

QUANTITATIVE STUDY

Leadership behavior: A partial test of the employee work passion model

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This study examined empirical associations between employee cognitive perceptions of leader behavior (directive behavior, supportive behavior) and leader values (self-concern, other orientation), employee positive affect and negative affect, and employee work intentions indicative of (dis)passionate employees. An internet-based self-report questionnaire survey was administered to 409 employees within three private sector organizations in Australia. Structural equation modeling indicated that supportive behavior, other-orientation, and self-concern had respective indirect effects on work intentions through employee positive affect. Employee positive affect was a stronger predictor of employee work intentions than was employee negative affect. Implications of these findings for theory and practice are discussed.

KEYWORDS

affect, intentions, leadership, passion, values

1 | INTRODUCTION

It has been said that “passion” permeates nearly all aspects of life (Vallerand, 2015). Vallerand et al. (2003) defined passion as a strong inclination toward an activity that people like, one that they value, and one in which they are willing to invest time and energy. These authors suggested that to the extent that an individual is passionate about an activity, overtime, it becomes central to his/her identity. Vallerand et al. (2003) seminal research provided a catalyst for the study of the psychological construct of passion considering that during the following decade research on passion was conducted in a variety of domains including romance (Hatfield, Bensman, & Rapson, 2010), education (Bonneville-Roussy, Vallerand, & Bouffard, 2013), parenting (Mageau et al., 2009), and work (Cardon, 2008; Fernet, Lavigne, Vallerand, & Austin, 2014; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009). Much of this research examined the intrapersonal effects of passion, for example, well/ill being, mental health, burnout, motivational factors, cognitive outcomes, behavior, and performance (Curran, Hill, Appleton, Vallerand, & Standage, 2015). Research investigating passion's role in interpersonal effects such as leader-follower relations has been less common (Vallerand, 2015).

Within the work domain, scholars have reported that Vallerand et al. (2003) conceptualization of passion is associated with positive outcomes such as employee mental health (Forest, Mageau, Sarrazin, & Morin, 2011), entrepreneurial success (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009), job satisfaction (Thorgren, Wincent, & Sirén, 2013), and

performance (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011). Notwithstanding, conceptualizations of work passion that explain its formulation have largely been absent from the literature (Kocjan, 2015). In response, Zigarmi et al. (2009) proposed an operational definition of work passion: "an individual's persistent, emotionally positive, meaning-based, state of well-being, stemming from reoccurring cognitive and affective appraisals of various job and organizational situations that result in consistent and constructive work intentions" (p. 310). A unique aspect of this definition pertains to the incorporation of the concept of appraisal to explain the formulation of work passion. Additionally, examination of empirical relations between key latent constructs (cognitive, affective, behavioral) identified that affect is central to the formation of work passion (Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2011). Overall, research on work passion is gaining momentum, however, examination of its antecedent determinants is largely unexplored (Egan, Blackman, & Turner, 2017; Forest et al. 2011).

Concomitantly, within a vast body of research spanning many decades, scholars reported that in the context of leader-follower relations, leader behavior is empirically related to numerous positive employee and organizational outcomes, for example, performance (Alimo-Metcalfe, Alban-Metcalfe, Bradley, Mariathasan, & Samele, 2008), group climate (Salvaggio et al., 2007), leader effectiveness (Morgeson, 2005), follower motivation, follower satisfaction with leader, and leader job performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). In addition, a growing body of research has focused on relations between leadership, follower emotions, and follower affect (e.g., Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011; To, Tse, & Ashkanasy, 2015). Connelly and Gooty (2015) underscored that "affect-laden phenomena" are deeply intertwined with the process of leading and leader and follower outcomes. Implicit in this focus is the acknowledgement that affective experiences matter in the workplace because everyday individuals bring their whole self to work—traits, thoughts, moods, and emotions. This empirical study sought to explore the integration of work passion theory and leadership theory, a linkage that has received little research attention.

1.1 | Leadership, work passion, and human resource development

The topics of leadership and work passion are especially relevant from a Human Resource Development (HRD) perspective because practitioners serve many organizational functions and balance a multitude of responsibilities. Scholars have suggested that the mission of HRD relates to the simultaneous pursuit of learning, humanistic, and performance outcomes (Chalofsky, 2007; Kuchinke, 2010; Sambrook, 2012). Chalofsky (2007) stated that HRD is primarily concerned with how "people can strive to reach their human potential and enhance their performance through learning" (p. 437). Chalofsky and Cavallaro (2013) contended that HRD practitioners were challenged with creating and maintaining organizational cultures that strengthen the fit between self and work where the sense of self relates to "being able to bring the whole self to the workplace" (p. 333). We believe that integral to the fulfillment of these purposes is the development of organizational strategic and operational leadership capacity.

This study has relevance and implications for HRD practitioners inasmuch as they have a need for, and responsibility to, implement development programs (e.g., leader and organizational culture) that build leaders' knowledge and skills to support the humanistic development of the follower. Such programs must be effective in promoting forms of leadership that are humane, development centered, and facilitate performance. HRD practitioners can benefit from exploring the use of models that advocate the formation of employee work passion through effective leader behaviors.

1.2 | Purpose

Egan et al. (2017) proposed a synthesis of leadership theory and work passion theory, two distinct but potentially related areas of research, to provide HRD practitioners with a deeper understanding of how leadership promotes (or hinders) employees' subjective experience of work passion. These authors used the Employee Work Passion Appraisal (EWPA) model (Zigarmi et al., 2011) as the theoretical foundation of their hypothesized conceptual framework. A central tenet of the EWPA model is Cognitive Appraisal Theory (CAT; Bandura, 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which postulated that humans mentally connect past and present environmental experiences to their values,

emotions, and expectations to form future intentions that lead to behaviors. Egan et al. (2017) proposed that employee cognitive appraisals of leader behavior and leader values have differential impacts on employee affect. Resultant employee work intentions include engaging in discretionary effort, performing at higher than average levels, endorsing the organization, staying with the organization, and engaging in OCB. These authors called for empirical testing of their model. This study responds to this call.

The overall aim of this study was to conduct a partial test of the EWPA model by examining empirical relations between selected organization environmental antecedents (leader behavior and leader values), employee affect, and employee work intentions to expand understanding of the formulation of work passion. Within the context of the employee work passion appraisal process, empirical evidence suggested that employee cognitive perceptions of organization environmental antecedent variables have impacts on work intentions through employee affect (Zigarmi et al., 2011). However, investigation of such effects has been sparse (Egan et al., 2017). The first purpose of this study was to investigate empirical associations between employee cognitive appraisals of their leader's behaviors and values, employee affect, and employee work intentions.

The second purpose of this study relates to the need articulated by various authors (e.g., Kim, Nimon, Hoon Song, & Zigarmi, 2015; Zigarmi, Nimon, Shuck, & Roberts, 2019) to extend the employee work passion research base. For instance, most of the studies that investigated the EWPA model have drawn samples from organization populations within the USA. Given the continued globalization of the workforce, data from non-USA samples would enable the factor structure of the EWPA model to be tested in different cultures and the results may allow findings to begin to be generalized across countries. This study used an Australian organizational setting to assess empirical relations between focal constructs.

This research aimed to make the following contributions to the organizational behavior literature. Meyer, Gagne, and Parfyonova (2010) called for research that integrates theories and evidence from contiguous fields, for example, organizational psychology and organizational behavior, to deepen the understanding of related psychological constructs that contribute to positive employee experiences of work. By measuring employee perceptions of their interpersonal experience with leaders, employee affect, and levels of intent, this study aimed to contribute to bridging the gap between the long-standing research base relating to organizational leadership and the emergent theory of employee work passion. Also, this study aimed to contribute to the overall body of research on employee work passion by using three Australian organizations as a research setting.

In terms of implications for HRD practice, this study sought to provide greater insight relating to which leader behaviors and leader value orientations enhance or hinder the emergence of employee work passion and *how* this process occurs. This knowledge could assist HRD practitioners in the effective measurement of the employee work passion construct, and subsequently, enable them to leverage the organization environmental conditions that promote it. Additionally, such knowledge will assist HRD practitioners to create organizational cultures that hold that effective leadership plays a central role in assisting employees to integrate self and work, which will enable them to flourish. In this way, organizations may reap the positive individual (Forest et al., 2011; McAllister, Harris, Hochwarter, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2017) and organizational (Ho et al., 2011) benefits associated with work passion.

The following section provides theoretical rationale relating to the EWPA model and support for hypothesized relations between focal constructs, that is, leader behavior, leader values, affect, and intentions. Then, the study's method and results are presented. Implications for HRD practice are discussed. Directions for future research and study limitations conclude this article.

2 | THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 | Employee work passion appraisal model

The EWPA model (see Figure 1) is grounded in CAT (Bandura, 1986; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which contended that humans are meaning-oriented and meaning-creating creatures who continually appraise their environment

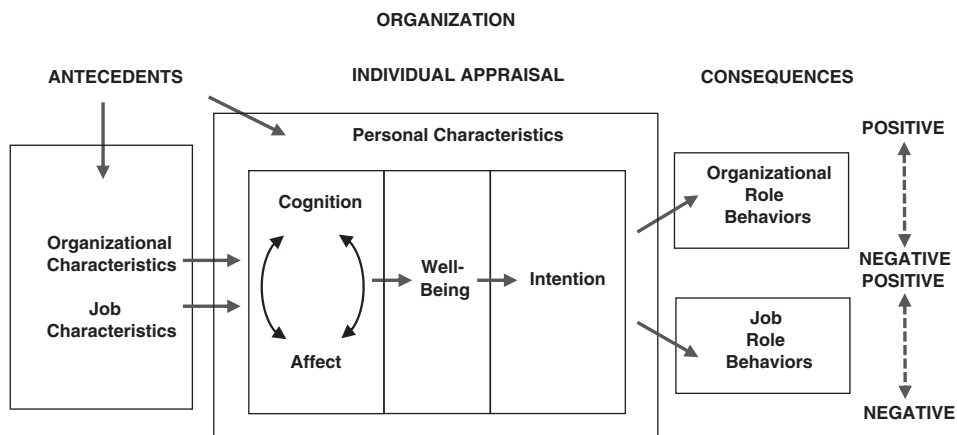


FIGURE 1 The employee work passion appraisal model. Source: Zigarmi et al. (2011). A preliminary field test of an employee work passion model. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22(2), 195–221

(objects, events, experiences) from the perspective of their personal well-being and react emotionally to some of these evaluations. It is important to note that in the context of the EWPA model, subjective job well-being (the balance of pleasure or displeasure in an immediate work experience; Schimmack, Schupp, & Wagner, 2008) is viewed from a process-oriented perspective. Specifically, the initial appraisal moves from description to a higher-order judgment or valuation of the environment's attributes and individuals ask of themselves "Am I in trouble or being benefited, now or in the future, and in what way?" and "How will these perceived objects or events impact my personal sense of well-being?" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 31). In the second phase of the appraisal, individuals make judgements and form conscious intentions that will enable them to cope with the environmental impact (Lazarus, 1991). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) described secondary appraisal as: "...a complex evaluative process that takes into account which coping options are available, the likelihood that a given coping option will accomplish what it is supposed to, and the likelihood that one can apply a particular strategy or set of strategies effectively" (p. 35).

According to Zigarmi et al. (2009), the EWPA process consists of two phases. First, employees cognitively appraise organization, job, and interpersonal experiences, events, and situations. To the extent that positive or negative affect is generated from the appraisal, a positive or negative sense of employee job well-being develops. Second, employees form intentions to actively participate (or not) in work activities and behaviors, for example, engage in-role and extra-role behavior and performance, endorse the organization as a positive place to work, and be an altruistic organizational citizen. Thus, the subjective experience of work passion develops. A latent aspect of the EWPA model suggested that employee appraisals are reoccurring and thus the formulation of work passion is postulated to be a dynamic process stemming from a continuing need for employees to interpret and make sense of their ever-changing work experience (Zigarmi et al. 2019).

Empirical assessment of the EWPA model has focused on three areas: (a) construct reliability and validity of the latent constructs that comprise the EWPA model (e.g., Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015a, 2015b); (b) the influence of personal characteristics of the appraiser, for example, values, beliefs, disposition, motives, needs, and the history with the object being appraised, on the appraisal process (e.g., Shuck, Zigarmi, & Owen, 2015; Zigarmi, Galloway, & Roberts, 2018); and (c) the influence of organization environmental determinants, that is, factors that are external to the appraiser, on the appraisal process (e.g., Zigarmi et al., 2011; Zigarmi & Roberts, 2012). Overall, research assessing the role of organization environmental antecedents within the EWPA model is underdeveloped (Egan et al., 2017; Zigarmi et al., 2019).

Organization environmental antecedents. The concept of organizational environment emanates from research on psychological climate within the fields of industrial and organization psychology (e.g., L. R. James et al., 2008; L. R. James, Hater, Gent, & Bruni, 1978; L. A. James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979). L. R. James et al. (1978)

discussion of psychological climate emphasized the importance of psychological meaning and significance associated with an employee's value laden perceptions of aspects of proximal organizational structures, processes, and events. Furthermore, psychological climate is associated with the individual level of analysis as it guides the behavior of individuals to fulfill organizational objectives (Jones & James, 1979; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Schneider and Reichers (1983) explicated this theme when they posited that research on psychological climate had focussed on a climate "for something" within an organization, for example, innovation, service, or safety. In this study, we focussed on organization environmental antecedents that foster a psychological climate for "employee work passion" at the individual level of analysis.

In alignment with theoretical underpinnings of psychological climate research, Zigarmi et al. (2011) argued that in the context of the employee work passion appraisal process, the focus of employee cognitive and affective appraisals includes various characteristics present in the work environment such as performance expectations, meaningful work, workload balance, task variety, procedural and distributive justice, leaders, and colleagues. However, despite much research that suggested leadership is a fundamental element in the creation of workplace environments that foster psychologically healthy, and productive employees (see Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011; Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017), few studies have investigated the antecedent role of leadership within the EWPA model (Egan et al., 2017). We located only two studies have examined the role of leadership within the EWPA model. Zigarmi and Roberts (2012) reported significant relations between managerial behavior, managerial values, employee affect, and work intentions. Zigarmi, Roberts, and Randolph (2015) assessed structural power at the organizational level and found empirical associations between leaders' use of power, employee affect, and work intentions. In this study, we chose a singular focus on leadership, an organization environmental antecedent variable within the work passion appraisal process, to provide HRD practitioners with insight relating to a key boundary condition to the formulation of employee work passion.

The following reasons support our decision to conduct a partial test of the EWPA model. First, Zigarmi et al. (2011) provided evidence supporting the overall factor structure of the EWPA model including significant correlations between its four latent constructs (cognition, affect, job well-being, and work intentions). Second, previous research examined the influence of antecedent variables within the EWPA model, for example, personal characteristics (see Shuck et al., 2015; Zigarmi et al., 2018) and various organization environmental antecedents (see Zigarmi et al., 2011, 2015), however, such research is in its formative stage. Third, the tenets of the broader appraisal literature assert that cognition, emotion, and coping are the three central constructs in appraisal theory (Fugate, Harrison, & Kinicki, 2011; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hence, the focus of this study is on relations between employee cognitive appraisals of leader behavior, leader values, employee affect, and employee work intentions. In the following sections, leader behavior and leader values are discussed.

2.2 | Perceptions of leader behavior

Within the work domain, the initial phase of employee valuation of leader behavior results from cognitive appraisals of current leaders' behaviors, compared to already formed thought patterns or mental schema of employees' past experiences of leaders' behaviors. Lazarus (1984) argued that the schematic aspects of cognitive processing are an important and necessary precondition to emotion because to experience an emotion, the appraiser must comprehend that their personal well-being is implicated for "better or worse" (p. 124). As such, the first aspect to postulated relations to which we draw the reader's attention involves employee cognitive perceptions of one-to-one leader behavior.

We agree with Gooty et al. (2010) who highlighted that a variety of theoretical frameworks such as transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, individualized and charismatic leadership, and contingency models could serve as a conceptual lens through which to analyze leadership, affect, and effectiveness outcomes. To measure leader behavior in this study, we chose the fundamental behavioral constructs of Consideration and Initiating Structure and rationale that supports this decision follows.

Consideration and initiating structure. Researchers at the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University in the 1950s and 1960s identified that leader behaviors grouped as Consideration and Initiating Structure were related to positive leader and organizational outcomes (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1963). Leaders who were considerate reflected the extent to which leaders showed concern for followers, considered followers' ideas and feelings, and developed relationships characterized by mutual trust and respect (Fleishman, 1953; Korman, 1966). Leaders who initiated structure clarified leader and follower roles, were focused on task and goal attainment, and were active in providing information, scheduling, and evaluating performance (Fleishman, 1953; Korman, 1966).

Research on the behavioral approach to understanding leadership (Consideration and Initiating Structure) was prolific (e.g., Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Fleishman & Simmons, 1970) until the advent of the Contingency theories of the 1970s (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). In the following three decades, a paradigm shift occurred in leadership thinking and scholars investigated the symbolic and emotional aspects of leadership, for example, Charismatic Leadership (House, 1977) and Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985) and the Ohio State dimensions fell from research favor. However, we agree with Rost (1991) who suggested that "when popularity waned, the theories remained in the minds and hearts of scholars and practitioners alike because they appealed to the structural-functional psyche of most practitioners" (p. 29).

Notably, research on Consideration and Initiating Structure has enjoyed a resurgence in the literature following Judge et al. (2004) ground breaking meta-analytical study that recognized the validity of these leadership dimensions. Subsequent research reported empirical associations between Consideration and Initiating Structure and important leader and organizational effectiveness outcomes (e.g., Blickle et al., 2013; De Rue, Narghang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Piccolo et al., 2012; Schurer-Lambert, Tepper, Carr, Holt, & Barelka, 2012). De Rue et al. (2011) meta-analysis, consisting of 13 existing meta-analyses and 46 primary studies, assessed the predictive validity of leader behaviors and found that Consideration and Initiating Structure were correlated to leader effectiveness (0.52 and 0.39) follower job satisfaction (0.46 and 0.25), and satisfaction with leader (0.78 and 0.33). Meta-analytical results reported by Piccolo et al. (2012) suggested that Consideration and Initiating Structure were consistent predictors of leader effectiveness (0.70 and 0.62) follower job satisfaction (0.38 and 0.21). Such meta-analytic evidence suggested that the Ohio State dimensions are important predictors of leadership effectiveness.

Early studies that examined the empirical orthogonality of Consideration and Initiating Structure reported inconsistent results (e.g., Korman, 1966; Weissenberg & Kavanagh, 1972). However, Judge et al. (2004) concluded that variations in the intercorrelations between the two constructs were attributable to the measures employed. Recent studies that have benefited from the use of contemporary meta-analytical statistical techniques (e.g., De Rue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004; Piccolo et al., 2012;) provided evidence that Consideration and Initiating Structure were low to moderately and positively correlated but "not so large as to render the two concepts redundant" (Judge et al., 2004, p.44).

In terms of application for HRD practitioners, Consideration and Initiating Structure formed the conceptual foundations of subsequent contingency-based models including Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model of Leadership, House's (1971) Path-Goal Theory, and Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) Life Cycle Theory. In turn, Life Cycle Theory formed the conceptual foundation of the situational leadership theories (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985, 2013; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2013) that are commonly practiced in contemporary organizations (Avery & Ryan, 2002; Meirovich & Gu, 2015; G. Thompson & Vecchio, 2009). For example, Meirovich and Gu (2015) concluded that "unlike many fads in managerial science that came and went rather quickly, Hersey and Blanchard's model demonstrates considerable robustness and sustainability and remains popular after more than 30 years" (p. 61). Bass (2008) stated that the "Hersey-Blanchard model has had remarkable wide-spread intuitive appeal to practicing managers" (p. 522). Overall, Consideration and Initiating Structure not only provided the basis for new theory but continue to be relevant and impactful leadership constructs in 21st century organizations.

Notwithstanding, Judge et al. (2004) called for further examination of Consideration and Initiating Structure and a wider range of effectiveness outcomes. Various authors (e.g., Fleishman, 1998; Meirovich & Gu, 2015; Zigarmi & Roberts, 2017) highlighted a need for research on different levels of abstraction of the Ohio State dimensions, that is, behaviors that are inherent in Consideration (e.g., listening, facilitating problem solving) and in Initiating Structure (e.g., goal setting, showing and telling how). Considering HRD practitioners offer leadership development programs

that include conceptual models based on Consideration and Initiating Structure, yet several authors have called for further research, we contend that the examination of these fundamental leadership constructs in this study of the contemporary issue of employee work passion is warranted.

Directive behavior and supportive behavior. A widely used measure of Consideration and Initiating Structure is the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire–Form 12 (LBDQ-XII; Stogdill, 1963). However, an analysis of LBDQ-XII items revealed that some may confound leader behavior and the outcomes stemming from the behavior, for example, item 17 “My leader does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group”. Such item wording risks blurring the descriptive cognition of organization environment behavior with resultant affect associated with exposure to the behavior (Schriesheim & Kerr, 1977). Also, the LBDQ-XII includes items that describe leader behavior toward employees as individuals and others describe leader behavior toward their work group. Considering the unit of analysis implicit in the EWPA model is at the individual level, failure to consider level-of-analysis issues may result in a misalignment of theory and data (Schriesheim, Cogliser, & Neider, 1990). To tap employee cognitive perceptions of leader behavior, in this study we used proxy measures of Consideration and Initiating Structure, that is, supportive behavior and directive behavior (Blanchard et al., 1985, 2013). We believe that use of these measures would ensure two outcomes: (1) employee cognitive perceptions of leader behavior would remain empirically distinct from resultant affective inferences, and (2) they would reside in the one-to-one context exclusively.

Building upon the leadership dimensions of the Ohio State studies, in the late 1970s Blanchard and colleagues framed Initiating Structure as directive behavior and Consideration as supportive behavior (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). Directive behaviors were defined as evaluating, setting priorities, establishing timelines, showing how, action planning, goal setting, and clarifying roles (Blanchard et al., 1985). Supportive behaviors were defined as problem solving, listening, praising, providing rationale, sharing information–organization, sharing information–self, and asking for input (Blanchard et al., 1985). Used together, leaders vary in their use of both directive behavior and supportive behavior (Blanchard et al., 1985, 1993). For leaders to be effective in using the behaviors associated with each construct, understanding the positive intentions that underpin each is essential. Use of directive behavior does not need to be delivered harshly, insensitively, or in a patronizing manner. It can be seen as informative, and as an aid to employee skill development and output (Hersey et al., 2013; Zigarmi, Blanchard, O'Connor, & Edeburn, 2005). The positive intention underlying leaders' use of supportive behaviors is to provide socio-emotional support to followers and to develop personal and mutually trusting relationships to facilitate goal accomplishment (Hersey et al., 2013; Zigarmi et al., 2005).

We located three studies that measured relations between directive behavior and supportive behavior and various outcome criteria. Utilizing Australian organizations as the research setting, Avery (2001) reported positive associations between the Ohio State dimensions, leader flexibility, and leader effectiveness. Benson, Zigarmi, and Nimmon (2012) found empirical support for positive relations between manager emotional intelligence and supportive behaviors such as listening, asking for input, and providing rationale. Zigarmi and Roberts (2017) reported that fit between leadership styles (i.e., combinations of high and low directive behaviors and supportive behaviors) needed and received, resulted in employee positive affect, increased cognitive and affective trust in leader, and favorable work intentions. Additionally, in a laboratory study, Ehrhart and Klein (2001) found that follower personal characteristics (needs, values, and dispositions) predicted preferences for charismatic (30% of respondents), relationship-oriented (50% of respondents), and task-oriented leadership (20% of respondents) with need fulfillment being the dominant characteristic that explained most variance in leader preference. Such findings support those relating to Consideration and Initiating Structure (cited earlier) and suggest that followers in today's organizations have demonstrated that both task-oriented and relationship-oriented leader behaviors fulfill fundamental needs.

Based on the empirical evidence relating to the intercorrelations between Consideration and Initiating Structure (cited earlier) and that investigation of relations between directive behavior and supportive behavior has been underdeveloped, we offer the following exploratory hypothesis. We propose that while controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure:

Hypothesis 1a *Directive behavior is positively and low to moderately related to supportive behavior.*

2.3 | Perceptions of leader values

In the organizational behavior and psychological literature, significant relations between individual values and organizational constructs including value-behavior relations (Bardi, Calogero, & Mullen, 2008), leader behavior (Cha & Edmondson, 2006), decision-making (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), follower OCB (Sosik, 2005), and job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989) have been reported. For example, Sosik (2005) found leader values were related positively to charismatic leadership, which predicted managerial performance, followers' extra effort, and OCB. The belief that personal values predict leader behavior is widely accepted (Groves & LaRocca, 2011; Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

A recent development within the values literature ascribes to the belief that greater emphasis should be placed on value content domains rather than measuring individual values per se and in doing so, highlight that individual values are ordered in a hierarchical system by relative importance (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Higgs and Lichtenstein (2011) contended that when exploring value-behavior relations, it is important to focus on the "aggregation of single values to form a reflection of the priorities that these represent for individuals" (p. 67). In keeping with this development, this study measured employee cognitive perceptions of organization environmental antecedent variables of leader value orientations (i.e., self-concern and other-orientation) and these constructs will be discussed next.

Self-concern and other-orientation. Messick and McClintock (1968) defined social value orientation (SVO) as general preferences for the distribution of outcomes between oneself and interdependent others. SVO is a concept that explains how individuals differ when approaching interdependent situations, for example, cross-functional teamwork (Nauta, De Dreu, & van der Vaart, 2002), and in situations where leader-follower relations are characterized by goal interdependence (Deutsch, 1973). Self-concern and other-orientation is a model of value orientations (De Dreu, 2006; De Dreu & Nauta, 2009), which has its origins in the social psychological theory of SVOs.

De Dreu and Nauta (2009) defined self-concern as the extent to which one thinks, acts, and is concerned with his/her own interests, desires, and aspirations. On the other hand, other-orientation refers to the extent to which one is concerned for the interest, needs, and desires of others (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). These authors posited that self-concern and other-orientation drive an individual's behavior in the workplace to focus on self-serving versus group-related cues. In other words, individuals with high other-orientation stimulate the processing of social information (e.g., information from and about relevant others, joint outcomes, and collective success), and individuals with high self-concern stimulate the processing of self-relevant information (e.g., personal characteristics and qualities, individual outcomes, and successes).

De Dreu and Nauta (2009) argued that variations in self-concern and other-orientation may be due to temperament, socialization, and situational demands. De Dreu (2006) postulated that self-concern and other-orientation are orthogonal constructs. By extrapolation, we suggest a leader could be perceived to be high in self-concern and high in other-orientation, high on one dimension and low on the other, or low in both. Self-concern and other-orientation may be correlated positively or negatively depending upon the specific context and "across situations, we expect these two dimensions to be uncorrelated" (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009, p. 914).

We did not locate any studies that examined relations between directive behavior, supportive behavior, self-concern, and other-orientation. Thus, we offer the following exploratory hypotheses. We propose that while controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure:

Hypothesis 1b *Other-orientation is negatively related to self-concern.*

Hypothesis 1c *Directive behavior is positively related to other-orientation and negatively related to self-concern.*

Hypothesis 1d *Supportive behavior is positively related to other-orientation and negatively related to self-concern.*

2.4 | Affect

CAT contended that the degree to which the object, person, or event is perceived to be either personally beneficial versus detrimental to the appraiser's sense of personal well-being determines the type, quality, direction, and

intensity of affect experienced (Lazarus, 1984). Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, and de Chermont (2003) defined affect as “a phenomenological state of feeling” (p. 914) and described it as a term encompassing a wide range of feelings, for example, happy, sad, enthusiastic, afraid, and upset. Watson and Tellegen (1985) suggested that affect includes both “state affects” (in-the-moment, short-term affective experiences, or moods) and “trait or dispositional affects” (stable tendencies to feel and act in certain ways and are a dimension of personality). These authors presented empirical evidence to support an orthogonal, two-factor model consisting of affective state dimensions, the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS). Watson and Tellegen (1985) defined Positive Affect as the extent to which individuals feel enthusiastic, active, and energetic. They defined Negative Affect as the extent to which an individual feels anger, fear, and nervousness.

To measure affect in the employee work passion appraisal process, Zigarmi et al. (2011) contended that a “state” measure as opposed to a “trait” measure is needed so results are not blurred with the appraiser's disposition. To align with this theoretical precedent, in this study we chose the PANAS (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) to measure affect because we believe it reasonable to suggest that employee cognitive appraisals of leaders are likely to engender employee affect of different valence.

Leader behavior and affect. Various authors have reported associations between leadership behavior, employee affect, and effectiveness outcomes, for example, Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), Cognitive Appraisal Theory (CAT; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), Charismatic Leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1997; House, 1977), the charismatic elements of Transformational Leadership (Bass, 1985), Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), emotional contagion (Barsade, 2002), and Self-determination theory (SDT; Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2008). We located only two studies that examined empirical associations between Consideration and Initiating Structure and employee affect. Schurer-Lambert et al. (2012) examined the effects of fit between Consideration and Initiating Structure needed and received on employees' work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, affective organization commitment) but did not measure employee affect directly. Blickle et al. (2013) demonstrated that leader position power and leader political skill favorably influenced followers' affective reactions (e.g., job satisfaction) through Initiating Structure and Consideration behaviors, however, this study did not use direct measures of employee affect. Both studies reported that Consideration and Initiating Structure were both positively related to favorable employee attitudinal outcomes. We located no studies that examined relations between directive behavior and employee affect and supportive behavior and employee affect. Thus, we offer the following exploratory hypotheses. We propose that while controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure:

Hypothesis 2a *Directive behavior is positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect.*

Hypothesis 2b *Supportive behavior is positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect.*

Leader values and affect. Our literature review identified few studies that examined relations between leader values and employee affect. Lord and Brown (2001) hypothesized that leader values were positively associated with employee cognition, affect, and behavior via employee self-concept and highlighted that these associations were poorly understood. In a qualitative study, Cha and Edmondson (2006) investigated relations between organizational values, charismatic leadership style, and impacts on followers, however, did not measure leader values nor follower affect directly. Even fewer studies have examined relations between leader values and employee affect using other-reported data. This is significant given authors (e.g., Bardi et al., 2008) called for greater use of other-reported data when measuring leader values in organizational settings.

Scholars have provided some theoretical (Gooty et al., 2010) and empirical (De Cremer, 2006) evidence that suggested leader other-concern promoted follower positive affect. In a meta-analytical study, Marinova and Park (2014) reported other-orientated leadership was positively related to individual level outcomes including follower task performance, job satisfaction, and OCB but did not measure employee affect. Scholars examined associations between

self-concern and group information processing and decision-making (De Dreu, Nijstaad, & van Knippenberg, 2008), leadership style (Barrow & Mirabella, 2009), and its influence on job characteristics such as job autonomy and job performance (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). However, we did not locate any studies that assessed relations between leader self-concern and follower affect.

Considering the research on employee work passion, we located one study that examined empirical associations between self-concern, other-orientation, and employee affect. Zigarmi and Roberts (2012) reported that employee affect partially mediated relations between manager other-orientation, manager self-concern, and work intentions, respectively. In this light, we concur with these and other authors (e.g., De Cremer, 2006; Gooty et al., 2010) who posited that leaders with high other-orientation are sensitive to the needs of followers, emphasize the collective identity of followers, and foster open, cooperative, and respectful relationships, and, therefore, will foster follower positive affect. Furthermore, we agree with Zigarmi and Roberts (2012) who posited that leaders who demonstrate high self-concern tend to put their needs above those of others and do not engender close, open, and fulfilling relationships, and, therefore, will engender follower negative affect. Thus, we propose that while controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure:

Hypothesis 2c *Other-orientation is positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect.*

Hypothesis 2d *Self-concern is positively related to negative affect and negatively related to positive affect.*

2.5 | Intentions

Intentions are a guide to purposeful action that individuals might choose among alternatives to cope with their sense of well-being or lack thereof stemming from the valuation of the environment's features, values, or attributes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Intentions as predictors of behavior have been researched frequently in the sociological and psychological literature. For example, meta-analytical studies (e.g., Armitage & Conner, 2001; Webb & Sheeran, 2006) have provided support for the efficacy of intentions predicting actual behavior.

Work intentions are included as dependent variables in the EWPA model to reduce the risk of blurring constructs and inferring states of engagement through a correlation of perceptions of organization environmental variables concerning the conditions under which employees work and cognitive expressions of job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015b). Nimon and Zigarmi (2015b) reported construct and convergent validity for five intention scales: intent to use discretionary effort, intent to perform, intent to endorse the organization, intent to stay in the organization, and intent to use OCB.

Affect and Intentions. Within the job attitudes literature, meta-analytical studies (e.g., Ng & Sorensen, 2009; Thoresen et al., 2003) reported that affect was associated with various job attitudes, for example, job satisfaction, organization commitment, intentions to quit, job related burnout. Thoresen et al. (2003) meta-analysis reported positive affect was more strongly associated with positive valenced outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and personal accomplishment) than was negative affect. Conversely, negatively valenced outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization) were more strongly linked with negative affect than positive affect. Such findings support observations that positive affect and negative affect perform different roles in influencing positively and negatively valenced job attitudes and behavior (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Studies of employee work passion have found significant positive relations between positive affect and work intentions and significant and nonsignificant negative relations between negative affect and intentions (e.g., Roberts & Zigarmi, 2014; Zigarmi et al., 2011; Zigarmi & Roberts, 2012). Furthermore, these studies found that the magnitude of the correlations indicated stronger relations between positive affect and intentions than between

negative affect and intentions. To align with these empirical precedents in both the job attitudes and the employee work passion literature, we propose that while controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure:

Hypothesis 3a *Positive affect is positively related to selected work intentions.*

Hypothesis 3b *Negative affect is negatively related to selected work intentions.*

Hypothesis 3c *Positive affect will be more strongly related to selected work intentions than will be negative affect.*

2.6 | Leadership, affect, and intentions

In the workplace, employee affect has been found to be central in the cognition-behavior relation (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). For example, Fugate et al. (2011) empirically examined cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of employees' reactions to organizational change. Findings supported the presence of synchronous reciprocal relations between cognition and affect that were bound in the process of appraisal. Also, cognition and affect were found to have significant associations with employee coping behaviors which, in turn, were related to intentions to quit and voluntary turnover. Zigarmi and Roberts (2012) reported that managerial behavior had indirect effects on work intentions through employee affect. By extrapolation, we hypothesize that employee appraisals of leader behavior and leader values will include affective inferences that will have impacts on employee work intentions. Thus, the following hypothesis is primarily exploratory. While controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure, we propose:

Hypothesis 4 *Directive behavior, supportive behavior, other-orientation, and self-concern will indirectly and completely impact on work intentions through positive affect and negative affect.*

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Participants

The study's sample was convenience based and consisted of all employees from three medium-sized (100–500 employees) Australian private sector organizations. One organization is in the pharmaceutical industry and located in the state of Western Australia. The second organization is in the healthcare industry in the state of Victoria. The third organization is in the food production industry and located in the state of New South Wales. These three organizations were selected for the following reasons. First, senior leaders and HRD leaders within each organization registered interest in better understanding the role of leader behavior in employee subjective experience of work passion due to their respective focus on creating optimal work environments. Second, the existence of a professional relationship between the research team and senior leaders of each organization and their willingness to grant permission for employees to participate in the study. Third, three diverse organizations in terms of type and location provided data source triangulation, that is, data collected on the same phenomenon from multiple sites (Denzin, 2009).

All employees from each organization were invited to complete an internet-based self-report survey distributed via email within each organization. An internet-based survey was used as the method of data collection because it provided a vehicle to reach a geographically dispersed and large population simultaneously, greater respondent anonymity, greater levels of respondent self-disclosure, and less respondent social concern and constraint (Dillman,

Smyth, & Christian, 2009). The content of the email explained the purpose and scope of the study and assured respondents of the anonymity of their data and that participation was voluntary. The email contained a unique organizational link to the survey and ballot box stuffing controls were enacted. Given leader behavior and leader values were antecedent variables in the hypothesized model, the self-report survey required respondents to record their perceptions of leader behavior in detail. Accordingly, sample respondents needed to have a direct relationship with a supervisor/leader, have a current work email address, and have access to the internet. All employees of all three organizations met these requirements.

880 surveys were distributed and 450 were completed with the useable number being 409. The response rate for each organization was 47, 54, and 42%, approximating each organization's proportion of the original sample, and was considered adequate (Sax, Gilmartin, & Bryant, 2003). All data were examined through SPSS (version 25.0) and AMOS (version 25.0). The sample consisted of 51% male, 49% female; 22% were under 30 years of age, 56% were between 30 and 49 years, and 22% were over 50 years; 73% were individual contributors, 27% were leaders; and in relation to years of experience with their organization, 38% had 5 or less years, 51% had between 6 and 20 years, and 11% had 21 or more years. Respondents represented approximately equal proportions of white-collar (e.g., finance, human resources, sales, operations, information technology, marketing, customer service, and research and development) and blue-collar (e.g., logistics, warehouse, manufacturing, and engineering) departments. After reviewing responses to demographic variables with each organization's study sponsor, the sample was considered representative of the organizational populations from which it originated.

3.2 | Measures

Given the multifaceted nature of the hypothesized model, a multiple measures approach using four instruments was deployed to measure the distinct latent constructs that comprise it.

The leader action profile (LAP). The directive behavior and supportive behavior scales from the LAP contain descriptive measures and were used to measure employee cognitive perceptions of the frequent use of these behaviors by leaders. The LAP has one directive scale that contains seven subscales: (a) Evaluating, (b) Setting Priorities, (c) Establishing Timelines, (d) Showing How, (e) Action Planning, (f) Goal Setting, and (g) Clarifying Roles. Each directive behavior subscale contains three items. The LAP has one supportive scale that contains seven subscales: (a) Problem Solving, (b) Listening, (c) Praising, (d) Providing Rationale, (e) Sharing Information about the Organization, (f) Sharing Information about Self, and (g) Asking for Input. Each supportive behavior subscale contains three items. The LAP contains a six-point anchored scale for rating the perceived frequency of observed directive behaviors and supportive behaviors. Possible answers range from 6 = *almost always* to 1 = *almost never*. Convergent validity relating to the directive and supportive scales of the LAP was established when these scales were correlated with the LBDQ-XII (Stogdill, 1963) (see Zigarmi & Roberts, 2017). In this study, the alpha reliability coefficients for directive behavior and supportive behavior scales were both 0.98 (see Table 1).

Self-concern and other-orientation. Scales for self-concern and other-orientation (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009) were used to measure employee cognitive perceptions of the frequent use of these behaviors by leaders. Each scale contains three descriptive items and incorporates a five-point anchored scale (5 = *very much* to 1 = *not at all*). Alpha reliability coefficients for self-concern and other-orientation were reported to be 0.82 and 0.87, respectively (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). In this study, the alpha reliability coefficients for self-concern and other-orientation scales were 0.92 and 0.92, respectively (see Table 1).

International positive and negative affect schedule-short form (I-PANAS-SF). The I-PANAS-SF (E. R. Thompson, 2007), a semantic differential scale, was used to measure employee positive affect and negative affect. The I-PANAS-SF is comprised of two 5-item mood scales containing words that describe positive affect (e.g., alert, inspired, determined, attentive, and active), and negative affect (e.g., upset, hostile, ashamed, nervous, and afraid) and incorporated a five-point anchored scale with 5 = *always* to 1 = *never*. To provide respondents with a frame-of-reference when rating affect, the I-PANAS-SF items were prefaced with: "When thinking about your interactions

TABLE 1 Hypothesized variable means, standard deviations, and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Directive behavior	3.40	1.15	(0.98)										
2. Supportive behavior	4.01	1.14	0.67	(0.98)									
3. Other-orientation	3.51	1.12	0.36	0.54	(0.92)								
4. Self-concern	3.20	1.21	-0.16	-0.18	-0.41	(0.92)							
5. Positive affect	3.41	0.98	0.39	0.53	0.72	-0.37	(0.88)						
6. Negative affect	1.53	0.74	-0.34	-0.55	-0.71	0.50	-0.73	(0.85)					
7. Intent to use discret. Effort	3.84	1.31	0.27	0.41	0.60	-0.34	0.62	-0.55	(0.87)				
8. Intent to perform	4.89	1.23	0.32	0.40	0.59	-0.36	0.67	-0.63	0.66	(0.95)			
9. Intent to endorse	4.55	1.30	0.31	0.38	0.56	-0.35	0.59	-0.56	0.66	0.80	(0.95)		
10. Intent to stay	3.99	1.38	0.31	0.38	0.51	-0.32	0.57	-0.54	0.55	0.62	0.72	(0.91)	
11. Intent to use OCB	4.94	1.09	0.26	0.34	0.50	-0.29	0.61	-0.53	0.57	0.77	0.73	0.58	(0.91)

Note. N = 409. Cronbach's alpha internal-consistency reliability coefficients appear in parentheses along the main diagonal. All correlations were significant at $p < 0.01$.

with your leader, to what extent do you genuinely feel...". The "frame-of-reference" effect is based on the belief that individuals' behavior is conditional on the situation (Lievens, De Corte, & Schollaert, 2008). Lievens et al. (2008) suggested that the prediction of behavior may be improved when respondents are given a specific frame-of-reference when asked to describe the behavior of others. Support for the use of a frame-of-reference as a way of improving the criterion-related validity of scales has been reported (Bing, Whanger, Davison, & VanHook, 2004). E. R. Thompson (2007) reported positive affect and negative affect subscales had alpha reliability coefficients of 0.78 and 0.76, respectively. In this study, the alpha reliability coefficients for positive affect and negative affect scales were 0.88 and 0.85, respectively (see Table 1).

Work intention inventory-short form (WII-SF). Employee work intentions were measured by the WII-SF (Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015b) consisting of five intention scales: (a) intent to use discretionary effort, (b) intent to perform, (c) intent to endorse the organization, (d) intent to stay in the organization, and (e) intent to use OCB. All scales included three items per scale. Respondents were asked to rate their behavioral intentions using a six-point anchored scale (6 = *to the fullest extent* to 1 = *to no extent*). To provide respondents with a frame-of-reference when rating intentions WII-SF items were prefaced with: "To what extent do the following statements reflect how you intend to behave when working with your leader and performing within your organisation?" Acceptable convergent and discriminant validity for the five scales of the WII-SF and associated alpha reliability coefficients ranging from 0.76 to 0.95 were reported (Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015b). In this study, alpha reliability coefficients for work intention scales ranged from 0.87 to 0.95 (see Table 1).

3.3 | Procedures

Research design. We believe mediation is fundamental to the EWPA process (Zigarmi et al., 2011). We acknowledge that longitudinal or experimental designs are ideal to test relations in hypothesized mediation models (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2017; Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2008). However, due to the time impost that a longitudinal design would require of participating employees, ongoing access to the sample was not granted. In addition, considering the focus of this study was to investigate leadership as a key boundary condition to the formulation of employee work passion in organizations, a field study setting, involving a sample of organizational employees, was preferred to a laboratory experiment. Consequently, a cross-sectional design was implemented in a field setting with the aim of gathering correlational data to investigate whether the pattern of covariances among measured variables was consistent with hypothesized relations. We acknowledge that other causal models could also be consistent with the same pattern of covariances identified in this study. Furthermore, to reduce concerns relating to testing mediated relations using cross-sectional data, we incorporated the following procedural and analytical recommendations offered by Aguinis et al. (2017): (a) the use of valid and reliable measures, (b) the use of multiple item measures for all constructs, (c) use of a multimediator model, (d) structural equation modeling (SEM) was the primary analytic method, (e) given the theory under consideration predicted complete mediation, a full mediation model was used as a baseline model and then the consequences of omitting the direct effect on the fit of the model were tested, and (f) indirect effects were tested for significance using bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Common method bias (CMB). The following procedures were incorporated to reduce concerns relating to internal reliability and external validity that could arise from studies that rely upon a single theory, a single method, and a single set of data (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012): (1) Data source triangulation, that is, the use of multiple data sources, all with a similar focus, to obtain data about the relationships between the variables being investigated (Denzin, 2009). Data were gathered from three different organizations (operating in three different industries and located in geographically distinct areas), and from employees at different levels within each organization (associate, supervisor/-manager, and director/executive). (2) Questionnaire design: a multiple measures approach was deployed, different response formats and different frequency-anchored rating scales were used to measure independent and dependent variables, items within constructs were randomized, items requesting demographic data were placed at the end of the questionnaire to reduce response bias such as acquiescence and/or stereotypic responding (Lindell & Whitney,

2001). (3) Survey administration process: at multiple points in the survey administration process, respondents were assured of anonymity, confidentiality, and that there were no right or wrong answers. (4) Statistical procedures: the “unmeasured common latent factor technique” (CLF, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) that required the addition of an unmeasured and uncorrelated first-order latent factor to the measurement model was implemented during data analysis. Thus, the systematic variance common to those items that is attributed to obtaining the measures from the same source and is independent of the covariance due to the constructs of interest was controlled when assessing the significance of structural paths (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Control variables. Gender, age, organizational level, and organizational tenure were included as control variables to account for the possibility that demographically diverse respondents may differ in their work intentions considering previous findings reported these demographic variables to be associated with study independent variables (Holtz & Harold, 2013) and study dependent variables such as discretionary effort (Zacher, Rosing, Henning, & Frese, 2011), job performance (Ho et al., 2011; McAllister et al., 2017; Ng & Feldman, 2008), and OCB (McAllister et al., 2017).

Statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics relating to study variables were calculated and bivariate correlational analysis was used to examine all hypothesized relations. To confirm the latent factor structure within the data, Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) methodological SEM “two-step approach” was employed. Put simply, measurement model analysis preceded those for structural models.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) included three sequential steps. Step 1: Each of the 11 hypothesized latent factors was individually assessed for construct validity. Step 2: The 11-factor measurement model was assessed for construct validity. Step 3: The 11-factor measurement model was assessed for evidence of common method bias utilizing the “unmeasured common latent factor” (CLF) technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Assessment of construct validity included examining model fit, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Model fit was evaluated by assessing parameter estimates, that is, statistical significance and acceptable levels of standardized factor loadings (SFLs) (≥ 0.50 and ideally ≥ 0.70), standardized errors, squared multiple correlations (SMCs) (> 0.50), and overall model evaluation (acceptable levels for the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic and fit indices) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Hu and Bentler's (1999) guidelines were adopted in relation to assessing model evaluation: Chi-square (χ^2)/df (1.0–2.0 good; 2.0–3.0 acceptable), Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (≤ 0.06 good), Standardized Root Mean-square Residual (SRMR) (≤ 0.08 good), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (≥ 0.95 good), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (≥ 0.95 good). In instances where parameter estimates and the goodness-of-fit statistics indicated a poor fit of the model to the data, residuals and modification indices were examined to detect causes of model mis-specification. Consequently, the addition of freely estimated parameters (one at a time), or the deletion of an underperforming item (and therefore a path) in relation to model integrity, model fit or construct validity was implemented. The χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistical comparison of difference test was calculated to determine if the difference in fit between two hierarchical, nested models (i.e., an original model and the respecified model) was statistically significant.

Four tests of the data were applied to assess measurement model convergent validity: (1) acceptable model fit, (2) statistically significant SFLs, (3) average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor must be > 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), and (4) composite reliability (CR) for each factor must be ≥ 0.60 (Hair et al., 2010). To assess measurement model discriminant validity, a comparison of measures of model fit for a single factor model versus a multifactor model was conducted (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) and the Fornell and Larcker (1981) test was applied to each latent factor, that is, the square root of AVE $>$ than any interfactor correlation, the maximum shared variance (MSV) $<$ AVE, and the average shared variance (ASV) $<$ AVE. To test for CMB, the CLF technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003) required the addition of an unmeasured and uncorrelated first-order latent factor to the 11-factor measurement model. The difference between standardized regression weights of structural paths was calculated for measurement models with and without the common latent factor. A difference in standardized regression weights of < 0.20 was considered acceptable.

Structural model analysis followed guidelines offered by Kline (2011) who argued that endogenous variable disturbance terms can be correlated if there is no direct effect between the endogenous variables and if there are

substantive reasons for specifying such correlations. If correlated error is not accounted for, biased estimates can result with general and random effects (Kline, 2011). The disturbance terms of the two affect endogenous constructs and those of the work intention endogenous constructs were allowed to covary, respectively. Two reasons support this decision: (1) theory suggested positive affect and negative affect are correlated and that the intention constructs are correlated and, therefore, the respective disturbance terms are not likely to be independent of each other, and (2) the bivariate correlational analysis and the CFA indicated that positive affect and negative affect were highly correlated (negatively) and that the five intention constructs were moderately to highly correlated (positively). Additionally, because the assumption of complete mediation was the basis of hypothesized relations, we first tested the hypothesized completed mediated model, then tested an alternative partially mediated model (which included the addition of direct paths from environmental variables to work intention variables) (L. R. James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006).

The following sequential steps were taken to specify the structural model and assess model fit and validity. Step 1: SEM 1 (the hypothesized completely mediated model without control variables) was assessed for model fit. Step 2: SEM 1 model fit was compared with CFA model fit. Step 3: SEM 2 (a completely mediated model with control variables, that is, gender, age, organization level, organization tenure, were included as exogenous constructs, regressed on all endogenous constructs, covaried with the four environmental exogenous constructs, and covaried with each other) model fit was compared to CFA model fit. Step 4: An alternative, nonhypothesized model (SEM 3) was estimated to evaluate the possibility of a partially mediated model explaining the data better than the hypothesized completely mediated model (SEM 2).

To further assess the significance of total effects and specific indirect effects in the final structural model, effect decomposition analysis was investigated in two steps (Preacher and Hayes, 2008) using bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals ($n = 2000$, confidence intervals set at 95%), a procedure that provides statistical control over the effects of measurement errors and covariates (Hayes, 2009). Step 1: Total indirect effects were calculated. Step 2: Specific indirect effects associated with each putative mediator were calculated. An indirect effect is considered significant at $p < 0.05$ if zero is not included in its 95% confidence interval. The magnitude of indirect effects was gauged as follows: small effect is 0.01, medium effect is around 0.09, and large effect is in the region of 0.25 (Preacher and Kelley, 2011).

4 | RESULTS

Data screening and assumptions. Data were screened for missing data, unengaged respondents, outliers, and normality. Twenty-six cases contained missing data. Thirteen of these cases were missing 70% or more of the data and were deleted (Hair et al., 2010). Post hoc tests diagnosed the randomness of the remaining missing data. The data were missing completely at random (MCAR), as suggested by Little's MCAR test being nonsignificant, $\chi^2(990) = 1,034.34$, $p = 0.16$. Missing data were estimated using expectation maximization (Newman, 2003). Four cases were identified as unengaged respondents, that is, insufficient effort responding (Huang, Curran, Keeney, Poposki, & DeShon, 2012) and were deleted. Twenty-one cases were identified as multivariate outliers and three cases were identified as univariate outliers for multiple items and all were deleted. The final data set was 409, which was considered adequate to achieve an acceptable level of statistical power (Kline, 2011).

SEM assumes that the measured variables have a multivariate normal distribution (Kline, 2011), thus the data were tested for violation of univariate and multivariate normality. Analysis of univariate values for skewness for each variable found two out of 73 variables were moderately non-normal. Considering skewness tends to affect mean-based analysis and even so, tests of means are robust to moderate departures from normality (DeCarlo, 1997), the effects these two variables would have on the SEM analysis (a covariance-based analysis) were considered minor. No variables were found to be significantly univariate kurtotic. Mardia's (1970) normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis was suggestive of non-normality in the sample. Hair et al. (2010) argued that when variables were not

significantly univariate kurtotic, then “any departures from multivariate normality are usually inconsequential” (p. 46) and that violations of the multivariate normality assumption have little impact with larger samples (i.e., $N \geq 200$). Given no variables were significantly univariate kurtotic and the sample size was considered large, the level of multivariate non-normality detected was deemed tolerable.

To guard against concerns relating to pooling data from disparate samples and the possibility that dependent variables may differ systematically by categorical variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine possible differences in the combined dependent variables by organization. The multivariate main effects revealed a statistically significant difference between organizations on the combined dependent variables, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.886$, $F_{(10, 804)} = 5.01$, $p = 0.001$, and $\eta^2 = 0.059$. The results for the dependent variables were considered separately, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.01, and two out of five dependent variables reached statistical significance, that is, intent to use discretionary effort, $F_{(2, 406)} = 7.20$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$ and intent to stay in the organization, $F_{(2, 406)} = 14.02$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.06$. An inspection of the mean scores for both dependent variables indicated that for two organizations, the actual difference in mean scores was small as indicated by the small effect size, that is, 3% (Cohen, 1988). It is important to note that with large samples quite small differences can become statistically significant, even if the difference between groups is of little practical importance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, from a statistical perspective, pooling the data from three organizations was considered acceptable.

Descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics for measured variables are presented in Table 1. All environmental variables were correlated with each other as expected and were in line with theory, for example, directive behavior and supportive behavior were positively correlated ($r = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$) and self-concern and other-orientation were negatively correlated ($r = -0.41$, $p < 0.01$). Positive affect and negative affect were negatively correlated ($r = -0.73$, $p < 0.01$). Work intentions were positively correlated (r s ranged from 0.55 to 0.80, p s < 0.01). Bivariate correlational analysis provided preliminary support for all hypothesized relations. Coefficient alpha of all measures was above the acceptable level (0.70) (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, the data confirmed established reliabilities of all measures.

Measurement models. Step 1: After comparing competing measurement models, empirical evidence indicated that a sufficient level of construct validity existed in the 11 individual CFA models. In the interests of parsimony, these CFA results are not reported here. Step 2: The overall 11 factor measurement model was assessed for construct validity. Parameter estimates indicated all factor loadings were statistically significant, SFLs ranged from 0.79 to 0.97, SMCs ranged from 0.63 to 0.94, and correlation coefficients ranged from 0.19 to 0.84 in absolute value. All these statistics were acceptable. Goodness-of-fit statistics (see Table 2) were acceptable. Acceptable levels of convergent and discriminant validity were found (see Table 3). The measurement model was not respecified. Step 3: To assess the extent of CMB within the data, a comparative analysis of SFLs indicated that the difference between SFLs for all items in the measurement model (i.e., without the CLF) and all items in the measurement model with the CLF were all < 0.20 , and was considered acceptable. Thus, empirical evidence supporting a systematic variance attributed to obtaining the measures from the same source was not found. Overall, the results of the

TABLE 2 Measurement model and structural models

Model	χ^2	df	CMIN/DF	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
CFA	2,776.86	1823	1.523	0.036	0.0355	0.965	0.963	—	—
SEM 1	2,806.43	1843	1.523	0.036	0.0373	0.965	0.963	29.57	20, $p > 0.05$
SEM 2	3,156.01	2051	1.539	0.036	0.0368	0.960	0.957	379.15	228, $p < 0.05$
SEM 3	3,127.21	2031	1.540	0.036	0.0351	0.961	0.957	28.80	20, $p > 0.05$

Notes. CFA: measurement model, SEM 1: fully mediated structural equation model without controls, SEM 2: fully mediated structural equation model with controls, SEM 3: partially mediated structural equation model with controls, CMIN: normed chi-square, RMSEA: Root mean-square error of approximation, SRMR: standardized root mean-square residual, CFI: comparative fit index, TLI: tucker-lewis index, $\Delta\chi^2$: change in chi-square, Δdf : change in degrees of freedom.

CFA indicated the theoretical specification of the factors in the a priori hypothesized model matched the actual data well and thus enabled the confirmation of the theorized model.

Structural models. Step 1: SEM 1 (the hypothesized completely mediated model without control variables) was assessed for model fit and revealed an acceptable goodness-of-fit (CMIN/DF = 1.523, SRMR = 0.0373, CFI = 0.965, TLI = 0.963, and RMSEA = 0.036). For all item indicators, factor loadings were statistically significant and measures for SFLs were all above the minimum cut-off criteria. Step 2: There were three aspects to the comparative assessment of the SEM 1 model fit and the CFA model fit: (1) the χ^2 value for SEM 1 was calculated and the results showed a statistically insignificant increase in value from that of the CFA model ($\Delta\chi^2 [20] = 29.57, p > 0.05$) (see Table 2), (2) SEM 1 fit indices were found not to differ substantially from those of the CFA model, and (3) a comparison of the SFLs for SEM 1 with those from the CFA model revealed differences ranging from 0.001 to 0.005 in absolute value, which were well below the recommended maximum (0.05) (Hair et al., 2010). Considering SEM 1 demonstrated an insignificant $\Delta\chi^2$ compared to the CFA model, and there was no evidence of interpretational confounding of constructs, SEM 1 was strongly suggestive of the adequate structural fit.

Step 3: the SEM 2 (the hypothesized completely mediated model with control variables) model fit was compared to the CFA model fit. SEM 2 revealed an acceptable goodness-of-fit (CMIN/DF = 1.539, SRMR = 0.0368, CFI = 0.960, TLI = 0.957, and RMSEA = 0.036). The only substantive difference between SEM 2 and CFA model was an increase in χ^2 ($\Delta\chi^2 [228] = 379.15, p < 0.05$), which was significant (see Table 2). Examination of structural path estimates between control variables and endogenous constructs revealed out of a total of 28 estimated structural paths, seven were significant. Examination of correlations between control variables and environmental constructs revealed out of a total of 16 estimated relations, two were significant. These findings suggest that SEM 2 did an adequate, but not perfect, job in explaining the observed covariance matrix. Importantly, the inclusion of the control variables in SEM 2 did not alter the overall model fit or the significance of relations with one caveat being the relation between negative affect and intent to perform, which was significantly negatively related in SEM 1 ($\beta = -0.145, p < 0.05$) but not significant (ns) in SEM 2 ($\beta = -0.125, p = 0.058$) although it was still in the expected direction. Overall, the direction of the hypothesized relations and their magnitude did not alter significantly in SEM 2. Given the presence of significant relations between control variables and endogenous work intention constructs, all four control variables were retained in the structural model. Thus, SEM 2 became the baseline model in subsequent analyses.

Step 4: SEM 3 (controlling for gender, age, organization level, and organization tenure) included all paths estimated in SEM 2 plus direct paths from each of the four environmental constructs to each of the five work intention constructs. SEM 3 revealed an acceptable goodness-of-fit (CMIN/DF = 1.540, SRMR = 0.0351, CFI = 0.961, TLI = 0.957, and RMSEA = 0.036). The $\Delta\chi^2$ statistic showed a statistically insignificant decrease in the value from that of SEM 2 ($\Delta\chi^2 [20] = 28.800, p > 0.05$) (see Table 2). Fit indices showed very minor improvements from those of SEM 2. Out of a total of 20 additional direct paths, bootstrapped standardized direct effects were estimated for SEM 3, only the direct relation between leader other-orientation and intent to use discretionary effort was significant ($\beta = 0.234, p = 0.029$). Overall, these results supported the hypothesized model. Thus, SEM 2 was accepted as the final structural model (Figure 2).

Final model interpretation. Figure 2 depicts the final structural model (SEM 2). Environmental factors were significantly and moderately correlated as hypothesized and correlation coefficients were ≤ 0.70 and thus acceptable. Thus, H1a, H1b, H1c, and H1d were confirmed. Directive behavior was positively related to positive affect (as expected) although this path was not significant ($\beta = 0.056, p > 0.05$). The positive path between directive behavior and negative affect ($\beta = 0.108, p > 0.05$) was not significant and not consistent with the bivariate correlation coefficient ($r = -0.34, p < 0.01$) nor the correlation coefficient in the CFA model ($r = -0.321, p < 0.001$). Thus, H2a was not supported. Supportive behavior and other-orientation were significantly and positively related to positive affect as hypothesized ($\beta = 0.138, p < 0.05$, and $\beta = 0.628, p < 0.001$, respectively). Supportive behavior and other-orientation were significantly and negatively related to negative affect as hypothesized ($\beta = -0.264, p < 0.001$, and $\beta = -0.469, p < 0.001$, respectively). Self-concern was significantly and negatively related to positive affect ($\beta = -0.112, p < 0.01$) and significantly and positively related to negative affect ($\beta = 0.299, p < 0.001$) as expected. Thus, H2b, H2c, and H2d were supported.

TABLE 3 Measurement model convergent and discriminant validity through AVE and factor correlation analysis

Factor	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Directive behavior	0.98	0.86	0.49	0.14	0.93										
2. Supportive behavior	0.98	0.85	0.49	0.24	0.70	0.92									
3. Other-orientation	0.93	0.87	0.61	0.36	0.41	0.60	0.93								
4. Self-concern	0.91	0.83	0.29	0.15	-0.19	-0.25	-0.44	0.91							
5. Positive affect	0.90	0.70	0.61	0.41	0.43	0.59	0.78	-0.43	0.83						
6. Negative affect	0.86	0.68	0.56	0.32	-0.32	-0.54	-0.71	0.54	-0.75	0.82					
7. Intent to use discret. Effort	0.88	0.71	0.52	0.34	0.29	0.45	0.65	-0.39	0.71	-0.55	0.84				
8. Intent to perform	0.96	0.88	0.71	0.41	0.33	0.43	0.65	-0.42	0.73	-0.61	0.71	0.94			
9. Intent to endorse	0.95	0.86	0.71	0.38	0.32	0.40	0.58	-0.39	0.64	-0.54	0.72	0.84	0.93		
10. Intent to stay	0.92	0.84	0.50	0.27	0.30	0.37	0.51	-0.33	0.59	-0.47	0.59	0.60	0.71	0.92	
11. Intent to use OCB	0.91	0.78	0.69	0.34	0.27	0.37	0.55	-0.34	0.67	-0.53	0.64	0.83	0.78	0.58	0.88

Notes. ASV: average shared variance; AVE: average variance extracted; CR: composite reliability; MSV: maximum shared variance. All correlations were significant at $p < 0.001$. Square root of AVE in bold on the diagonal.

Positive affect was positively and significantly related to all five work intentions (β s ranged from 0.548 to 0.656, all p s < 0.001). Thus, H3a was confirmed. Negative affect was not related significantly to the five work intentions. Thus, H3b was not supported. These results indicated that positive affect was a stronger predictor of employee work intentions compared to negative affect. Thus, H3c was confirmed.

Considering the size, direction, and significance of covariance and structural relations, support for an acceptable level of validity for SEM 2 was found. Out of a total of seven endogenous constructs, four had SMCs above the ideal minimum standard of 0.50 (Kline, 2011). For the endogenous constructs intent to endorse the organization (45%), intent to stay in the organization (41%), and intent to use OCB (48%), the sizes of the SMCs indicated that the predictors of these constructs accounted for slightly less than half of the variance associated with these constructs, which are lower than ideal but acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). Endogenous construct correlated disturbance term covariances are listed in Table 4. Overall, all of these results support the theoretical model.

Effect decomposition analysis. Table 5 lists the total indirect effects that environmental variables had on work intentions through affect as a combined mediator. Total indirect effects for directive behavior on work intentions through affect were all insignificant (and in the interests of parsimony are not listed). Total indirect effects for supportive behavior, other-orientation, and self-concern on work intentions through affect were statistically significant because the respective 95% CI do not contain zero (Hayes, 2009). Specific indirect effects that environmental variables had on work intentions through positive affect and through negative affect are listed Tables 6 and 7, respectively. Specific indirect effects for directive behavior on work intentions through positive affect and through negative affect were all insignificant (and in the interests of parsimony are not listed). Specific indirect effects indicated that positive affect (and not negative affect) mediated relations between supportive behavior, other-orientation, and self-concern and work intentions because the respective 95% CI do not contain zero. The strongest specific indirect effects were other-orientation on work intentions through positive affect. Thus, H4 was partially

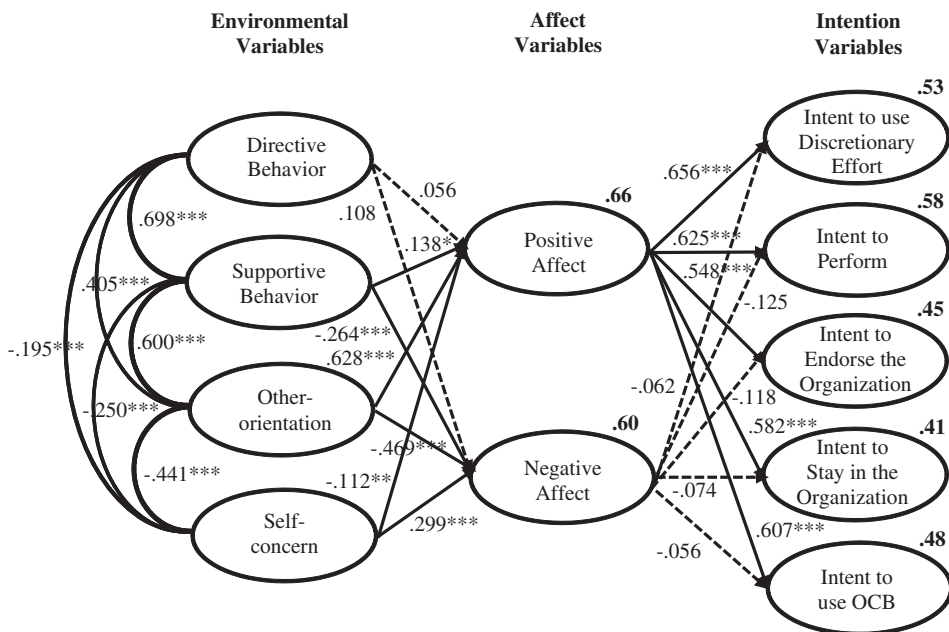


FIGURE 2 Structural model 2 depicts employee affect completely mediating relations between cognitive environmental variables and employee work intentions. Standardized estimates are presented. Solid arrow indicates a significant relationship at * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001. Dotted arrow indicates a nonsignificant relationship at p > .05. Estimates appearing above-right of endogenous variables in bold indicate the amount of variance explained (R^2)

TABLE 4 Structural model 2 covariances

Correlational relationship			Standardized estimates
Directive behavior	<—>	Supportive behavior	0.698
Directive behavior	<—>	Other-orientation	0.405
Directive behavior	<—>	Self-concern	−0.195
Supportive behavior	<—>	Other-orientation	0.600
Supportive behavior	<—>	Self-concern	−0.250
Self-concern	<—>	Other-orientation	−0.441
Negative affect RES	<—>	Positive affect RES	−0.393
Dis. effort RES	<—>	Perform RES	0.387
Dis. effort RES	<—>	Endorse RES	0.486
Dis. effort RES	<—>	Stay RES	0.327
Dis. effort RES	<—>	OCB RES	0.319
Perform RES	<—>	OCB RES	0.656
Endorse RES	<—>	Perform RES	0.685
Endorse RES	<—>	Stay RES	0.571
Endorse RES	<—>	OCB RES	0.590
Stay RES	<—>	Perform RES	0.348
Stay RES	<—>	OCB RES	0.342

Note. Standardized estimates are presented. All correlations were significant at $p < 0.001$.

TABLE 5 SEM 2—total indirect effects of environmental constructs on work intentions through affect

Work intention constructs	Environmental constructs					
	Supportive behavior		Other-orientation		Self-concern	
	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI
Dis. effort	0.130 (0.027)*	0.017, 0.246	0.475 (0.001)*	0.382, 0.586	−0.094 (0.009)*	−0.158, −0.021
Perform	0.145 (0.014)*	0.032, 0.274	0.487 (0.001)*	0.388, 0.591	−0.110 (0.004)*	−0.176, −0.035
Endorse	0.134 (0.015)*	0.027, 0.251	0.445 (0.001)*	0.354, 0.546	−0.102 (0.006)*	−0.165, −0.031
Stay	0.138 (0.015)*	0.019, 0.260	0.493 (0.001)*	0.389, 0.610	−0.102 (0.002)*	−0.169, −0.029
OCB	0.098 (0.021)*	0.011, 0.198	0.359 (0.001)*	0.271, 0.445	−0.071 (0.019)*	−0.158, −0.007

Notes. Unstandardized coefficients reported, BE: bootstrap estimate, p value in parentheses, *Indirect effect is significantly different from zero, BC: biased corrected, and CI: confidence interval.

TABLE 6 SEM 2—indirect effects of environmental constructs on work intentions through positive affect

Work intention constructs	Environmental constructs					
	Supportive behavior		Other-orientation		Self-concern	
	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI
Dis. effort	0.110 (0.038)*	0.003, 0.229	0.444 (0.001)*	0.310, 0.595	−0.075 (0.010)*	−0.139, −0.016
Perform	0.105 (0.031)*	0.007, 0.218	0.424 (0.001)*	0.300, 0.575	−0.072 (0.010)*	−0.137, −0.015
Endorse	0.095 (0.027)*	0.008, 0.210	0.383 (0.001)*	0.261, 0.538	−0.065 (0.008)*	−0.123, −0.015
Stay	0.111 (0.033)*	0.006, 0.229	0.450 (0.001)*	0.311, 0.597	−0.076 (0.008)*	−0.147, −0.017
OCB	0.083 (0.030)*	0.006, 0.173	0.336 (0.001)*	0.234, 0.456	−0.057 (0.018)*	−0.107, −0.015

Notes. Unstandardized coefficients reported, BE: bootstrap estimate, p value in parentheses, *Indirect effect is significantly different from zero, BC: biased corrected, and CI: confidence interval.

TABLE 7 SEM 2—indirect effects of environmental constructs on work intentions through negative affect

Work intention constructs	Environmental constructs					
	Supportive behavior		Other-orientation		Self-concern	
	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI	BE	BC 95% CI
Dis. effort	0.020 (0.368)	−0.036, 0.097	0.031 (0.432)	−0.060, 0.145	−0.019 (0.426)	−0.082, 0.035
Perform	0.040 (0.140)	−0.018, 0.114	0.063 (0.208)	−0.037, 0.174	−0.038 (0.184)	−0.102, 0.019
Endorse	0.039 (0.135)	−0.018, 0.110	0.062 (0.182)	−0.036, 0.172	−0.037 (0.178)	−0.095, 0.019
Stay	0.027 (0.250)	−0.023, 0.101	0.043 (0.308)	−0.041, 0.147	−0.026 (0.302)	−0.088, 0.023
OCB	0.015 (0.416)	−0.033, 0.075	0.023 (0.529)	−0.054, 0.114	−0.014 (0.488)	−0.065, 0.032

Notes. Unstandardized coefficients reported, BE: bootstrap estimate, *p* value in parentheses, *Indirect effect is significantly different from zero, BC: biased corrected, and CI: confidence interval.

supported with a caveat for relations between directive behavior on work intentions through positive affect and negative affect.

5 | DISCUSSION

This study investigated correlations between employee cognitive perceptions of leader behavior and leader values, employee affect, and work intentions in Australian organizations. Out of a total of 18 hypothesized structural paths, 11 were significant and in the expected direction. Considering the size, direction, and significance of covariance and structural relations, overall, statistical results indicated that the hypothesized model did an acceptable, but not perfect, job in explaining the observed covariance matrix. Although these findings were, on the whole, consistent with the study's hypothesized model, it is not the only model that could be consistent with these results. Additionally, the EWPA model provides a basis for investigating relations among hypothesized latent constructs (cognition, affect, and work intentions) in a "statistical sense", however, our findings do not imply that the measured variables are causally related.

Results indicated that relations between environmental constructs and affect constructs were statistically significant and in the hypothesized direction with caveats for the relations between directive behavior and positive affect and directive behavior and negative affect. Employee perceptions of leaders' use of directive behavior and the positive (although not significant) association with negative affect may be explained by the "antagonistic" nature of directive behaviors when leaders fail to appropriately calibrate them in relation to employee needs, resulting in reduced employee attitudinal outcomes such as trust in leader (Schurer-Lambert et al., 2012). Contrastingly, when supportive behaviors (characterized as a "synergistic supply") are used in excess in relation to employee needs, employee attitudinal outcomes remain favorable (Schurer-Lambert et al., 2012).

Of the four environmental constructs, the positive relation between other-orientation and positive affect was, comparatively, the strongest of all possible pairings of environmental constructs and positive affect. The negative relation between other-orientation and negative affect was, comparatively, the strongest of all possible pairings of environmental constructs and negative affect. These findings suggest that employees who perceived leaders to demonstrate other-orientated behavior were likely to report high levels of positive affect and less likely to report high levels of negative affect. Contrastingly, for those leaders who were perceived to hold self-focused values, employees were likely to report high levels of negative affect and less likely to report high levels of positive affect. These results support previous findings that suggested that employee emotional responses are linked to leader behaviors (Dasborough, 2006). For example, self-sacrificing leader values and other-focused leader behavior have been found to have significant positive impacts on employee emotions, motivation, and performance (De Cremer, 2006; De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005).

Relations between positive affect and all five work intentions were positive, significant, and the magnitude of these relations was consistently large in effect size. Relations between negative affect and the five work intentions were non-significant. These results suggested that employee negative affective responses to leader behaviors and leader values were not related to work intentions. Results relating to the nature of relations between employee positive and negative affect and work intentions, respectively, support those reported in the employee work passion literature (e.g., Zigarmi et al., 2011, 2015; Zigarmi & Roberts, 2012). The presence of significant specific indirect effects between supportive behavior, leader other-orientation, and leader self-concern on work intentions through positive affect, and the absence of significant direct effects in the final structural model, support the hypothesized role of affect (albeit positive affect) in completely and indirectly mediating relations between environmental constructs and work intentions (although relations between directive behavior and work intentions were exceptions).

5.1 | Implications and considerations for HRD practitioners

A first important implication from this research is that its findings support the contention that strategic and operational leaders must be sensitive to the affective dimensions of an employee's work life. It is no longer tenable to hear a manager say to an employee, "this is not personal, this is business". Emotions are part of doing business. HRD practitioners should note that employee affect, particularly positive affect, is a critical emotional state that is intertwined with perceptions of leadership and has impacts on positive organizational outcomes. When HR practitioners think about the recruitment and development of leaders, consideration should be given to attitudes and programs that help and require leaders to identify, understand, and manage their emotions and those of others. Leaders must be expected to promote thought, through emotions, in short, cultivate a sense of emotional intelligence in themselves and others.

A second take away from this study is that the expression of positive employee emotions must be legitimized and cultivated as desirable in organizations through an emphasis on leaders who put the concerns of others above their own. One of the strongest pairings in this study was between employee perceptions of leaders' value orientations and positive affect. When leaders are perceived as being concerned with the needs and agendas of others, and less so with their own, there is a high probability that positive affective connections will form between leaders and employees. Additionally, employee intent to use discretionary effort, to perform, to endorse the organization, to stay with the organization, and to be a positive organizational citizen will likely be high. Contrastingly, employees who perceived leaders to be self-concerned were more apt to report negative affect. HRD practitioners need to encourage leaders to adopt and develop other-focussed values to arouse positive emotional states in employees, which will assist in achieving desirable outcomes. For employees to be passionate about their work, they must feel that being positive about their work life is important. Being joyful is part of being passionate about ones' work.

A third implication from this research is that HRD practitioners must understand the benefits that stem from the use of "micro behaviors" that combine in leader direction and leader support (Benson et al., 2012). The present study found evidence that supportive behaviors are positively related to positive affect and strongly and negatively related to negative affect. HRD practitioners should implement leadership development programs based on the use of supportive behaviors such as active listening skills, facilitating problem solving, sharing information about self and the organization's operations and needs, providing rationale for decisions, and asking for input from those who will be affected by the decisions.

Leadership development programs are a viable way to increase leader effectiveness and organizational success (Arthur, Bennett, Edens, & Bell, 2003; Collins & Holton, 2004). However, the effectiveness of such programs depends upon the inclusion of impactful behaviors. In the present study, results show that supportive behaviors (as listed here) were empirically associated with employee affect and thus help when it comes to cultivating a sense of employee positive affect. These results provide HRD practitioners with insight into which specific leader behaviors should be included in leadership development programs so participants have opportunities to develop skills that are likely to

engender positive follower emotions that contribute to and strengthen leader-follower relations, and which have implications for desirable work intentions.

In summary, HRD practitioners must work toward building healthy organizational cultures characterized by a style of leadership that has evolved from heroic models “that encourage adulation of a few gifted leaders at the top of organisations” (Alban-Metcalf & Alimo-Metcalf, 2007, p. 116) to a style that emphasizes sensitivity to the emotional (both positive and negative) dimensions of followers. Concurrently, HRD practitioners must insist on leaders fulfilling a service role characterized by leader respect and genuine concern for the well-being for others, and one in which both developmental and performance orientated needs of others are prioritized.

5.2 | Directions for future research

This study extended previous research on the employee work passion appraisal process by demonstrating that employee positive affective inferences relating to perceptions of leader behavior and leader values are associated with employee work intentions. Three implications for theory stem from this study. First, the finding that supportive behavior is significantly related to employee work intentions via employee affect and that directive behavior was not significantly related to employee work intentions or employee affect has implications for the ongoing study of leadership. For example, over the past three decades the full-range model of leadership (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985) has received an immense amount of research attention (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) yet, some authors (e.g., Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2010) argued that other leader behaviors, particularly those relating to the transactional leadership construct, could add to the predictive efficacy of the overall full-range leadership model and, therefore, should be explored more fully. Piccolo et al. (2012) provided empirical support that underscored respective relations between Consideration and Initiating Structure and organizational effectiveness outcomes and argued that the veracity of the full-range leadership model could be enhanced by the inclusion of Consideration and to a lesser extent, Initiating Structure. The present findings suggested that supportive leadership behavior could be an impactful addition to the taxonomy of transactional leadership behaviors within the full-range leadership model.

Second, this study found self-concern and other-orientation were separately and indirectly related to work intentions via employee positive affect. However, the methodology used in this study did not allow for the understanding of the impact of self-concern and other-orientation in combination. For example, De Dreu and Nauta (2009) contended that these constructs combine into a prosocial value orientation (high self-concern with low other-orientation) and a prosocial value orientation (high self-concern with high other-orientation). These social value orientations have been demonstrated to affect the ways in which individuals think and behave in relation to negotiation cognition and behavior (De Dreu, Beersma, Stroebe, & Euwema, 2006), interdepartmental problem solving (Nauta et al., 2002), and social settings (De Dreu & McCusker, 1997). Future research could examine the degree to which these value orientations relate to employee affect and work intentions.

Third, these results suggest that in Australian organizations, employee appraisals of supportive behavior and leader self focused and other focused value orientations are differentially linked to employee positive affect, which is related to work intentions. This observation is important as it provides preliminary evidence that relations that underpin the EWPA model can begin to be generalized across countries albeit an individualistic culture. However, further research examining the EWPA model using non-USA samples is recommended. Furthermore, the participating organizations in this study were of medium size, from the private sector, and Australian. In previous studies of the EWPA model, the participating organizations were of different size, from a variety of sectors, and from the USA. Alternative influences that could explain the differences in results relating to the mediating role of employee affect could be related but not limited to employee cultural differences, organizational size, organizational type, and organizational culture. For example, Australian employees may attach greater emotional resources when appraising leaders compared to their USA counterparts. Thus, the role of cross-cultural influences in the appraisal of leaders in the context of employee work passion warrants investigation. Relations between organizational culture, leader behavior, and performance in organizations generally are well documented (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Schein, 1985), as it is in

Australian organizations (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Wallace, Hunt, & Richards, 1999), however, these alternative influences relating to the role of affect in the EWPA model are yet to be examined.

5.3 | Limitations

First, given the cross-sectional design of this study, the temporal primacy of the focal constructs cannot be verified. Conclusions based on the findings in this study are limited by the correlational nature of examined relations. Conclusions regarding the order of causality of focal constructs are only possible by deploying randomized experimental or longitudinal designs in which variance within individuals across time could be examined in addition to variance between individuals. Second, future employee work passion research designs could incorporate leader self-report data that could provide validation of employee perceptions of organization environmental antecedents. While there are several strengths in this study that stem from a quantitative research strategy, qualitative methods (e.g., the use of case studies, interviews, and diary studies) that are not grounded in an a priori hypothesized model could further enlighten the EWPA model or uncover contextual factors that may influence it. A third limitation relates to observations of leaders interacting with followers. Critics such as Yukl (2012) recommended using observational data to supplement survey measures of leader behavior. Fourth, this study was undertaken within the context of Australian private sector organizations. While this narrow scope enhances internal validity of the findings, it inhibits generalizability of the findings to other sectors (e.g., public, nonprofit) and collectivist cultures.

6 | CONCLUSION

This study provides organizational scholars and HRD practitioners with empirical evidence that suggested that in Australian private sector organizations, supportive behavior, leader other-orientation, and positive affect play stronger roles within in the employee work passion appraisal process than do directive behavior, leader self-concern, and negative affect. We hope these findings provide insights relating to the integration of leadership theory and work passion theory so that HRD practitioners can develop and implement appropriate interventions to leverage the workplace conditions that engender passionate employees.

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