure developed for use by employees who report to a particular supervisor or line manager. Each dimension of the PSBS is scaled on a continuum from low to high to measure how much a leader engages in positive behaviour. Since employees only observe a limited set of their leader's actions, the PSBS measures only behaviours they can reliably distinguish and rate. It is designed for use by followers with no specific rater training or leader observation experience. The PSBS is largely dependent on the personal knowledge and general experience of followers to produce reliable ratings of the frequency of positive leader behaviour.

Comparing Scales of Positive and Negative Supervisor Behaviour on

Predicting Follower Attitudes and Performance

Summary of Research and Model Fit

In Chapter Four, two studies examined the validity of the PSBS and a negative supervisor scale in predicting follower outcomes. Using structural equation modelling (SEM), both scales were first assessed for best fit. Following that, both scales were examined for their predictive power as measured by variance explained. Positive leader behaviour was measured through the PSBS designed in Chapter Three. Negative leader behaviour was measured using a composite scale of three leader mistreatment behaviours: undermining, hypocrisy, and knowledge hiding. Follower outcomes were measured through satisfaction with the leader and cognitive engagement (attitudes), as well as task proficiency and OCB (performance).

First, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to establish model superiority based on the Akaike Information Criterion (Mueller & Hancock, 2008). Thereafter, path analysis was used to compare the PSBS and the negative leader behaviour scales on their ability to predict follower attitudes and performance. In addition, a combined model that included both the PSBS and negative leader behaviours was assessed for fit and predictive power. To the best of my knowledge, the current research represents the first use of path analysis to compare the predictive power of positive and negative leader behaviour on follower outcomes. Results showed that the negative leader behaviour scale was superior to the PSBS across both studies. However, a combined model incorporating the PSBS and negative leader behaviour displayed even better fit indices. This suggests that followers' satisfaction with the leader, cognitive engagement, task proficiency and OCB are best predicted by a combination of positive and negative leader behaviours.

Contributions to research and theory

The next section is separated into major, minor, and other findings to discuss the results of the current research. Major findings represent hypothesised outcomes that were supported in Study One and replicated in Study Two. Minor findings represent hypothesised but unstable outcomes that were supported in only one study. Other findings represent outcomes that were not examined in Study One or that conflicted with the proposed hypothesis. Only significant associations between leader behaviours and follower outcomes that explained a significant amount of variance in the latter are discussed. A summary of the results is presented before the findings are discussed.

Major findings

Results from the positive leader behaviour model showed that the model explained significant variance in predicting follower satisfaction with the leader ($R^2 > .48$) across both studies. Specifically, leader recognising and ethical conduct positively predicted follower satisfaction with the leader. The positive leader model also explained significant variance in predicting follower cognitive engagement ($R^2 > .10$). In the positive leader behaviour model, leader clarifying positively predicted follower cognitive engagement. Findings from the negative leader behaviour model explained significant variance in predicting follower satisfaction with the leader ($R^2 = .71$) across both studies. In the negative leader behaviour model, leader undermining and hypocrisy negatively predicted follower satisfaction with the leader. The combined positive and negative leader behaviour model explained significant variance in predicting follower satisfaction with the leader ($R^2 > .73$) and cognitive engagement ($R^2 > .12$). In the combined leader behaviour model, leader undermining and hypocrisy negatively predicted follower satisfaction with the leader, and leader clarifying positively predicted follower cognitive engagement.

Theoretical Contribution

According to Adams and Buetow (2014), "theoretical concepts inhabit the emergent zone and can, in many ways, be seen as the product or "pay-load" of the enquiry (p. 101). The findings summarised above suggest that positive leader behaviour which recognises others and serves as an ethical exemplar, positively influences follower attitudinal outcomes. COR theory posits that people are motivated to gain, maintain, and safeguard resources they value or that serve as a means to objects or events they value (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2002). An application of COR theory to current findings suggests that positive leader behaviours are instrumental resources that followers use to attain valued objectives (Hobfoll, 1989). In a recent article that sought to clarify the conflation of resource content and relationship quality in supervisor-subordinate relationships, Lemmon et al., (2016) identified three types of supervisor-provided resources; task, social and money resources. Relevant to the current thesis, the authors identify task resources as valued entities that aid employees in completing work assignments (Lemmon et al., 2016). This conceptualisation of resources is consistent with Halbesleben and colleagues (2014) who defined resources "as anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals" (p. 1338).

The current thesis makes a theoretical contribution through the identification of specific behaviours that serve as supervisor-provided resources. By taking a more nuanced approach to studying supervisor-provided resources, this thesis contributes to the literature by identifying specific leader behaviours that are observable and relevant to followers. I argue that followers rely on instrumental and constructive resources (Lemmon et al., 2016; Shin, Taylor, & Seo, 2012; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009) such as clarifying, recognising, networking and ethical conduct from leaders to successfully complete their tasks. Thus, when a leader recognises commendable performance, clarifies expectations, or displays predictable ethical conduct, she or he provides followers with a resource (service

and information) for attaining valued personal and organisational goals. The implication here is that followers have a need to fulfil a range of work outcomes some of which include satisfaction with supervisor, cognitive engagement and task proficiency. The behaviours encapsulated in the PSBS represent supervisor-provided resources that promote the attainment of those follower outcomes.

The current thesis contributes to the dearth of studies about the specific behaviours or resources that leaders provide to their followers. Numerous studies have investigated the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers (Bauer & Green, 1996; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Martinko, Sikora, & Harvey, 2012; O'Donnell et al., 2012) while insufficient attention has been given to the resource content of this relationship. Resource content refers to that which is exchanged between the leader and the follower to enhance attitudinal and performance outcomes (Lemmon et al., 2016).

The emergence of leader clarifying behaviour as a predictor of cognitive engagement attitudes suggests that clarifying is a resource that facilitates the formation and maintenance of a social exchange relationship between a leader and a follower (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). Leaders and followers exist in an exchange relationship characterised by implicit reciprocal exchanges in which one entity supplies a benefit, which may also be conceived of as a resource, and the other responds in kind (Molm, 2003; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988). The exchange relationship is maintained by a series of interactions that generate obligations between the two parties (Emerson, 1976). Applied to the current research, when a leader engages in clarifying behaviour, she or he does so to benefit a follower who in turn reciprocates through increased cognitive engagement at work. Leader clarifying behaviour empowers followers because it reduces role ambiguity and communicates work expectations. Armed with this knowledge, followers are able to immerse themselves into their work because they know the standard of work expected of them.

Furthermore, reciprocal behaviour may lead to gain spirals because leaders are likely to engage in more positive behaviours towards followers who respond favourably to early exchanges (Hobfoll, 2011). According to Molm, Takahashi and Peterson (2000), reciprocal exchanges increase the level of trust and commitment between leaders and followers.

Affective events theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) also provides some insight on the supervisor behaviour and follower outcome relationship. In AET, the authors theorise that factors in the organisational environment create uplifts or hassles that evoke emotional reactions, which in turn influence attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The uplifts referenced in AET can be conceived of as resources that arouse positive emotions or attitudes in individuals. When leaders engage in positive behaviour, they provide an uplifting resource that is manifest in positive follower attitudes. In the current research, positive leader behaviours such as clarifying, recognising and ethical conduct represent uplifting resources that are associated with increased follower satisfaction with the leader. As demonstrated in the current thesis, leader recognising behaviour enables improved follower perceptions of satisfaction with the leader. Through the recognition of commendable performance by a follower, a leader engenders employee psychological safety by endorsing it. Leader ethical conduct was also found to enable increased satisfaction with a supervisor. This finding supports the assertion that the leader's ethical conduct provides a suitable guide for followers when they are confronted with ethically challenging situations. The leader's conduct provides clarity about the ethical standards expected of followers. Findings from the current thesis corroborate those of Dasborough (2006) and suggest that positive leader behaviours could be sources of positive and emotional affect in followers.

The influence of leader undermining and hypocrisy on follower satisfaction can also be explained through COR theory. A key tenet of COR theory states that, when confronted with stressful circumstances, individuals endeavour to minimise resource loss (Hobfoll,

1989). Negative leader behaviours represent organisational stressors that threaten or cause the depletion of an employee's resources. Thus, when followers experience leader undermining or hypocrisy, they are likely to report reduced satisfaction with the leader because they will have to expend accumulated resources to cope with the negative behaviour. Furthermore, the rare occurrence of negative behaviours increases their salience (Pratto & John, 1991). Only a few instances of leader undermining or hypocrisy are required to have a strong negative effect on follower satisfaction with the leader (Baumeister et al., 2001).

Overall, results of the comparison between positive and negative leader behaviour models showed that the latter was the superior model. The negative leader behaviour model fit the data better and explained greater variance in predicting follower attitudes and performance. This finding aligns well with the first principle of COR theory that suggests that resource loss is weighted more heavily than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2011). Hobfoll (1989; 2002) argues that the acquisition and facilitation of resources is a significant motivator for most people. Therefore, when negative leader behaviour occurs and it threatens followers' resources or causes the loss of resources, it receives heightened attention and energy. Thus, when leaders perform undermining or hypocritical acts, these negative behaviours are disproportionately more salient to followers than their positive counterparts.

The salience of negative leader behaviour can also be explained through negativity bias which states that, in most instances, negative events are more striking, powerful, prevailing and effectual than positive events (Rozin & Royzman, 2001). Previous findings suggest that good behaviour is common and expected whilst bad behaviour is unusual and revealing (Hamilton & Zanna, 1972). Therefore, for an observer, it is more important to know about the bad behaviour. Followers are likely to be more attuned to negative leader behaviour because it is adaptive and requires a response (Baumeister & Vohs,

2007). Positive leader behaviour on other hand can be enjoyed passively without a change in the status quo (Baumeister et al., 2001).

The results discussed above also corroborate findings from multiple research streams that have demonstrated the salience of negative behaviour over its positive counterpart. Similar results of bad (negative) being stronger than good (positive) have been reported in marital relationship (Gottman, 1994; McCarthy, 1999), social support (Abbey, Abramis, & Caplan, 1985; Abbey, Andrews, & Halman, 1995), information processing (Abele, 1985; Baumeister et al., 2001) and impression formation research (Peeters & Czapinski, 1990; Peeters, 2002).

Minor findings

Having discussed major findings from the current research, I now move on to minor findings. Minor findings represent hypothesised predictions that were supported in only one of the two studies. Similar to the previous section, only relationships between a predictor variable and a criterion variable that explained a significant amount of variance in the latter are discussed. An examination of the positive and negative leader behaviours alone does not reveal any minor findings but when both models were combined, leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb negatively predicted follower task proficiency while explaining a significant 9% of variance in Study One. In Study Two, the combined model explained a significant amount of variance in predicting cognitive engagement ($R^2 = .16$). A closer examination of supervisor behaviour shows that knowledge hiding through playing dumb negatively predicted follower cognitive engagement.

A possible reason for the non-significance of the relationship between leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb and task proficiency could be the addition of OCB as an additional measure of employee performance. The variance in follower task proficiency explained by knowledge hiding through playing dumb in Study One, was likely reduced to

non-significance by the addition of OCB as a fourth dependent variable. However, a cross-study comparison of both combined models showed that the model including OCB fit the data better and was more parsimonious. Non-significance of the leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb and follower task proficiency relationship in Study Two may be indicative of a weak and unstable finding in Study One. Also from the combined model, the only hypothesis which was supported in Study Two but not Study One was between leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb and follower cognitive engagement. An examination of the negative behaviour model alone did not reveal a significant relationship between leader knowledge hiding through playing dumb and follower cognitive engagement in Study One and Two. Thus, the observed significant relationship in Study Two is likely to be spurious (Babbie, 2015).

Other findings

Since OCB was only measured in Study Two as an additional measure of follower performance to provide a broader view of performance, it does not fit neatly into any of the preceding categories. A chi-square difference test was conducted to compare the model with OCB against a model without OCB. The goal was to investigate whether the addition of a fourth dependent variable had an adverse impact on the model. Results show that the model with OCB was significantly different (χ^2 (449) = 793.95, $p < .001$) and actually fit the data better than the model without OCB.

Also, to test whether the addition of OCB caused the previously identified relationship between leader recognising and follower satisfaction to become insignificant in Study Two, a first model was run with OCB as a dependent variable and a second was run without OCB. Neither of the models supported the significant relationship identified in Study One suggesting that the earlier finding was unstable or that there is an unobserved difference in the samples. Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendation to assess for possible moderators

that may explain weak or inconsistent relationships between predictor (leader) and criterion (follower) variables may be beneficial for future research.

However, results from Study Two provide some important insights. The positive leader behaviour model explained a significant 9% of variance in predicting OCB. In agreement with the hypothesis, leader networking was shown to be a positive predictor of follower OCB. However, when the combined leader behaviour model was assessed, none of the relationships identified by the positive leader behaviour model were significant. The combined model explained a significant 13% of variance in OCB but it was leader recognising and undermining that were positive predictors of OCB. The positive link between supervisor undermining and follower OCB in the combined model was contradictory to the proposed hypothesis. Recent work has shown that in the short-term, employees experiencing high levels of bullying combined with high levels of perceived organisational support tend to display a higher level of performance (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013). This may be one explanation for why followers respond to leader undermining with increased OCBs. Followers may be engaging in more OCBs as a political tactic to ingratiate themselves with the leader in the hope that it will reduce undermining behaviour (Harvey et al., 2007; Perrewe et al., 2005).

Practical implications

Results of the comparison between the positive and negative leader behaviour models raise some important practical implications. The negative leader model was found to be superior to its positive counterpart. This suggests that, for organisations with limited resources, focusing on leader training and development to mitigate or eliminate negative behaviours such as undermining and hypocrisy is likely to be more efficient than emphasising positive behaviours geared toward improving follower attitudes and performance. The assertion here is that the quality of leader-follower relationships depends more on not doing

bad things than on doing good things (Baumeister et al., 2001). Research has shown that negative leader behaviour has a negative effect on follower satisfaction (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006) voice climate (Frazier & Bowler, 2015), job performance (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007) organisational commitment and self-efficacy (Duffy et al., 2002), and a positive link to turnover intentions (Greenbaum et al., 2015). The question then is; how do organisations or practitioners respond to negative leader behaviour?

Using a decision-tree approach, an organisation can begin by deciding whether replacement or corrective training should be arranged for the leader. In his book, *The No Asshole Rule: Building a Civilised Workplace and Surviving One That Isn't,* Robert Sutton (2007) discusses the difficulty posed by functionally effective individuals that consistently display socially negative behaviours. The decision to terminate employment for high performing but socially negative leaders may be a difficult one for an organisation if replacements of similar ability and expertise are in short supply. Therefore, the more likely alternative is to enrol the leader in a corrective training program. If the leader is educable, a training program that is economical and specifically targeted at resolving the leader's negative behaviour can be implemented. Howell et al. (1990) argue for symptom specificity concerning the training solution. In symptom specificity, the authors suggest that the chosen training program should not spill over to unrelated and possibly desirable aspects of the leader's behaviour.

Leadership coaching is one training method that can be used to remedy negative leader behaviour (Day, 2000; Ely et al., 2010). According to the Center of Creative Leadership, leadership coaching is broadly defined as a formal arrangement "in which the coachee and coach collaborate to assess and understand the coachee and his or her leadership developmental tasks, to challenge current constraints while exploring new possibilities, and to ensure accountability and support for reaching goals and sustaining development" (Ting &

Hart, 2004, p. 116). It is tailored one-on-one counselling between a coach and a client that enables the latter to become a more effective leader. Results from Ladegard and Gjerde (2014) have shown that coaching is associated with leader role efficacy and trust in followers. More importantly, they found a significant relationship between increased trust in followers and reduced turnover intentions amongst followers. It is important to note however, that one-on-one leadership coaching is expensive and organisations generally make it available to key personnel who are difficult or expensive to replace. Some organisations try to control coaching related costs by developing internal leadership coaches (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999). The benefits of internal coaching are that there are no extra costs of hiring external professionals, internal coaches understand the culture and processes of the organisation, and they are able to interact with the coachee over a longer period with multiple opportunities for feedback. However, a disadvantage of internal coaches is that they cannot easily separate themselves from the politics of the organisation. That is, their knowledge of the coachee and her or his organisational power may increase the internal coaches' reluctance to challenge and develop the coachee (Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 2016).

Osatuke, Moore, Ward, Dyrenforth and Belton (2009) have developed a remedial program that organisations can use to address negative leader behaviour. Known as the Civility, Respect, and Work Engagement in the Workforce (CREW) initiative, the authors argue that civility is a core aspect of organisational climate with a strong influence on organisational outcomes. Essentially, CREW is client-centred counselling where practitioners assist clients in developing and executing intervention strategies (Osatuke et al., 2009). Practitioners provide work groups that include the leader with resources and interpersonal support to address organisational problems. The work group is expected to define the problem behaviour, discuss the sources and effects of the problem behaviour, and develop effective solutions to the problem behaviour.

A study evaluating the impact of CREW showed that the intervention improved collegiality amongst health care employees (Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011). Using a longitudinal design, the authors identified significant improvements in co-worker civility, leader incivility, respect, cynicism, job satisfaction, management trust and absences in eight CREW intervention units versus 33 contrast units. In another study, researchers assessed the sustainability of a CREW intervention (Leiter, Day, Oore, & Spence Laschinger, 2012). The authors found that workplace civility, leader incivility and distress continued to improve after the CREW intervention. Gains in workplace attitudes (i.e., organisational commitment, job satisfaction) were sustained but absenteeism returned to pre-intervention levels.

It is notable that both studies were conducted on samples in the health care sector where dysfunctional behaviour (e.g., bullying) has been shown to be most prevalent (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Quine, 2001). The effectiveness of CREW interventions is yet to be assessed on samples from different occupational sectors. Even though the CREW intervention was developed in the Canadian health care sector, it can be applied to workgroups in other occupational sectors experiencing civility, respect and engagement problems. CREW seeks to develop a climate of psychological safety (Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2012; Law, Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2011). Such a culture does not tolerate negative behaviour by a supervisor or rank members. This allows the workgroup to resolve their problems amicably. Extant findings on the utility of CREW are encouraging and they suggest that it could be a suitable intervention model for negative leader behaviour.

Another initiative that has experienced some success in dealing with negative leader behaviour is the Restorative Workplaces Practices Program (RWPP). Developed by the Nova Scotia Government and General Employees Union (NSGEU) in 2010, the program has been recognised as an effective intervention for repairing workplace relations damaged by negative leader behaviours (NSGEU, 2013). One of the goals of the RWPP is to develop clear and

consistent rules and interventions for acceptable and unacceptable workplace interactions. The program offers perpetrators of negative actions with an opportunity to rectify their behaviour and to provide assurances that it will stop. Built in to the RWPP is the Empowering Positive Action to Heal and Integrate Change (EMPATHIC) program that is specifically geared towards individuals who have or think they have engaged in negative behaviour. Unlike CREW, the RWPP is yet to be evaluated for its effectiveness as an intervention strategy. However, extant research on restorative justice programs in general suggests that they are useful in dealing with negative behaviour and building pro-social workplace relationships (Hutchinson, 2009).

Organisations can also take proactive steps to reduce negative leader behaviour. Sutton (2007) recommends that organisations create zero tolerance cultures to combat negative behaviour. Skiba and Peterson (1999) refer to zero tolerance cultures as principles and policies that punish all specific offenses severely no matter how minor. The term emerged out of US state and federal drug enforcement policies that were implemented in the 1980s. Zero tolerance for negative behaviours can be made known to current employees, new hires and applicants for vacancies within the organisation. Negative leader behaviour in any form should be exposed and made known to the perpetrator. To be taken seriously, negative behaviour cannot not be excused for any individual, including high performing, senior or influential employees (Cleary, Hunt, Walter, & Robertson, 2009). The University of Louisville is one tertiary organisation that makes a clear effort to create a zero tolerance climate (Porter, 2010). While their policy primarily focuses on workplace-bullying, it can be applied to a variety of negative behaviours. The University also has demonstrated commitment from senior management about behaviour that is and is not acceptable. Furthermore, they provide awareness campaigns for all employees and encourage open door policies. At present, no evaluation of the universities zero tolerance program has been

conducted to assess its effectiveness. However, governments in New Zealand (Lee, 2001), Australia (Wand & Coulson, 2006) and the United Kingdom (Winstanley & Whittington, 2004) have adopted the zero tolerance approach in work settings.

In the current research, a hybrid model combining both types of leader behaviour demonstrated better fit indices than the negative leader behaviour model alone, and explained greater variance in predicting follower outcomes. Thus, depending on the availability of resources, it would be beneficial for organisations to provide leader training and development that mitigates or eliminates the enactment of negative behaviour and also enhances positive behaviour to improve follower attitudes and performance. Findings from the current research show that followers view positive leader behaviours as resources they can use to experience success at work. Organisations should coach their leaders to perform behaviours that are beneficial to followers. For example, the Maximizing Your Leadership Potential (MLP) program offered by the Centre for Creative Leadership (CCL) provides leaders with the knowledge to maximise their strengths and to manage or develop their weaknesses (Gentry, 2016). The stated goals of the MLP are to train leaders about the difference between being an individual contributor and leading others, showing leaders how to achieve organisational results through others, teaching leaders how to deal with conflict, and providing leaders with the tools to be problem solvers. Given its primary aims, the MLP provides a suitable forum for educating new and experienced managers on positive and negative leader behaviours to maximise their potential.

Hutchinson (2009) developed a typology of approaches that is suitable for understanding the abovementioned strategies for pre-empting or reacting to negative supervisor behaviour. Leader or supervisor coaching can be classified as a corrective approach that seeks to modify negative behaviour. CREW and RWPP represent restorative approaches that are organisationally-focused. These programs are non-punitive responses to

shared concerns that seek to foster pro-social work behaviour. Lastly, a zero-tolerance culture is a regulatory approach that is organisationally-focused. It uses reporting policies and procedures to enforce standards of behaviour. Work by Cooper-Thomas and colleagues (2013) has provided recommendations for anti-bullying initiatives with useful ratings of effectiveness. The three most effective organisation strategies include developing a workplace bullying policy, encouraging open and respectful communication between people, and developing a clear procedure for handling complaints about bullying.

In sum, behaviours on the PSBS can be used by leader-provided resources or levers for improving follower attitudes and performance. By engaging in these behaviours, leaders are also likely to minimise employee stress. When leaders enact the PSBS behaviours, they effectively provide task resources to remedy deficiencies in the attitudes and performance of followers. The current research provides managers with a prescriptive list of behaviours that decades of research have shown to be effective in improving employee attitudes and performance. Lemmon and colleagues put it aptly when they state that , "supervisors would be wise to place priority on acquiring and dispensing task resources, as employees demonstrated their willingness to improve performance and reduce stress when such resources are available" (Lemmon et al., 2016, p. 17).

Limitations

This research contains some limitations which warrant further discussion. First, data for the studies were collected using self-report cross-sectional designs. The ubiquity of self-report instruments for the purposes of data collection in organisational and management research is well-known (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Spector, 1994). Chan (2009) argues that the use of self-report instruments to measure attitudes and cognitions about work is a reasonable use of the method. Self-reports adequately capture people's perceptions of their jobs. Thus, the use of self-report instruments to collect follower perceptions of satisfaction

with supervisor and cognitive engagement is appropriate. However, the use of self-reports to collect data on the objective job environment has been criticised because it is susceptible to impression management and social desirability (Frese & Zapf, 1994; Spector, 1992). In this study, followers are asked to provide self-ratings of task proficiency and OCB. At issue here is whether followers can accurately assess their own performance given what is known about social desirability effects (e.g., Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004). Although the use of self-report measures remains a controversial practice, many organisational scholars have used it as a suitable data collection method (Griffin et al., 2007; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Spector et al., 2010; Spector & Fox, 2010).

A cross-sectional research design "entails the collection of data on a sample of cases an at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association" (Bryman, 2016, p. 53). Cross-sectional research designs are largely inexpensive and less time-consuming when compared to other designs. However, disadvantages of cross-sectional research designs are that they do not control for differences over time and study samples are not guaranteed to be adequately representative of the population under study.

Even though the expense, time and effort required to carry out longitudinal research would have been a challenging proposition, several attempts were made to collect data from local firms using a repeated measures design but were ultimately unsuccessful. Organisations provided a variety of explanations for their refusal to participate. Reasons ranged from an already over-surveyed workforce to not wanting to use productive work time to complete non-work related tasks. Nevertheless, the collection of supervisor behaviour ratings from geographically distinct samples using a cross-sectional design allowed for the examination of measurement invariance (Widaman et al., 2010) in the PSBS. Results discussed in Chapter

Three show that the PSBS performed adequately as a measure of leader behaviour in both New Zealand and United States-based samples.

Common method bias (CMB) is another potential limitation of the studies in this thesis. As explained by Meade, Watson and Kroustalis (2007) "CMB refers to the degree to which correlations are altered (inflated) due to a methods effect" (p. 1). In other words, CMB refers to bias which may create false internal consistency because the data is collected from a common source (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). In a seminal review on CMBs in behavioural research, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) identified potential sources of CMB which they categorised as measurement context effects (e.g., predictor and criterion variables measured at the same time, same location, or using the same method), common rater effects (e.g., consistency motif, social desirability, leniency error), item characteristic effects (e.g., common scale formats, common scale anchors, item ambiguity), and item context effects (e.g., scale length, item priming effects, intermixing).

Of the four potential sources of CMB, measurement context effects represent the single largest limitation of these studies. In the current thesis, data on leader behaviour and follower outcomes were collected at the same time using an online questionnaire. When data on both the predictor and criterion variables are collected at the same time and location, this may inflate the covariance between the constructs because they are co-existing in the respondent's short-term memory (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Systematic covariance may also be influenced by respondents adopting a strategy to retrieve specific and general memories or to fill in missing information (Conway & Lance, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

To mitigate CMB concerns related to measurement context effects, procedural remedies recommended by Podsakoff and colleagues (2003; 2012) and Conway and Lance (2010), were implemented. Psychological separation between variables in the questionnaire

was used such that measurement of predictor variables was not closely connected to the measurement of criterion variables. Respondents were clearly informed when the target of evaluation was leader behaviour (predictor) and when it was follower attitudes or performance (criterion). While all the data were collected using the same medium (online), Podsakoff et al.'s (2003; 2012) recommendation to provide respondents with assurances of anonymity was implemented.

Related to measurement context effects, common rater effects were also identified as sources of CMB that present limitations in this thesis. Specifically, the consistency motif and social desirability may influence the item response process. The consistency motif or effect denotes the respondents' tendencies to maintain uniformity in their responses to survey questions (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). Social desirability refers to survey participants' inclinations to respond to items in a socially acceptable manner as opposed to their authentic views (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964; Ganster, Hennessey, & Luthans, 1983). Podsakoff et al. (2003; 2012) also suggest that the desire to maintain consistency is particularly strong when participants attempt to increase accuracy in the face of uncertainty. Participants are thus more likely to edit responses to items so that their overall responses appear consistent and rational. For example, followers self-rating as high in task proficiency are also likely to do the same for OCB.

To mitigate the influence of the consistency motif and social desirability, instructions were clearly provided before the presentation of each predictor and criterion scale. Respondents were asked to provide responses based on their honest thoughts and feelings on each construct and not to allow any extraneous information to influence their ratings. At the start of the survey questionnaire, participants were provided with a written assurance that their anonymity would be protected by the researcher. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003; 2012), such assurances serve to reduce participants' evaluation apprehension making them

less likely to provide edited responses that are consistent with what they think the researcher wants to know or that are socially desirable.

In the current thesis, followers are asked to provide ratings of positive and negative leader behaviour which gives rise to leniency and strictness errors that may produce CMB. Leniency error occurs when respondents "rate those whom they know well, or whom they are ego involved, higher than they should" (Guildford, 1954, p. 278). Strictness error is the inverse of leniency error and occurs when an individual rates another lower than they should. Research has shown that leniency error can produce spurious correlations between leader behavior and employee satisfaction (Schriesheim, Kinicki, & Schriesheim, 1979). In rating both positive and negative leader behaviours, it is possible that followers were influenced by either or both errors. Again, to reduce possible bias, clear instructions on the purpose of each scale were provided to respondents reminding them not to allow their general evaluation of their leader to bias their responses. A reviewing of the actual responses suggests that followers were willing to provide negative evaluations as well as a mix of positive and negative ratings so the abovementioned biases do not raise a significant concern.

Podsakoff and colleagues (2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012) argue that a benefit of using similar scale formats and anchors in survey research is that the standardised layout reduces cognitive processing demands on participants. However, research has also shown that the use of common scale formats and common scale anchors can systematically influence responses because, the similarity of the response format increases the likelihood that that perceptions generated in responding to one item will be retrieved to respond to subsequent items (Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000). For example, the four positive leader behaviours of the PSBS were measured using a common scale (Likert-type) format with common scale anchors ("Not at all" to "A very great extent"). The dependant variables also used Likert-type response formats albeit with different rating descriptions (e.g., ("Disagree very much" to

"Agree very much"). In this research, scale items with the response formats produced by the original scale developers were used to collect data. As suggested by Mackenzie, Podsakoff and Podsakoff (2011), priority was given to maintaining the content validity of the items and their respective response formats, since a lack of content validity poses a larger threat to construct validity than does common method bias.

However, to minimise the characteristic effects attributable to common scale formats and anchors, presentation of the PSBS subscales to respondents was randomised using Qualtrics software. The presentation of similar subscales in different orders was targeted at minimising covariance due to scale properties as opposed to the content of the items in the scale. Also, wherever possible, scales with different anchors were used to collect data since this would minimise covariance due to scale properties (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). To promote the submission of quality data and to assist the respondent with context, each scale was preceded by a clear but general description of its purpose.

Item ambiguity was also identified as a possible item characteristic effect which could lead to CMB. The difficulty posed by item ambiguity is that it encourages participants to develop idiosyncratic heuristics in responding to them (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012). The problem is likely to arise when participants encounter double-barrelled questions (Hinkin, 1995), words with multiple meanings, unfamiliar or infrequently used words (R. A. Peterson, 2000) and use of technical jargon without examples (Spector, 1992). Podsakoff et al.'s (2003; 2012) recommendation to improve scale items was implemented to reduce item complexity and ambiguity. First, reliable scales with sound psychometric properties were selected for data collection. Items in each scale were then assessed for clarity, conceptual and syntactic simplicity. A few items were re-worded (see Chapter Three) to reduce complexity and examples were added to items that could not be simplified further.

Wainer and Keily (1987) state that item context effects "refer to any influence or interpretation that a subject might ascribe to an item solely because of its relation to the other items making up an instrument" (p. 187). Item priming is a specific context effect which suggests that the placement of predictor or criterion variables can increase the salience of that variable to a respondent and thereby imply a causal relationship with other variables (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). To mitigate the effects of item priming in the current thesis, all predictor variables (e.g., positive and negative leader behaviour) were placed in the first half of the survey. They were preceded by an explanation making it clear that these were ratings of their leaders and their anonymity would be protected. All criterion variables were positioned in the second half of the survey and they were also preceded by a description indicating that these were self-ratings of general attitudes and performance.

Taken together, these various several procedural remedies were implemented to minimise CMB. However, theoretical and empirical work on methods effects provides some reassurance that CMBs do not pose a serious threat to organisational research (Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, & Hoffman, 2010). In reviewing research that had employed multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) designs to estimate the magnitude of common method variance in organisational research, the authors found that method bias accounted for less variance (18%) than had been suggested by previous reviews (Buckley, Cote, & Comstock, 1990; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). While CMB has been shown to have an inflationary effect, it should not be exaggerated because it is generally offset by the attenuating influence of measurement error (Lance et al., 2006; Lance et al., 2010; Spector, 2006).

The final limitation regards questionnaire length. To design the PSBS and to compare the predictive strength of two leader behaviour models on four follower outcomes, a lengthy and comprehensive questionnaire was used. To maintain data quality, steps were taken to detect careless responding attributable to the length of the questionnaire. As described in the

methods sections of Chapters Three and Four, only data from respondents who spent a minimum predetermined amount of time (10 minutes) and correctly answered bogus items intended to detect careless responding were used in analyses (Meade & Craig, 2012). This resulted in more than 40% of the data being discarded across the three studies described in this research. This provides some assurance that data were collected from alert and conscientious respondents who were providing reliable and legitimate responses.

Future directions

Future studies should compare the predictive strength of positive and negative leader behaviours on follower outcomes using different variables. The recently developed PSBS with its four component behaviours was used to model positive leader behaviour. The PSBS is a shortened measure of larger instrument that is yet to be used in other studies with different samples. It is possible that other positive leader behaviours (e.g., supporting, developing, empowering) which were not identified in the current study as relevant to followers may in fact be stronger predictors of follower outcomes in other samples. Staw (2016), specifically calls for more research on negative behaviours and practices that organisations ought to manage or avoid. He argues that organisational research may have more to offer by studying the behaviour of bad performers and their personal and contextual drivers.

Regarding negative leader behaviours, a deliberate decision was made to include behaviours that were clearly negative and harmful to targets. The behaviours only differed in the conceptualisation of their intent as implicit or explicit. As noted by Hershcovis (2011), there has been a proliferation of workplace mistreatment constructs and some of them may be better predictors of follower outcomes. Workplace mistreatment constructs range from low dysfunction types such as petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), passive abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), and unsupportive managerial behaviours (Rooney & Gottlieb,

2007), to high dysfunction types such as active abuse (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), despotic leadership (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008), and destructive leadership (Einarsen et al., 2007). It is also possible that these negative supervisor behaviours could be stronger predictors of follower outcomes.

Meta-analytic results have shown that leader behaviours (e.g., clarification, specification of work, support) and substitutes for leadership (e.g., need for independence, task feedback, cohesive work group) account for the majority of variance in employee attitudes and performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Therefore, the criterion variables used in this study were selected because of their probable sensitivity to changes in leader behaviour. An investigation of the relationship between both leader behaviour models and other attitude constructs (e.g., job involvement, commitment) may reveal differences in the strengths of relationships.

In the current thesis, task and OCB were measured using self-report scales. Using other-rated performance measures (e.g., supervisor or peer ratings) or performance data (e.g., units produced, projects completed, profits) may also show differences in the strength of the relationship with both leader behaviour models. Future studies investigating the leader behaviour and follower outcome relationship should include multi-level (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000) and longitudinal (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002) designs. In a multi-level study, follower outcomes can be analysed at two levels. The first level is the between-leader component and the second level is the within-leader component. For example, large institutions such as banks, accounting firms and schools have team or group configurations that have a designated leader. In banks there are branch managers, in accounting firms there are managing partners, and in schools there are principals. In a multi-level design, follower ratings of leader behaviour are nested under each leader and analysis is done to determine

variance that is due to the leader (e.g., ability, experience, developmental opportunities) and variance that is due to the frequency of behaviour within the team or group.

An example of this is Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen and Rosen's (2007) multi-level study of leadership, empowerment and performance. Using a sample comprised of 445 individual members working in 62 teams, each with a designated leader across 31 stores, the authors were able to test hypotheses at the team level (e.g., leadership climate, team empowerment, team performance) and at the individual level (e.g., LMX, individual empowerment, individual performance). Chen et al. were also able to test cross-level influences between individual- and team-level variables. Essentially, multi-level design allows researchers to separate variance at the team level from variance at the individual level. As advanced by Chen et al. it is possible for team leaders to differ in the extent to which they empower their team as a whole from the way in which they choose to empower individual members.

Future studies on supervisor behaviour and follower outcomes stand to benefit from longitudinal research. Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010) define longitudinal research as "research emphasizing the study of change and containing at minimum three repeated observations (although more than three is better) on at least one of the substantive constructs of interest" (p. 97). While longitudinal studies are similar to their cross-sectional counterparts in that they are both observational, they have the added advantage of being able to control the influence of individual differences. Longitudinal designs allow for measurement invariance testing (Widaman et al., 2010) within the same sample, the identification of trends. Also, researchers are able to determine whether a change in one variable predicts change in another. Studies focusing on LMX and transformational leadership have successfully employed longitudinal designs (Bauer & Green, 1996; Keller, 2006; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008).

Recent work by Wright and Sweeney (2016) underscores the benefits to be drawn from the incorporation of replication, extension, and mixed-methods study designs in organisational research. Replication is broadly defined as "the purposeful repetition of prior research to corroborate or disconfirm previous results" (Wright & Sweeney, 2016, p. 481). Researchers are encouraged to reproduce and extend current findings on the supervisor behaviour and follower outcome link through literal, operational and constructive replication methods to increase confidence in important findings (Lykken, 1968; Makel & Plucker, 2014). In general, the term mixed-methods refers to designs that combine the collection of quantitative and qualitative data (Wright & Sweeney, 2016). In addition to the quantitative methods described earlier, scholarship on the supervisor behaviour and follower outcome relationship could benefit from methods traditionally associated with qualitative research. Such methods include diary studies, direct observations, interviews and case studies.

Conclusion

The current research set out to investigate leader behaviour from a follower perspective. The objectives of the research were threefold with the first goal being to identify relevant leader behaviours that followers perceive as positive or effective in an organisational context. The second goal was to examine whether the identified positive leader behaviours predicted important follower outcomes. The last goal was to compare the predictive power of positive and negative leader behaviour in predicting follower outcomes.

The first goal was addressed through the development of the PSBS. Derived from a larger instrument of managerial practices, the PSBS is a short measure of positive leader behaviour. It allows followers or subordinates to rate their leader on four behaviours that are observable and relevant to them. Across three studies, the PSBS demonstrated sound psychometric properties. The four factor structure of the PSBS was established and confirmed using appropriate factor analytic methods, construct validity was demonstrated

using two methods, and the scale demonstrated measurement equivalence across two geographically distinct samples. As noted earlier, this is the first iteration of this shortened scale and other researchers are encouraged to examine the validity of the instrument.

The second goal of the research was addressed by assessing the predictive validity of the PSBS. Positive leader behaviours (e.g., clarifying, recognising, ethical conduct) were shown to explain meaningful variance in predicting follower outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with the leader, cognitive engagement). Although results were replicated in two geographically distant samples, these findings represent preliminary predictive validity evidence. Greater confidence in the predictive validity of the leader behaviours can only be obtained by using the PSBS in other research efforts.

To address the third and final goal of the research, a comparison between positive and negative leader behaviour models was conducted and it revealed that the negative leader behaviour model was superior. The negative leader behaviour model fit the data better and explained greater variance in predicting follower attitudes and performance. This finding has practical significance for organisational decision-makers. Results from the comparative analysis suggest that initiatives targeted towards mitigating or eliminating negative leader behaviour are likely to have a greater effect on follower outcomes than those geared towards enhancing positive behaviour. Again, this is also preliminary comparative evidence that needs to examined in different samples from different occupational sectors.

The current research also made a theoretical contribution through the use of COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002) as an explanatory mechanism for the importance of leader behaviour to follower outcomes. Positive leader behaviours can be viewed as instrumental resources that followers can use to meet desirable personal and organisational goals. They can also be seen as social resources that enhance followers' stress resistance defences for coping with organisational stressors (Hobfoll, 1989). On the other hand, negative leader behaviours

represent organisational stressors that threaten or cause the depletion of an employee's resources. Therefore, followers experiencing negative leader behaviour are likely to indicate less satisfaction with the leader as they have to use accrued resources to cope. Lastly, COR theory posits that that resource loss has greater salience than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2011). Obtaining and maintaining resources for current and future use is a motivator for most individuals (Hobfoll, 2011). Compared to positive leader behaviour, the threat of or actual loss of resources due to negative leader behaviour is likely to receive more attention from followers.

Final Comments

It has been a privilege for me to undertake doctoral study in New Zealand. At the start of my PhD, I had hoped to collect all of my data from New Zealand-based organisations so that I could make a New Zealand contribution to international leader behaviour research that is dominated by North American and European perspectives. However, I was unable to obtain organisational access to collect local data. This meant that that I had to collect most of my data from available and affordable sources in the United States. It is my hope that other scholars will succeed where I have not.

However, in this thesis, data collected from New Zealand and the US, has identified four positive leader behaviours from a follower perspective. Clarifying, recognising, networking and ethical conduct were identified as essential leader behaviours by followers because they represent resources which they can use to attain personal and organisational goals. Furthermore, these positive leader behaviours were shown to predict important follower outcomes such as satisfaction, engagement and OCB. As stated at the beginning of this thesis, scholarly and practitioner interest in leadership continues to grow at a phenomenal rate. The current thesis contributes to organisational research by exploring workplace leader behaviour from a follower perspective.

APPENDIX

Managerial Practices Survey

MPS G16-4

Instructions: Please describe how much your boss uses each managerial practice or leadership behaviour. The term "unit" refers to the team, department, division, or company for which your boss is the designated leader, and the term "members" refers to the people who report directly to your boss. Think about each type of behaviour separately, and do not allow your general evaluation of the manager to bias your answers about specific behaviours. For each item, select one of the following response choices.

5   To a Very great extent

4   To a Considerable extent

3   To a Moderate extent

2   To a Limited extent

1   Not at all, or Not applicable

Clarifying

____   1.   Clearly explains the job responsibilities and task assignments of members

Supporting

____   5.   Shows concern for the needs and feelings of individual members of the work unit

Envisioning

____   9.   Describes a proposed change or new initiative with enthusiasm and optimism

External Monitoring

____   13.   Uses social networks and contacts with outsiders to get useful information

Planning

____   17.   Develops short-term plans for accomplishing the work unit's tasks

Recognizing

___ 21. Praises effective performance by members of the work unit

Encourage Innovation

___ 25. Encourages innovative thinking and creative solutions to problems

Representing

___ 29. Promotes a favorable image for the work unit with superiors and outsiders

Monitor Operations

___ 33. Checks on the progress and quality of the work

Develop Member Skills

___ 37. Provides helpful feedback and coaching to members who need it

Facilitate Collective Learning

___ 41. Looks for ways to adapt best practices used by other work units or organizations

Networking

___ 45. Attends social and professional events to meet people with useful information

Problem Solving

___ 49. Recognizes the early stage of a problem that is likely to disrupt the work

Empowering

___ 53. Encourages members to take responsibility for determining how to do their work

Advocate Change

___ 57. Explains why changes are necessary to deal with an emerging threat or opportunity

Ethical Leadership

___ 61. Communicates clear ethical standards and guidelines for members

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