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## EDITORIAL

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# The situation of Open Access initiatives in Europe

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GEORGE GUNNESCH-LUCA

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Academic journal publishers are currently riding an enormous success wave. That academic publishing is really big business should take no one by surprise, nevertheless, a rundown of the numbers may provide some perspective on its magnitude. Take, for example, Elsevier, the Amsterdam-based publishing powerhouse: According to 2017 data, the publisher has been reporting yearly profit margins that reach upwards of 36%, something that companies with considerably larger mindshare, such as Apple, Starbucks, or Disney, are struggling to even come close to. Several factors are at play here: Good management, solid business practices, a strong paywall system, but perhaps less obvious is access to a constant stream of public expenditure. Of note, about a third of the total global research budget is spent on publishing and communicating research results. However, this has not always been the case.

In times before the Internet, the deal between national or private academic institutions and publishing houses was relatively straight-forward: For a fairly low price per article, the institutions could gain access to a large number of journals. As time passed, however, and for a variety of reasons (e.g., increasing number of journals), publishers started to increase prices, so much so that in early 2012, one of the world's wealthiest academic institutions, Harvard University, issued an internal memo warning

that the \$3.5m bill – representing the yearly amount due to publishers – is not sustainable, citing in some cases an increase of 145% over the previous six years. Furthermore, the memo also encouraged the faculty members to stop submitting to paywalled journals, and start making their research freely available via Open-Access alternatives. This was a warning shot to everyone, as the issues at hand were not isolated to Harvard alone. Pricing hikes were observed worldwide. For example, even if the exact numbers are not precisely known because the contracts are – for the most part – confidential, the increase in overall costs was estimated by librarians in Germany at the beginning of 2017 to be about 5% per year, with almost 60% of the yearly library budgets being allocated to the top three publishers (Elsevier, Springer Nature, and Wiley). This trend of increased pricing has put more pressure on national research budgets, which, in turn, must be defensible and approved yearly. Therefore, allocating large amounts of financial resources to libraries has been increasingly difficult to justify to national authorities.

Money, however important, is only part of the problem research institutes are facing. The paywall system developed to counter the consequences of rapid Internet adoption, and the issue of free labour that is provided by authors, peer-reviewers, and editors, are considered to be just as crucial to research

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institutes, if not more so. Within the existing status-quo, academics donate and invest taxpayer subsidised, valuable work hours, know-how, and information in the research process, whose end-product (i.e., the research report) will not be accessible to the vast majority of the paying population due to publisher paywalling. This is, in fact, the fundamental issue, and the main motivating force behind what was to come, for, why should research sponsored by taxpayers end up behind a paywall? There are several additional minor arguments along this main contentious point, such as the natural desire for a bigger impact factor (which is innate to research – why research at all if not for the benefit of all?), and a derivative of it; a moral argument of providing researchers from low income countries free access to new and relevant information, thereby speeding up global development rates.

Academic bodies argue, “Reform is needed,” and one proposed solution is to move to a full (or a flavour of an) Open-Access model. Open Access (OA) literature has been defined as “digital, online, free of charge, and free of most copyright and licensing restrictions” (Suber, 2012), and includes almost all types of scholarly communication: preprints, articles, books, book chapters, and datasets.

European universities and libraries have been pushing for contract re-negotiations with publishers for some time now, partly because there is a strong shift in European OA mandates on an inter-governmental level. For example, in 2016, the European Competitiveness Council (formed by the ministers of science, innovation, trade, and industry from the Union States) called for a more aggressive stance on adopting OA policies. The initial plan suggested full OA for European research institutes as early as 2020. Although overly optimistic, it has definitely impacted subsequent policies, as demonstrated by the heavy emphasis on OA in the next long-term EU research and innovation programme, Horizon Europe (2021–2027), for which the Commission is proposing a budget of €100 billion. Among several new features, Horizon Europe includes OA as one of the

main pillars, as “...the principle of 'open science' will become the modus operandi of Horizon Europe, requiring open access to publications and data. This will assist market uptake and increase the innovation potential of results generated by EU funding.” The plan is to make it sustainable through a combination of policies, hardware solutions, and research aid, known as the European Open Science Cloud (EOSC).

These international developments, coupled with various national stances on science budgeting, provided academic institutions with the motivation and leverage to stand up for contract renegotiations, something they have been vigorously doing for at least two years now – with some remarkable outcomes.

From 2016 onward, Germany’s Project DEAL – which represents a united front of more than 200 German libraries, universities, and research institutes – forced academic publishers into lengthy negotiations, with the purpose of advancing a new business model that includes open access and a fairer subscription system. For example, DEAL has been pushing for a so-called PAR (Publish and Read) model, in which all publications by the corresponding authors become open access the moment they are published (representing the Publish component), and all the institutions represented by DEAL obtain continuous access to the whole portfolio of the publisher (the Read component). Furthermore, DEAL has been pleading for a new pricing scheme, which would allow it to sink its costs from an estimated €4000 per paper (under the current subscription model) to a number ranging from €1300 to €2000 per paper. It is clear that the Publish and Read model promoted by German librarians addresses some of the criticisms levelled at Open Access systems, and meets the publishers at the halfway line. For example, one of the bigger challenges is the question of whether OA is a viable business model at all. Shifting fees from governments to the authors is clearly not helpful, and would only lead to increased publishing in so-called predatory journals, whose email advertisements even now are filling up researchers’ email inbox. Platinum OA journals – where publishing costs are

supported by the publisher – are rare, and this would further put authors in an unfortunate bargaining position against the now ubiquitous governmental love affair with austerity measures.

These issues aside, negotiations ended in 2018, with Springer Nature and Wiley agreeing in principle (perhaps also because their current model already fits the project DEAL's price range goal), however, Elsevier declined, and thus DEAL chose to walk away from the table and lose access to Elsevier content. Sometime later, the Max Planck Society also abandoned negotiations, cancelling subscriptions to Elsevier. This is considered by some to be a serious blow because the Max Planck Society has over 14,000 scientists distributed over 84 institutions that publish over 12,000 articles a year, with about 1,500 in Elsevier journals alone.

Germany is not alone in this fight, with several European countries currently engaged in similar contractual disputes. For example, the Swedish government has been pushing hard towards a goal of immediate open access by the year 2026. The BIBSAM Consortium (an umbrella organisation for 85 higher education and education institutions from Sweden) has suffered the same outcomes as DEAL, choosing to terminate all contracts with Elsevier, starting July 1st 2018, because the publisher would not stop raising prices and would not allow open access publishing. As these words are written, in early 2019, The Norwegian Directorate for ICT, and Shared Services in Higher Education and Research (UNIT)' (which has the same goals of full, open access, but by 2024) was also unable to reach an agreement with Elsevier for 2019, and willing to lose access to a number of Elsevier published journals in the process. In one last example, the Electronic Information Service National Programme (EIS)—a similar Hungarian consortium, with the aim of reaching a read & publish agreement, with the goal of transitioning to a full open access model—has been also pushing for contract renegotiations. Again, Elsevier failed to address the minimum requirements of the Committee, and as of January 2019, all subscriptions were cancelled.

To sum up this update on the latest developments in the fight over OA, 2018 and early 2019 have been quite eventful, as there seems to be, perhaps for the first time, a definite willingness by European universities and libraries to adopt a more confrontational stance towards large academic publishers. The outcome of future negotiations is uncertain. However, it will be a long, difficult process before the major publishers will allow for a new publishing model.

In all fairness to the situation at hand, it is not only the publishers who will need to adapt. If we are to escape the closed ecosystem provided by paywall systems, academics also need to challenge their own set of perceptions. For example, publishing in high-impact journals is considered to be crucial for the tenure-track of the scientist. The logical sequence is that established journals publish better research, and thereby if accepted, the quality of the submitted research is somehow validated. Incidentally, these are mostly paywalled journals. However, recent evidence shows that a more nuanced perspective is warranted. Prestigious journals "...struggle to raise above the average reliability levels set by the other journals" (Brembs, 2018) and suffer from lower statistical power (Brembs, Button, & Munafò, 2013). Although this is not an argument against publishing in top-tiered journals, it should serve as a warning that the research is what counts, and not the journal per se, or its impact factor. So, we ought to be guided by this idea when deciding where we will submit our next research report. This, in turn, should also be accompanied by a more attentive stance on predatory open access publishing, and that can only be done through better education and transparency. For example, even if the now infamous Beall's List (a list of predatory OA publishers that was maintained by the librarian of the University of Colorado) is defunct, there are still good places to start your research, such as with the results published by Shen and Björk (2015).

And as a finishing note, the *Psychology of Human Resources Journal* – the official outlet of the Romanian Association of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (APIO), which is a "platinum" Open Access journal indexed by

PsychINFO, Proquest, ERIH +, EBSCO, Scopus, DOAJ and Copernicus – provides a wonderful opportunity for all researchers, young or established, to get their results in the open and benefit from all the advantages of a modern, open access, peer-reviewed journal.

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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

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# Loneliness at Work and Job Performance: The Role of Burnout and Extraversion

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### Abstract

Loneliness at work is characterized by emotional deprivation and lack of social companionship at work. It has received, over the last two decades, increased levels of attention from both researchers and practitioners, due to its estimated high prevalence rate and severe negative individual consequences. The current study attempted to provide an explanatory model in which extraversion influences loneliness at work, which in turn, is associated with burnout, thereby resulting in reduced job performance. The study was based on a serial mediation cross-sectional model. The participants ( $n = 265$ ) were Romanian employees, and data were collected through self-report measures. The results confirm that extraversion predicts loneliness which, in turn, impacts job performance via burnout. The present study contributes to the sparse literature about loneliness at work by examining a plausible underlying mechanism by which loneliness at work can negatively affect job performance.

### Keywords

Loneliness at work, Job performance, Burnout, Extraversion, Serial mediation

Loneliness refers to “a complex set of feelings that occurs when intimate and social needs are not adequately met” (Cacioppo et al., 2006, p. 1055), and has received increased levels of attention from both researchers and practitioners alike in the last two decades, due to its estimated high prevalence rate (e.g., McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2006) and severe negative individual consequences (e.g., Holt-Lunstad, Smith, & Layton, 2010).

Present estimates of the prevalence of loneliness range from as high as approximately 60 percent (Mental Health Foundation, 2010) in the U.K. to varying

estimates that range between 46 percent (Cigna, 2018) to somewhere between 23 percent<sup>1</sup> (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2008) and 12 percent (Paik & Sanchagrin, 2013; Wilson & Moulton, 2010) in the U.S.

Loneliness and social isolation have a detrimental effect both on important organizational outcomes such as job performance (Ozcelik & Barsade, 2011), creativity (Peng, Chen, Xia, & Ran, 2017) and organizational commitment (Ayazlar & Güzel, 2014; Stoica & Brate, 2013) and on

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<sup>1</sup> This estimate has been subject to strong controversy. For a discussion see Paik & Sanchagrin (2013), Brashears (2011) and Fischer (2009).

crucial mental health conditions, such as depression (Erzen & Çikrikci, 2018).

Furthermore, loneliness has been found to increase the likelihood of mortality by 26% (Holt-Lunstad, Smith, Baker, Harris, & Stephenson, 2015) bearing an impact that is similar to that caused by smoking 15 cigarettes a day and higher than that of obesity or excessive alcohol consumption (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2010). Poor social relationships were also associated with a 29% increase in the risk of coronary heart disease incidents and a 32% risk of having a stroke (Valtorta, Kanaan, Gilbody, Ronzi, & Hanratty, 2016).

Moreover, loneliness spreads through social networks, with people at the periphery of a social network (i.e., those individuals who have the smallest number of connections) being prone to cutting the few ties they have left, and, just before doing so, transmitting the same feeling of loneliness to their remaining relationships, restarting the cycle (Cacioppo, Fowler, & Christakis, 2009).

However, despite the well-documented detrimental effects on organizational outcomes and on employee health and despite an estimated annual cost of loneliness of £2.5 billion to employers in UK alone (Jeffrey, Abdallah, & Michaelson, 2017), there has been little attention given to the underlying mechanisms that can explain the effects of loneliness in the workplace, and, in particular, on employees' job performance.

To address this gap in the literature, we draw on the Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), one of the six mini-theories included in the Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) and build on the Stress-Buffering Model (Cohen, Gottlieb, & Underwood, 2000) to argue that loneliness at work is related to job performance due to it having a positive effect on employee burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Moreover, we propose that employees vary in their predisposition to experience loneliness at work as a function of their characteristics. We focus on employees' extraversion, which is a crucial personality trait characterized by sociability, high energy, optimism, friendliness, and assertiveness, that is known to be associated with higher social network size (Swickert, Rosentreter, Hittner, &

Mushrush, 2002). As such, we propose a serial mediation model in which extraversion predicts loneliness at work, which in turn, harms employee job performance via burnout.

This study offers several noteworthy contributions. While possible underlying mechanisms for the relationship between loneliness at work and job performance have been discussed (e.g., Ozelik & Barsade, 2011), no empirical examination has been conducted to our knowledge, to this date. Therefore, we address this gap by proposing employee burnout as an underlying mechanism for explaining the relationship between loneliness at work and employee job performance. Second, we examine extraversion as a predictor of the loneliness at work-burnout-job performance.

And finally, we integrate research from the loneliness, Basic Psychological Need Theory, and the Stress-Buffering Model to develop a research model that can allow a better understanding of the effects of loneliness in an organizational context and shed some light into what relatedness need frustration can lead up to, in terms of organizational outcomes.

## **Theory and Hypotheses**

### **Extraversion and Loneliness at Work**

Loneliness at work is characterized by emotional deprivation and lack of social companionship at work. Emotional deprivation at work has been defined as a qualitative measure which describes one's perception of the lack of meaningfulness and satisfaction with one's relationships with co-workers and lack of social companionship as a quantitative measure which describes the perceived adequacy of one's social network size (Wright, Burt, & Strongman, 2006).

To obtain a better understanding of the relationship between loneliness at work and employee burnout, and to examine whether all employees are equally prone to experience loneliness, we considered employee personality as a predictor for feelings of loneliness.

Thus, we focus on extraversion, one of the five factors that form the structure of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992), as

extraversion is positively related with measures of social support (Swickert et al., 2002) and as findings from previous studies have shown that lonely subjects are less extraverted (Hojat, 1982; Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016).

Extraversion is one of the personality traits most commonly associated with loneliness, alongside neuroticism (e.g., Saklofske & Yackulic, 1989). Such a relationship can be explained by the tendency to experience positive moods during social interaction, to prefer social interaction, and the sociable and people-oriented nature that characterizes people with high levels of extraversion (McCrae & Costa, 1987).

Concerning peer relations, extraversion was positively associated with the number of reciprocated friends (Jensen-Campbell et al., 2002), peer acceptance (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998), and perceived support from peers (Asendorpf & van Aken, 2003). Also, in terms of attitudes toward aloneness, more extraverted individuals showed lower affinity for and greater aversion to being alone (Teppers et al., 2013).

Namely, a person with higher levels of extraversion is more likely to have access to an accepting social network that would lend him/her support to help that person diminish his/her feelings of loneliness, thus reducing the risk for burnout. We also expect that a person with lower levels of extraversion would be less able to counter feelings of loneliness due to the smaller social networks, the lower number of reciprocated friends and more reduced support from peers (Jensen-Campbell et al., 2002; Asendorpf & van Aken, 2003).

As such, we expect individuals with higher levels of extraversion to be better able to rely on their social network and their relationships with others compared to individuals with lower levels of extraversion (introversion), in order to prevent and better recover from the detrimental effects of loneliness and impede the installation of burnout, while persons with lower levels of extraversion should lack the ability to obtain and utilize the social resources required to cope with loneliness and burnout.

## **Loneliness at Work and Employee Burnout**

Multiple studies provide robust evidence that lack of perceived adequateness of emotional and social aspects of social connection leads to detrimental outcomes for the individual. For instance, feeling lonely is associated with high blood pressure (Hawkey, Thisted, Masi, & Cacioppo, 2010), worse sleep (Kurina et al., 2011), and weakened immunity (Dixon et al., 2006) all of which can severely affect a person's health and predispose them to other debilitating factors, such as burnout.

In order to investigate the effect of loneliness at work on employees' levels of burnout we turn to SDT and, in particular, Basic Need Satisfaction Theory (BNST) which argues that all individuals possess a natural inclination towards psychological growth, internalization, and well-being, and in order to realize these natural tendencies one must achieve satisfaction of three basic psychological needs: for autonomy, competence, and, of particular interest to our study, for relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The need for relatedness, which, as the theory suggests, can be satisfied when "people see themselves as a member of a group, experience a sense of communion, and develop close relations" (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016, p. 1199, see also Baumeister & Leary, 1995) has been negatively linked to burnout, negative affect and turnover intentions (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). This finding is in line with one of the core assumptions of BPNT, which implies that not satisfying either one of the basic needs (defined as need frustration) leads to ill-being and increased vulnerabilities for defensiveness and psychopathology (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). These results also fit the conceptualization of loneliness at work (Wright et al., 2006), thus providing support for the assumption that loneliness at work and relatedness are different levels of the same construct. As such, since relatedness has been linked to reduced levels of burnout it seems reasonable to assume that loneliness would be positively related to employee burnout.

To further support our hypothesis that loneliness at work is associated with employee burnout, we also draw on the Stress-Buffering Model (Cohen et al., 2000) which states that social support, defined as “any process through which social relationships might promote health and well-being” (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 4) acts as a buffer of the relationships between stress and burnout. Research has deemed lack of appropriate social support as a strong predictor for loneliness (Rook, 1988), and higher levels of loneliness were found to be predictive of higher stress levels (Coan & Sbarra, 2015) and exaggerated physiological reactivity in response to acute stress (Brown, Gallagher, & Creaven, 2018).

Therefore, it is plausible to assume that loneliness acts as both a generator of stress and as a vulnerability towards stress. And as stress is one of the most well-established predictors of burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Maslach et al., 2001), a relationship between loneliness and burnout becomes plausible.

## Burnout and Job Performance

Burnout, the consequence of prolonged exposure to stress on the job (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991), has become the most essential work-related illness of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Weber & Jaekel-Reinhard, 2000) due to the fact that it has severe individual (e.g., reduced physical health, severe injuries, mortality) and organizational consequences (e.g., reduced job satisfaction, absenteeism) (Salvagioni et al., 2017).

Additionally, multiple studies have reported a rather strong relationship between employee burnout and job performance (e.g., Taris, 2006; Vîrgă, Schaufeli, Taris, van Beek, & Sulea, 2019).

It is plausible that the relationship between burnout and job performance can be explained by the former’s role in the association between job stressors and performance, as proposed by multiple studies (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; McGrath, 1976). In this approach, burnout is intended as a mediator of said association, since it indicates the depletion of an individual’s resources. As such, high levels of burnout would imply that employees do not possess sufficient resources

to deal effectively with their job demands, which in turn leads to lower levels of performance (Taris, 2006).

## Serial Mediation

Building on the rationale above, we hypothesize a serial mediation model as extraversion should predict loneliness at work, which in turn predicts burnout, thereby influencing job performance. Based on previously discussed findings, we propose that less extraverted employees will be predisposed to experiencing loneliness at work, which in turn, will affect employee job performance through burnout, resulting in reduced job performance for employees who are low on extraversion.

We, therefore, hypothesize the following: *Employees’ loneliness at work and burnout act as serial mediators between extraversion and job performance.*

## Method

### Procedure and participants

To test our hypothesis, we collected data via an online questionnaire that was administered through the authors’ social media accounts (e.g., Facebook, LinkedIn), in various student, job search and professional groups. The questionnaire was made accessible for two and a half months and included a note explaining the objectives of the study and a GDPR statement which informed the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses, the voluntary nature of their participation and the way their data will be used to conduct this research.

The sample comprised of 265 employed individuals. The mean age of participants was 30.29 (SD = 8.39), and 55.8% of them were male. There were no missing data.

We calculated the Mahalanobis, Cooks, and Leverage distance values to check for outliers in our data (Field, 2018) and based on this analysis we excluded 11 cases.

At the time the questionnaire was completed, 88.8% of the respondents had a full-time contract, 9.6% responded that they had a part-time contract, and the remaining 1.5% reported having a project-based arrangement. Regarding the type of the work

they were performing, 46.9% said that they work mostly with information, 45% work primarily with people, and 8.1% work predominantly with things (objects, utensils, tools, electronic devices).

## Measures

The questionnaires used in the current paper were translated into Romanian by students proficient in both English and Romanian, and the translations were reviewed by researchers with a vast experience in adapting research measures. In translating the items, the "back-translation" method described by Hambleton (2005) was employed.

The translation effort is part of an online project which aims to provide the academic community in Romania with quality translations of psychological measures (addressing a variety of constructs) that have demonstrated good psychometric properties in numerous research papers (Research Central, <http://researchcentral.ro/>).

*Loneliness at work* was measured using the Loneliness at Work Scale (Wright, Burt, & Strongman, 2006), which includes two dimensions of loneliness: emotional deprivation (e.g., "I often feel alienated from my co-workers.") and social companionship (e.g., "I feel part of a group of friends at work."). The instrument contained 16 items measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The coefficient alpha in this study was .95.

*Extraversion* was measured using The 5 NEO-PI-R Broad Domains, which comprised 10 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The adapted Romanian version (Ilescu, 2015) was used, item example e.g., "Feel comfortable around people". The coefficient alpha in this study was .88.

*Burnout* was measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. It assesses three dimensions, namely: emotional exhaustion (e.g., "I feel emotionally drained from my work."), depersonalization (e.g., "I feel used at the end of the workday.") and low personal accomplishments (e.g., "Working all day is really a strain for me."). The questionnaire

consisted of 16 items measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 7 (*daily*) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). The coefficient alpha in this study was .94.

*Job performance* was measured using the Griffin's Performance Scale questionnaire (Griffin & Parker, 2007). This instrument assesses 9 dimensions: Individual task proficiency (e.g., "Carried out the core parts of your job well."), Individual task adaptivity (e.g., "Adapted well to changes in core tasks."), Individual task proactivity (e.g., "Initiated better ways of doing your core tasks."), Team member proficiency (e.g., "Coordinated your work with coworkers."), Team member adaptivity (e.g., "Responded constructively to changes in the way your team works."), Team member proactivity (e.g., "Suggested ways to make your work unit more effective."), Organization member proficiency (e.g., "Defended the organisation if others criticized it."), Organization member adaptivity (e.g., "Coped with changes in the way the organisation operates."), Organization member proactivity (e.g., "Come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organization."). The instrument is comprised of 27 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very little*) to 5 (*a great deal*). The coefficient alpha in this study was .94.

## Data analysis

Since only self-report scales were employed in the present study, the model was checked for common method bias using Harman's single factor test, which indicated that one factor explained only 30.85% of the total variance. Because this value is much lower than the established 50% cutoff point (Mat Roni, 2014), we conclude that it is rather unlikely that the results of the study were influenced by common method bias.

Furthermore, to test the study's hypothesis, we used Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro add-on in SPSS 25. PROCESS uses an ordinary least squares regression-based path analytic framework to estimate direct and indirect effects and allows for the estimation of serial mediation models (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017).

Variable scores were automatically mean centered in PROCESS. The indirect effects were tested based on a 5.000 sample bootstrapping procedure with a bootstrap confidence interval of 95%, to control for bias in the collected data.

**Results**

The means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations are presented in Table 1. Correlation coefficients between the 4 variables are all significant at  $p < .01$ . Table 2 shows the results of the Process Model 6, which tested the serial mediation model.

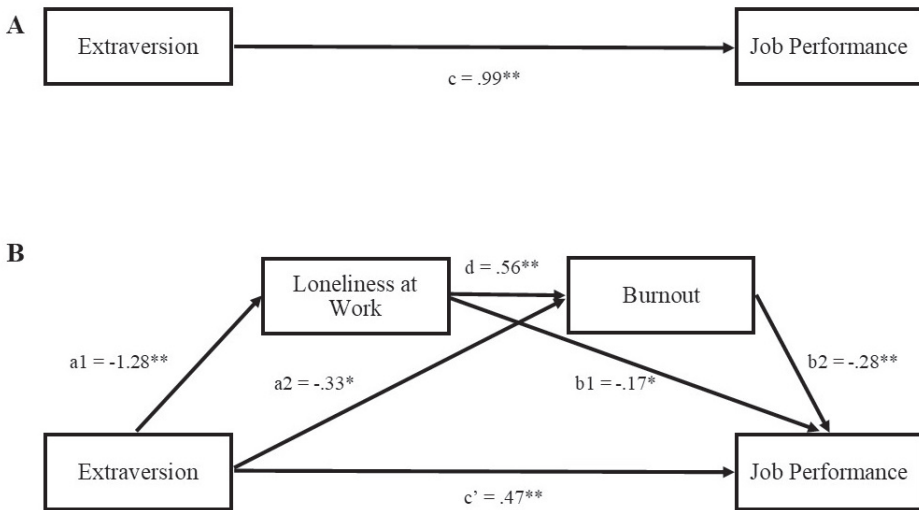
Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations and Bivariate Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Extraversion	31.81	7.76	-			
2. Burnout	33.58	20.31	-.42**	-		
3. Loneliness at Work	48.30	22.18	-.46**	.68**	-	
4. Work Performance	103.26	18.32	.42**	-.52**	-.50**	-

Note.  $n = 254$ . Correlations  $\geq 0.42$  are significant with  $p < .01$  (1-tailed).

Figure 1 depicts the Model 6 that was tested in the PROCESS add-on for SPSS (Hayes, 2013). Namely, Figure 1A shows the path coefficient between Extraversion and Job

Performance, which indicates that the total effect, without the mediators in the model, is significant ( $c = .99, p < .001$ ).



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

Figure 1. The statistical diagram of the serial multiple mediator model.

Furthermore, as shown in Figure 1B, the path coefficient between the two variables ( $c'$ ) decreases to .47 ( $p < .001$ ), when Loneliness at Work and Burnout are added to the analysis as serial mediators, suggesting that the total indirect effect of Extraversion on Job

Performance through both mediators is significant. As displayed in Table 2, the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval produced by the PROCESS Macro, based on 5000 bootstrap samples, confirms that this total

indirect effect is significant ( $B = .52$ , boot SE =  $.10$ , 95% CI [ $.3326$ ,  $.7219$ ]).

Lastly, the indirect effect of Extraversion on Job Performance through both mediators in

serial is also significant ( $B = .20$ , boot SE =  $.06$ , 95% CI [ $.0969$ ,  $.3322$ ]) therefore providing support to our hypothesis.

Table 2. Total, direct and indirect effects of extraversion ( $X$ ) on job performance ( $Y$ ) through loneliness at work ( $M_1$ ) and burnout ( $M_2$ );  $N = 254$

Effects	Point estimate	SE	t	p	Lower	Upper
Total effect	.993	.141	7.060	.000*	.716	1.270
Direct effect	.475	.129	3.684	.000*	.221	.729
Total indirect effect	.518	.099 <sup>b</sup>			.333 <sup>a,b</sup>	.722 <sup>a,b</sup>
Indirect effect ( $X \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y$ )	.202	.059 <sup>b</sup>			.097 <sup>a,b</sup>	.332 <sup>a,b</sup>
Indirect effect ( $X \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y$ )	.224	.087 <sup>b</sup>			.060 <sup>a,b</sup>	.403 <sup>a,b</sup>
Indirect effect ( $X \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y$ )	.092	.043 <sup>b</sup>			.013 <sup>a,b</sup>	.185 <sup>a,b</sup>

Note. \* $p < .001$

<sup>a</sup> 95% Bias Corrected Confidence Interval

<sup>b</sup> Based on 5000 bootstrap samples

## Discussion

The present study contributes to the sparse literature on loneliness at work by examining a plausible underlying mechanism by which loneliness at work can negatively affect job performance. Specifically, based on Basic Psychological Needs Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and the Stress-Buffering Model (Cohen et al., 2000), we proposed a research model that took into consideration the joint effect of loneliness at work, employee burnout and employee extraversion on job performance (see Figure 1). Although previous studies reported a direct link between loneliness and job performance (e.g., Ozcelik & Barsade, 2011), this study showed that an indirect path also exists in the relationship.

Our findings supported our initial proposed model such that employees' extraversion predicted loneliness at work which was negatively related to job performance and, as expected, this effect was mediated by employee burnout.

These findings align with previous research that established extraversion and neuroticism as robust predictors of loneliness (Flett et al., 2016; Saklofske & Yackulic, 1989), and burnout as a significant predictor of job performance (Taris, 2006) but they also expand our understanding of how these phenomena occur jointly and establish loneliness at work as an essential

psychological state to be taken into consideration by both researchers and practitioners alike.

One possible explanation for the role of extraversion in predicting loneliness could be formed on the basis that extraverts have a greater aversion and lower affinity of being alone (Teppers et al., 2013). As personality traits tend to be stable across the lifespan (Costa, McCrae, & Löckenhoff, 2019) it is plausible that more extraverted individuals spend considerable and continuous efforts to ensure that they are embedded in a broader social network and that they are content with the quality of their relationships with others. Alternatively, a less extraverted individual might be more predisposed to feelings of loneliness since they do not actively avoid positioning themselves in social contexts which can favor the development of feelings of loneliness. This, in turn, facilitates the installation of burnout and, subsequently, translate to lower levels of job performance.

## Theoretical implications

Based on Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and the Stress-Buffering Model (Cohen et al., 2000), this study makes a relevant theoretical contribution by proposing a path by which loneliness at work can affect job performance. Notably, and in line with previous work done by Ozcelik and Barsade

(2011), loneliness was both directly and indirectly associated with job performance.

Another significant contribution of the current study is the conceptualization of loneliness as a frustration of the universal need for relatedness, as defined in the Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), a mini-theory pertaining to Self-Determination Theory and the inclusion of the Stress-Buffering Model as a framework through which the impact of the perceived lack of adequate social resources on employees well-being can be better understood. Such a conceptualization enables us to realize that not satisfying a basic human need such as relatedness leads to a susceptibility to stress and to subsequent negative individual and organizational consequences.

Additionally, the role of employees' personality was also considered, as the impact of extraversion on the variables of interest was assessed. The findings highlighted the significant effect of extraversion on loneliness at work and showcased the importance of considering the individual characteristics of employees in determining how different psychological states can impact the workplace.

### **Practical implications**

From a practical standpoint, our study highlights the detrimental effects that loneliness at work can have on organizational outcomes such as job performance. As loneliness has been found to have a strong impact on one's health, even increasing the mortality risk (e.g., Holt-Lunstad et al., 2015), and as our study reveals the fact that loneliness can also have an impact on critical organizational outcomes, it becomes clear that organizations have ethical, legal and pragmatic reasons for actively engaging in initiatives which aim to prevent the installation of feelings of loneliness. Since work occupies most of our awake hours, and organizations tend to rely more and more on teamwork in order to reach their financial and operational goals, it becomes apparent that organizations find themselves in a good position to elicit a strong positive impact on the health, well-being, and productivity of

employees by fostering meaningful relationships in the workplace.

In that respect, organizations should look for meaningful ways to increase social connection by improving the structural (e.g., frequency of social contact, size of work-related social network), functional (e.g., perceived or received support, loneliness) and quality aspects (e.g., relationship satisfaction, conflict, strain) of workplace interactions (Holt-Lunstad, 2018) especially for employees low on extraversion who are at a higher risk of experiencing loneliness at work. These improvements can be attained by, for instance, providing increased opportunities for socialization by organizing private events in which employees may freely participate, providing workplace perks which foster activities that encourage teamwork, such as ping-pong tables or video-game consoles. In addition to these measures aimed at improving structural support, organizations need to address the quality of the interactions that it encourages, because if the interactions between co-workers are primarily trivial or superficial or they have the potential to turn into negative forms of social interaction (such as bullying or conflict), then their efforts may not necessarily have the desired effect. Truly addressing the issue of loneliness at work means going beyond merely increasing opportunities for interaction to implementing strategies that foster high-quality interactions that help build high-quality relationships.

Therefore, further efforts should focus on increasing trust, collaboration, and positivity, as well as promoting a feeling that one is valued and respected in the workplace. All these factors having been linked to better quality relationships and improved well-being (Mastroianni & Storberg-Walker, 2014).

### **Limitations and future research directions**

We acknowledge some limitations to our study. The first limitation of the current research is its cross-sectional nature which doesn't allow us to infer causality between the variables measured. This limit could be addressed by employing longitudinal, quasi-experimental or experimental designs to

robustly establish causality between the variables of interest.

Secondly, the self-reported nature of our data may include the risk of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, Conway and Lance (2010) suggested that self-report data is the most appropriate form of measurement in certain circumstances. We argue that this might be especially true for emotional states characterized by subjective feelings, such as loneliness, which can prove challenging to be assessed by others or by employing an objective measure. Furthermore, we checked for common method bias using Harman's single factor test, which indicated that the data is not likely to be influenced by this type of bias. Also, the possibility of socially desirable responses could account for distortions in the data which could bear a particular impact on the study's findings although we informed the participants of the anonymity of their answers.

Another limitation was the use of convenience sampling via online social media platforms. Future studies should focus on a more representative sample that allows the researchers to draw more robust and generalizable conclusions.

Finally, given the fact that recent findings point out that neuroticism largely accounts for the relationship between personality traits and loneliness (Abdellaoui et al., 2019), more attention should be directed towards the interplay and joint impact of neuroticism and loneliness on organizational outcomes.

## Conclusion

According to our results, extraversion predicts loneliness at work which in turn has an effect on employees' burnout and job performance. These findings stress the importance of addressing loneliness at work within organizations by highlighting the negative impacts it has on organizational outcomes.

Many employers offer wellness programs and access to various perks and compensation packages to their employees in an attempt to boost their motivation and subsequently, their productivity. We argue that fostering social connection needs to be one of the organizational initiatives that, alongside

current workplace resources offered by employers to their employees, should receive more attention and effort, in light of the profound adverse effects that social connection impairments have on employees' health and productivity.

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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

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# The Factor Structure of the Leadership Orientations Questionnaire in Romania

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### Abstract

Classical approaches to leadership (e.g., transformational, servant, charismatic, etc.) have led to significant breakthroughs in understanding this phenomenon. However, these perspectives may ignore the essential aspects of leadership. This paper aimed to test the factor structure of the Leadership Orientations Questionnaire (Bolman & Deal, 1988). The questionnaire was administered to an occupationally heterogeneous sample of 402 employees. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to determine the psychometric characteristics of the questionnaire, testing three alternative models. The results indicate a weak factorial structure. The single factor model has a similar fit to the one in which the four factors are correlated, while the model with uncorrelated factors has a much weaker fit. These features of the instrument make questionable its use in research and practice. Further research is needed to conclude that the questionnaire is suitable to measure leadership orientations in Romanian organizations.

### Keywords

leadership, factor structure, Leadership Orientation Questionnaire

### Introduction

Measuring instruments related to leadership usually focus on the Full-Range Leadership Model (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990) or other popular constructs, such as servant leadership (e.g., Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008) or charismatic leadership (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1994). Although studying these approaches has led to remarkable contributions, the repeated analysis of these instruments has also led to the overthrow of other psychometric measures that may have the potential to highlight different and relevant aspects of leadership. One of these instruments is Leadership Orientations Questionnaire, which contains four frames for understanding organizations and leadership:

structural, human resource, political, and symbolic (Bolman & Deal, 1991; 1992). Even though a questionnaire has good psychometric properties in a particular culture, it does not mean that measurements from other cultures are equivalent (Farh, Cannella, & Lee, 2006; Smith, Misumi, Tayeb, Peterson, & Bond, 1989; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Therefore, this paper aims to analyze the factorial structure of the Leadership Orientations Questionnaire in Romanian culture, to verify if it can be used with confidence in research and practice on Romanian samples.

### The Romanian Organizational Context

Organizations operating in Romania can be classified into two main categories: local and

foreign. Foreign organizations enforce their policies and attempt to merge purely Romanian elements with those brought from abroad. Romanian organizations either strive to adopt current policies or remain stuck in obsolete mentalities. Leadership styles and guidelines are, therefore numerous and diverse in the current Romanian organizational context. Although studying leadership is one of the oldest endeavors in socio-organizational psychology, it is a topic of global interest with various ramifications. This is explained by the fact that in the context of modern organizations interested in success and performance, leadership is a cardinal variable, as organizational behaviors or phenomena related to it directly or indirectly. The complicated relationship of leadership with other constructs which are frequently invoked in organizational research is a necessity dictated by reasons that explain the genesis of phenomena such as the development, change, dynamics, and efficiency of workgroups and organization. In the current context, the need to study leadership styles and orientations appears as a priority in identifying models adopted by leaders, in organizational diagnosis and, of course, in finding solutions to increase the productivity of organizations. Identifying leadership patterns in Romanian organizations becomes a difficult but essential task. By gathering information on leadership styles, performance patterns can be modeled with "best practices" to increase the market visibility of large, small, and medium-sized organizations.

### **Four-Frames Model of Leadership Orientation**

In order for leadership to be complete and effective, and to address a wide range of issues faced by organizations, Bolman and Deal (1991) propose a model of leadership orientations composed of four frames: the structural frame, the human resources frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame, which are four different perspectives from which organizational situations can be viewed. The four-frame series becomes the starting point from which a reframe action can be initiated, when the situation requires it.

Reframing is the conscious effort to evaluate a situation from multiple angles and afterward, to find a way to solve that situation. Bolman and Deal (1992) believe that the four frames are as many orientations or perspectives as managers can address in a particular context or a specific situation that may arise in the organization. These frames are also called Factory, Family, Jungle, and Theater.

*The Structural Frame. The Factory.* Bolman and Deal (1991) considered two primary intellectual sources from which this frame was built: the work of maximum efficiency and the bureaucratic work. The authors argue that this first frame refers to the roles and relationships within the organization. This orientation provides clarity and structure to the leader by expanding the patterns used in the past in factories. Structures are designed to fit with the environment and technology. Organizations allocate responsibilities and then create rules, policies, processes, systems, and hierarchies to coordinate the various activities in a joint effort. Problems arise when one of these elements deviates from the natural organization. At this point, reorganization or redesign is necessary to remedy the situation.

*The Human Resource Frame. The Family.* This frame is concerned with how the characteristics of organizations and people influence what they do for each other. This orientation is focused on needs. Human resource orientation has its origins in psychology and addresses the organization as an extended family, made up of members with their own needs, feelings, abilities, problems, and limitations. From this point of view, the fundamental challenge is to design the organization according to individuals, to find ways to get their work done and to enhance the satisfaction of their work and life. A human resources leader leads by empowering others in trying to fit the organization's needs with the needs of its employees.

*The Political Frame. The Jungle.* It has its origins in the theory of organizational power and policies describing organizations as places where power is exercised to allocate scarce resources (Durocher, 1996). The source of this power is acquired through authority, expertise, controlled rewards, and personal power or

characteristics (Bolman & Deal, 1984). Political scenes inspire this frame, and the organization is regarded as a battlefield, as a contest or as a jungle. There are interests and conflicts in holding power and controlling resources because of the permanent differences between the needs, prospects, and lifestyles of individuals and groups. Coalitions are developed and changed according to interests. Problems arise when power is used where it is not necessary, where it cannot be constructively utilized or where it disperses uselessly. Solutions are provided by the leader's political abilities.

*The Symbolic Frame. The Theatre.* It has its origins in the theories of organizational culture and focuses on how people behave in the face of confusion, uncertainty, and chaos. The central themes of this frame are meaning, metaphor, ritual, ceremony, stories, beliefs, and faith. This frame, also seen as a "temple and carnival", emphasizes culture and symbols for the success of the organization. This orientation describes the organization in terms of culture, this being propelled by rituals, ceremonies, myths, and heroes, and not by rules, policies or leadership authority. "Actors" play their roles and audiences form impressions of what they see on stage. Problems arise when actors do not perform their roles properly when symbols lose their significance when ceremonies lose their strength. The symbolic leader is oriented towards building the organizational culture (Schein, 1985), thus becoming a symbol for the organization, which gives it value through rituals and ceremonies (Deal & Peterson, 1991). The four frames are four visions of the same reality. Each framework provides the leader with ways to deal with problems (uncertainty and chaos) and to overcome them. The inability of leaders to analyze situations from multiple angles may lead to failure. Reframing is the ability of leaders to analyze the situation, to see it firstly from their point of view and then from different points of view. Structure oriented leaders are genuine designers and do not rely on authority and power: continuously update themselves, rethink relationships between structure, strategy, and environment, focus on implementation, experiment, evaluate and adapt. Leaders focused on human resources

support the other members of the organization: they believe in people and communicate them this, they are visible and accessible, empower others, and provide them the opportunity to exercise this power. Political leaders act as advocates and negotiators building alliances among members of the organization: clarify what they want and what they can get, estimate the distribution of power and interests and the balance between them, build relationships with relevant individuals, and entities inside or outside the organization. Symbolic leaders replace the mirage and the story with their concrete, meaningful experiences: lead by the force of their example, use symbols to capture attention, communicate their vision, they tell others about the past, present and future, about respect, and use history.

## **The Leadership Orientations Questionnaire**

Leadership Orientation Questionnaire was developed by Bolman and Deal (1988) based on the Four-Frame Model of Leadership theory (Bolman & Deal, 1991; 1992; 2003). Each of the four frames is built on a specific scientific theory. The instrument consists of 32 items grouped in four scales, eight items each: Leadership Oriented on Task Structure, Leadership oriented on Human Resources, Political Leadership, and Symbolic Leadership. Items are rated on a Likert scale from 1 to 5 (1 – Never, 5 – Always). The items describe specific behaviors of the four distinct leadership frames (e.g., *"Thinks very clearly and logically."*, *"Shows high levels of support and concern for others."*).

This research aims to test the factorial structure and to evaluate the psychometric properties of the LOQ on the Romanian population. Trees (2006) assessed in a doctoral thesis the factor structure of LOQ on a sample of 220 senior administrators at American Metropolitan universities and all but seven items loaded into the four frame categories with a loading value higher than .5. Shin and Choo (2011) tested the validity for 16 items of LOQ (four items per each frame) in Korea and the four factors were yielded, although two items were eliminated when the cut-rate was set at .5. However, other studies question the validity of the instrument (e.g.,

Cansoy & Tofur, 2017). Therefore, it is essential to check the psychometric properties of the Romanian version of the test.

**Method**

**Participants**

We distributed 500 questionnaires and the link for an online form to human resources managers from various companies and only 402 individuals agreed to participate in the

assessment. The employees filled in the questionnaires either on paper or via the Internet. Thus, the sample consisted of 402 participants, 139 men, and 263 women, aged between 18 and 65 years. The inclusion criterion was that each participant is employed for at least six months. This condition stemmed from the assumption that an employee with less than six months of job experience cannot provide a pertinent opinion on the leadership style.

Table 1. *Sample structure*

<b>Gender</b>	M	F				
N	139	263				
<b>Age (years)</b>	18-24	25-30	31-40	over 41	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
N	82	116	120	84	33.08	10.12
<b>Experience level (years)</b>	Beginner (less than 2)	Intermediate (3-5)	Experienced (6-8)	Senior (more than 9)		
N	145	88	47	122		
<b>Job type</b>	Execution	Leader				
N	253	149				
<b>Number of employees in organization</b>	1-9	10-49	50-249	250-499	500-999	more than 1000
N	33	93	179	26	18	53

**Results**

**Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations**

The descriptive statistics and variable correlations are presented in the following tables.

Table 2. *Descriptive statistics (N = 402)*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	<i>α</i>
Task structure leadership	31.53	6.26	-.705	-.029	.90
Human resources leadership	30.31	7.09	-.638	-.164	.93
Political leadership	30.66	6.35	-.568	-.312	.89
Symbolic leadership	29.40	7.56	-.603	-.442	.93

Table 3. *Subscales correlations*

	1	2	3	4
1. Task structure leadership				
2. Human resources leadership	.82**			
3. Political leadership	.82**	.86**		
4. Symbolic leadership	.84**	.91**	.90**	

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### Factor Analysis

In order to verify to what extend the factorial structure of this questionnaire, i.e. the main leadership styles, is present unaltered in the Romanian population, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. We compared three models by means of CFA: M1 – one general factor (Leadership) for all the 32 items of LOQ, M2 – 4 correlated factors (structure, human resources, politic, symbolic) as indicators of Leadership, and M3 – 4 uncorrelated factors as indicators of Leadership, with 8 items each.

For the model fit of CFA, we considered the criteria of the various model fit indices. It

has been suggested that RMSEA values less than .05 are good, values between .05 and .08 are acceptable, values between .08 and .10 are marginal, and values greater than .10 are poor (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The model M1 with one general Leadership factor had a marginal fit,  $\chi^2(464) = 2111.89$ ,  $p < .01$ , RMSEA = .09, 95% CI [.09, .10], CFI = .85, TLI = .84. The model M2 with 4 correlated factors had also a marginal fit,  $\chi^2(458) = 1907.78$ ,  $p < .01$ , RMSEA = .09, 95% CI [.08, .09], CFI = .87, TLI = .86, but more adequate than M1. The model M3 with 4 uncorrelated factors had a poor fit,  $\chi^2(464) = 3854.16$ ,  $p < .01$ , RMSEA = .14, 95% CI [.13, .14], CFI = .69, TLI = .67.

Table 4. *Fit indices and model comparisons for measurement and structural models*

Model	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA [90% CI]
M1	2111.89	464	4.55	.85	.84	.09 [.09, .10]
M2	1907.78	458	4.17	.87	.86	.09 [.08, .09]
M3	3854.16	464	8.31	.69	.67	.14 [.13, .14]

Model M2 is significantly superior to the two other alternative measurement models, M1 and M3, giving support to a four-correlated factors model, although neither M1, M2, M3 models show an acceptable structure. The standardized factor loadings ranged from .56 to .82 for the structure leadership subscale, from .48 to .82 for human resources leadership subscale, from .24 to .83 for politic leadership subscale, and from .50 to .87 for symbolic leadership subscale. The items with the lowest

loadings were L14 (.48) from human resources leadership subscale, L27 (.24) and L19 (.36) from politic leadership subscale, L16 (.50) from symbolic leadership subscale (Figure 1). Globally, model M2 shows higher item loadings in the four factors vs. model M1 in a single factor.

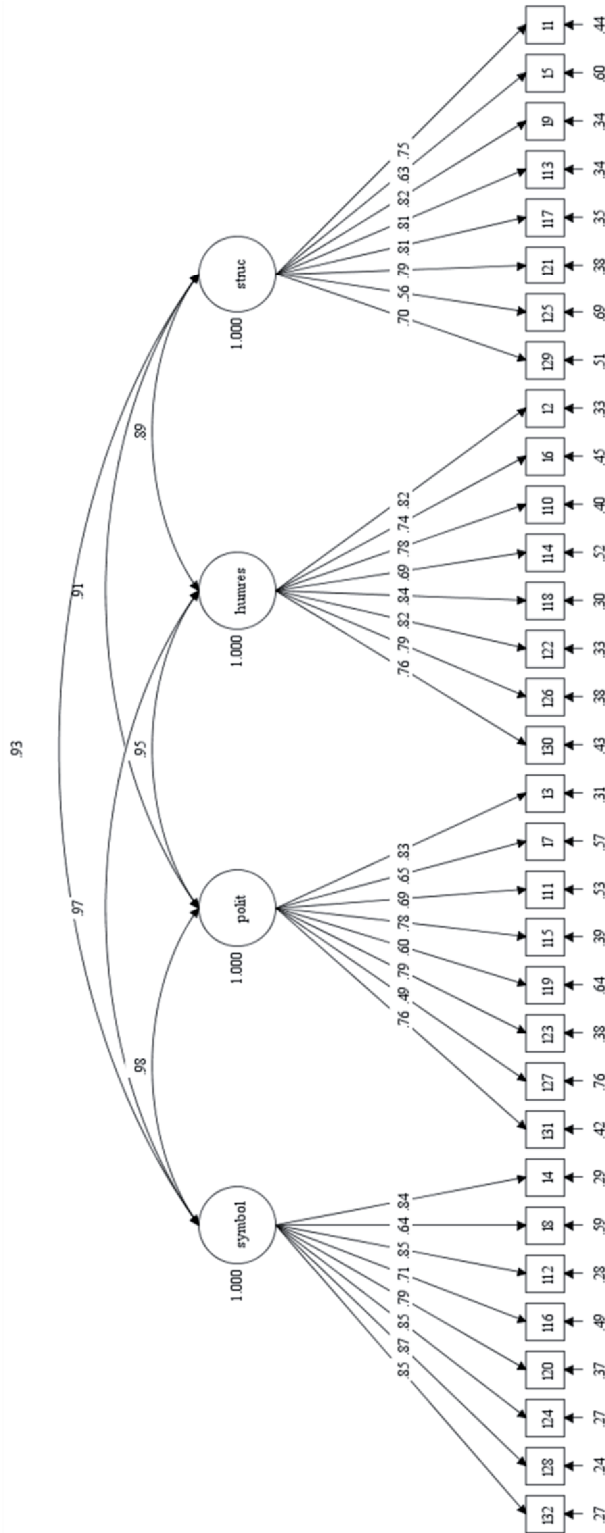


Figure 1. Model M2 – four correlated factors for Leadership (*struc* = structure, *hmres* = human resources, *polit* = politic, *symbol* = symbolic)

## Discussion

The objective of this study was to operationalize and test the factor structure of Leadership Orientations Questionnaire (LOQ). The results showed that the Romanian version of the questionnaire has to be used with caution, the fit indices being marginal or statistically unacceptable. The literature features a series of studies which obtained acceptable fit indices, such as Roddy's doctoral thesis (2010) on frame analysis of the self-perceived leadership orientations of 94 headmasters from American schools. Between 1990 and 2010, LOQ was used in several studies, dissertations, and doctoral thesis to assess its construct validity. Another thesis in which a first-order CFA was performed to evaluate the construct validity of LOQ is Broyhill's work (2016) which analyzed the effects of leadership performance on safety culture in business aviation flight operations. The fit indices were statistically acceptable. On the other hand, in their study regarding the relationship between individual values of teacher candidates and leadership orientations, Cansoy and Tofur (2017) performed a CFA to determine the validity of LOQ and the fit indices were found to be statistically unacceptable. Our results are consistent with data showing a weak factorial structure. The single factor model has a similar fit to the one in which the four factors are correlated, while the model with uncorrelated factors has a much weaker fit. Moreover, the correlations between the four factors are extremely high (between .82 and .91). The common variance of the factors ranges between 67% and 83%. All these results indicate a well-defined single latent factor (i.e., the same construct measured with different items). These features of the instrument raise a question mark regarding its use in research and practice.

## Theoretical and Practical Implications

From a theoretical point of view, the results indicate that established models of behaviors in leadership positions are more appropriate for understanding leadership. Classical approaches (e.g., transformational; Judge &

Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990, servant; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008, or charismatic; Conger & Kanungo, 1994) are based on measuring instruments that respect the psychometric properties needed to be used in research and in the development of the theoretical understanding of the phenomenon.

From a practical point of view, other tools that measure leadership should be used by practitioners in development programs. There are already instruments that meet psychometric standards and that can be used to measure employee behavior in leadership positions. As previously mentioned, these tools measure valid constructs such as transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990), servant leadership (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), or charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1994). However, factors measured by Leadership Orientation Questionnaire (i.e., political and symbolic) can be used in coaching or training programs because they highlight relevant aspects from the organizational environment.

## Limitations and Further Research Directions

The most important limitation of this study is that the instrument is not developed on a solid theoretical foundation. To create a measurement tool that correctly captures the relevant leadership behaviors, items and factors must be chosen on the basis of theoretical models that have strong empirical support (e.g., the Full-Range Leadership Model; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Given this limit, it is expected that different statistical analyzes will not support the psychometric quality of the instrument. The present paper is only a starting point for our next studies. Based on these results, we aim to adapt and validate the Leadership Orientations Questionnaire so that it could be successfully used in organizational diagnosis activities or at least in training and coaching programs. Future studies may consider using bifactor confirmatory analysis (Reise, 2012), which has already been successfully used in numerous psychometric studies (e.g., Bados, Gómez-Benito, &

Balaguer, 2010). This method can lead to more precise conclusions regarding the uniqueness of factors (i.e., their specific variance after controlling for the variance of the general factor).

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## RESEARCH ARTICLE

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# Linking social axioms with behavioural outcomes in Romanian organizational settings

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### Abstract

The present study attempts to explore how psychological characteristics measured through social axioms, affect the perception of organizational level constructs like organizational justice and job satisfaction and ultimately lead to behavioural outcomes measured through organizational commitment. The resulted models confirm the previously known relations between organizational justice, job satisfaction and commitment, expanding the existing base of knowledge by focusing on the relations between the dimensions of the constructs. Its main contribution is that it's among the first studies that tests the applicability of social axioms in an organizational setting. The research was successful in its main objective which was linking social axioms to behavioural outcomes in an organizational setting. The resulted model serves as proof that the construct is a valuable addition for understanding how people behave in an organization.

### Keywords

social axioms, job satisfaction, organizational justice, organizational commitment

### Introduction

According to the theoretical frameworks of Griffin and Moorhead (2014), Jex (2002) and Chiriță (2003; 2009) from a cognitive-behaviorist perspective, behavior in an organization, can be described as the result of a negotiation process, followed by forming of coalitions according to interests and purposes of members. Thus, irrelevant of how committed a manager is to the perceived objectives of an organization, the behavior of employees cannot be guided, without their consent regarding how targets should be accomplished. Implementing organizational objectives can become possible only through agreed-upon descriptions of the consequences

of each action, monitored by control systems and sanctioned by reward systems.

The perception of implemented reward systems, what constitutes accepted descriptions of consequences of actions and also the negotiation process is however influenced by the personality of the members inside an organization. According to cognitive psychology, personality can be conceptualized through cognitive structures/schemes/patterns that lead to specific behaviors (Kihlstrom, 1981) which in an organizational setting will influence an organizations ability to accomplish its assumed objectives and goals. Cognitive structures/schemes are defined by Young, Klosko, and Weishaar (2015) as generalized patterns that develop throughout a

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person's life, being composed of memories, emotions, cognitions, and corporal sensations, related to one's self and to relationships with others. The structures are internalized by individuals, used for assimilating sorting and interpreting incoming information, translated into attitudes that should convert into visible and congruent outcomes, or in other words behavior; however as shown by Mischel and Shoda (1995) this is not always the case. Most socio-psychological researches approach cognitive structures of individuals in an organizational setting from the perspective of values and norms (Chatman, Caldwell, O'Reilly, & Doerr, 2014; Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Tyler & Blader, 2000). There are however some limits to this type of approaches. Values (Eyal, Sagrisitano, Trope, Liberman, & Chaiken, 2009), which are abstract de-contextualized mental constructs, are more likely to be applied in the distant future, and, if based only on socially conditioned feelings, lacking cognitive support, have little chance in being translated into outcomes (Maio, Olson, Allen, & Bernard, 2001), thus linking them to behaviour has produced mixed results. The translation of norms, which are prescriptive beliefs about how one should behave, into visible predictable outcomes has also proven to be complicated as the process can be influenced by variables like mood and individual salience (Wellen, Hogg, & Terry, 1998). Thus even if norms and values do in a certain measure explain certain aspects of behavior in an organization (Kristiansen & Hotte, 1996; McClelland, 1985) there are still some gaps regarding the translation of internal personality structures into behavior. The present research attempts a new approach by using the relatively new construct of social axioms developed by Leung and Bond in an organizational context, by trying to link the construct to behavioural outcomes through a model that encompasses multiple aspects of corporate life, taking into consideration the psychological characteristics of members

measured through social axioms. To our knowledge it will be among the very few studies that will use all five dimensions of social axioms in an organizational context (i.e., Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002; Kwantes & Karam, 2009; West, Hillenbrand, Money, Ghobadian, & Ireland, 2016).

### **Theoretical framework**

*Social axioms*, defined as generalized beliefs about the social and physical environment, or the spiritual world, in the form of an assertion about the relationship between them, are a relatively new psycho-social construct proposed by Leung and Bond (2002). The definition implies that the concept has an A related to B type of structure where the entities signified by A and B are in a causal or at least in a correlational relation (Leung & Bond, 2004). Social axioms differentiate themselves from constructs like values, beliefs, and norms by stating that axioms claim truth for the actor, they do not assess desired goals as beliefs and are not perspective in nature like norms. What differentiates axioms from values is that even if both have an evaluative aspect, values lack the secondary component specific to axioms. Even if the construct is new, it already made essential contributions in the fields of social-psychology but also in understanding human personality. For example, as Lam and his collaborators state, they have added predictive power over and above the Big-Five personality factor and proved to be an essential personality variable useful in clinical settings (Lam, Bond, Chen, & Wu, 2010). On a conceptual level the A related to B structure of social axioms is similar to that of a cognitive scheme. The logical and conceptual similarities between the two definitions are numerous, but a detailed theoretical analysis of this is beyond the scope of this present paper, and a concrete example should be more fitting (Figure 1).

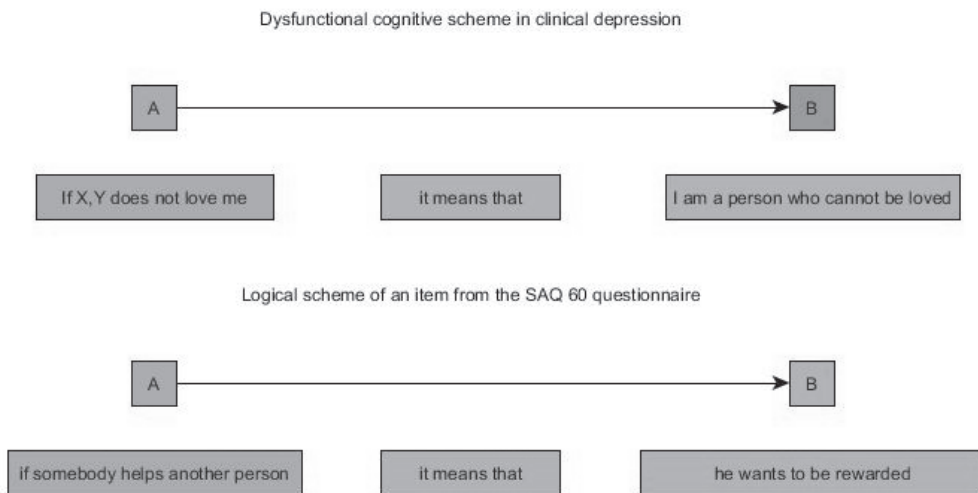


Figure 1. Comparison between a dysfunctional cognitive scheme and the logical scheme of a SAQ 60 item

A benefit of conceptualizing social axioms as cognitive schemes is in the increased probability of predicting behavior, as it was linked to clinical behavioral outcomes like anxiety and depressive disorders (Mak, Han, You, Jin, & Bond, 2011). The construct has the potential of serving as a “missing link” between the social and the individual level, because as Young and colleagues (2015) state, the behavior of an individual is not part of the cognitive scheme itself, but it is more of a reaction to the scheme, this being the reason why similar set of schemes that can be classified for example in a personality disorder can result at different individuals, and sometimes at the same individual behaviours that would be otherwise logically opposed. For instance, as presented in DSM IV (Frances et al., 2000), one person diagnosed with an obsessive-compulsive personality disorder can be obsessed with cleaning, and another person with the similar schemes is an extreme hoarder. Thus, we could presumptively state that social axioms are specific types of cognitive schemes that target not the self but are social.

Another advantage of the concept is the fact that compared with other psychological and socio-psychological ideas that were first conceived in Anglo-Saxon cultural space and

then exported to different cultural zones; axioms in their development had a multicultural approach as the original study was done with samples from Hong-Kong and Venezuela (Leung & Bond, 2004).

Regarding the dimensions of social axioms, Leung and Bond proposed two methods of conceptualization: on an individual level containing five dimensions and on a societal level containing two dimensions. Because the present paper focuses on the aspects that relate to the individual level, only these will be discussed further. Thus, the individual dimensions of social axioms are social cynicism, social complexity, religiosity, reward for application and fate control (Leung et al., 2002; Leung & Bond, 2004; Leung & Ip, 2010). We will briefly describe these factors, following the evoked sources (Leung et al., 2002; Leung & Bond, 2004; Leung & Ip, 2010). *Social cynicism* refers to a negative view about human nature, more precisely the belief that human beings are easily corrupted by power, a point of view based upon prejudices and erroneous judgments of certain social groups, of lack of trust in social institutions, of disdain for the ethical ways in which one can attain specific goals, and an evaluation of social events as mostly bad. *Social complexity* suggests that

there are no rigid rules, but rather multiple variants for reaching a particular goal, meaning that there are various ways in solving a problem, and the result of certain events is rather not sure, thus advocating that inconsistency in human behavior is something usual. *Reward for application*, describes the general belief that efforts, hard work, knowledge, meticulous planning and investing personal and social resources will lead to positive results and will help to avoid negative consequences. *Religiosity* (previously called spirituality), refers to the existence of supernatural, spiritual forces that influence and control the world, and that religious institutions have a facilitator role with a positive effect over how society is functioning. *Fate control* refers to the belief that social events are influenced by impersonal external forces, what happens in life is preordained, and there are several methods through which people can influence the predetermined results.

Through its relatively short life, the concept proved its value being linked to ethno-psychological concepts like intercultural adjustment (Safdar, Lewis, & Daneshpour, 2006), organizational level concepts like commitment (Kwantes & Karam, 2009), corporate social responsibility (West, Hillenbrand, & Money, 2015), job satisfaction (Leung & Ip, 2010), but also to more individual level concepts like life satisfaction (Lai, Bond, & Hui, 2007), suicidal tendencies (Lam, Bond, Chen, & Wu, 2010), attachment (Mak, Han, You, Jin, & Bond, 2011), and Big 5 personality traits and as Lam states, have added predictive power over and above the Big-Five personality factors and proved to be a vital personality variable useful in clinical settings (Lam, Bond, Chen, & Wu, 2010). Despite its potential, the constructs applicability in an organizational environment up until now was approached only by a few studies, and even then only partially, this being the gap that the present paper aims to address.

To be able to address the issue of how social axioms can influence the perception of the accepted descriptions of the consequences of actions, how reward systems are evaluated, and ultimately lead to behavior, we have selected the already well-established

constructs of organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment

The reason for these choices is based upon the fact that the relation between the three concepts is already well documented as exemplified by the meta-analysis of Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) and also by a series of other researches: the link between justice and satisfaction by Gillet and colleagues (2013), Fyrexell and colleagues (1989) and Tang and colleagues (1996) Ladebo and colleagues (2008); the connection between commitment and job satisfaction by the research of Huang and Hsiao (2007), Ma, Xing, Wang, Chen, (2013), Tuzun (2009), Sonia and Patrick (2012), Kwantes (2009) just to name a few.

*Organizational justice*, according to Greenberg (1987; 1990) and Lind (1992), can be defined as the perception that people have about justice inside an organization, or as Eigen and Litwin (2014) would state; as a measure of how fairly employees feel treated at work in terms of outcomes and processes. According to Byrne and Kiersch (2013), there are three to four types of fairness perceptions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Interactional justice was split by Colquitt (2001) into two sub-dimensions: informational and interpersonal justice. *Procedural justice* is defined by Greenberg and Tornbloom (1986) as the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions and tends to be associated with the extent to which fair procedures and processes are in place and adhered to. According to Eigen and Litwin (2014) it is perhaps the most useful metric for understanding organizational level evaluations (ex. organizational commitment). *Distributive justice* as Greenberg and Tornbloom (1990) argue tends to be associated with the outcomes received. *Interactional justice* was proposed by Bies and Moag (1986) who defined it as the extent to which individual see their leaders as being fair, sincere and having logic or rationale for what they do. Based on this framework, Colquitt (2001) redefined interactional justice as the justness of interactions between authorities and employees. In the subsequent researches evidence was found for a further division of interactional justice into

interpersonal justice and informational justice. Interpersonal justice reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities, especially by direct supervisors. Informational justice can be defined as the explanation given to employees to inform them about why procedures were applied in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a particular manner (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Even if some researchers tend to agree with these new classifications other still use interactional justice while there is also evidence, that informational justice has significant common variance with procedural justice (Roch & Shanock, 2006). Thus to clarify the epistemological disarray around this construct S. Roch and L. Shanock, (2006) arguing for the validity of all three constructs (interactional justice, informational justice, and interpersonal justice) state that the choice should be made based upon the research question. Taking into consideration Bies's updated conceptualization which postulates that people are concerned about interpersonal treatment in their everyday encounters in organizations, interactional concerns transcending formal decision-making contexts, (as cited in Roch & Shanock 2007) they developed a measuring scale based upon this reconceptualization, a scale that we will be also used in the present research and will be described later in the chapter regarding methodology.

*Job satisfaction* is among one of the most commonly measured constructs in industrial and organizational psychology. The construct is tied to attendance at work (Mobley, 1977), the decision to retire (Schmitt & McCune, 1981) or turnover (Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Job satisfaction can be defined, according to Vercellino (2008), as a construct that refers to what people feel regarding their job and the different ways in which employees perceive their work as satisfactory or as unsatisfactory.

*Organizational commitment*, as Reichers summarized, can be explored from a behavioral point of view, focusing on the observable manifestation of the concept, as Mowday, Steers, Porter do (as cited in Tudorescu, 2008, pp. 477–478) or from an

attitudinal point of view, seeing commitment as a psychological state in which an employee identifies with the values and objectives of the organization that he is working for, as Etzioni, Kanter (as cited in Meyer 1991) suggested. A new theoretical perspective, to find a common ground between these points of view, was suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991) that since dominates organizational commitment research. After conducting extensive study of the existing literature, it was concluded that organizational commitment definitions appear to base themselves around three general themes: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and obligation to remain with the organization. After summing all the different perspectives of how one can explain organizational commitment Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed an integrative, three layered conceptualization. The three layers are: affective commitment; normative commitment; continuance commitment. Meyer, Irwing and Allen (1998) define affective commitment as the reflection of the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization; normative commitment as the employees feeling of obligation to remain with an organization; and continuance commitment as recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization.

Based upon the theoretical framework presented the following hypotheses were formulated (Figure 2).

*H1*: Based upon literature review we know that social cynicism is connected to organizational commitment (Deng, Guan, Bond, Hu, & Zhang, 2011), and that procedural and distributive justice is linked job satisfaction and commitment (Leung & Ip, 2010). We also know that people who score high on social cynicism, have attachment and trust issues (Mak, Han, You, Jin, & Bond, 2011) and tend to pursue their welfare (Leung et al., 2002). Based upon these connections our hypothesis will state: *Social cynicism will be positively related to continuance commitment, relation that will be mediated first by distributive justice procedural justice (parallel mediation) then by job satisfaction (serial mediation).*

H2. People who have high social complexity scores tend to have a more complex view of social interactions (Leung et al., 2002) thus it is possible that social complexity will be related to a more affective type of organizational commitment. Connections between organizational justice and commitment (Yang, Peng, & Mossholder, 2004) and job satisfaction and commitment are already known facts (Huang & Hsiao, 2007). Therefore, H2 states that social complexity will be positively related to affective commitment, a relationship that will be mediated by all aspects of organizational justice (parallel mediation) and job satisfaction (serial mediation).

H3. People who have a high reward for application scores are characterized by high levels of conscientiousness, hardworking, long term oriented and working within the rules (Leung, Huang, Kurman, Niit, & Niit, 2007). It seems logical to hypothesize that aspects like procedural justice, distributive justice to be essential for them which in turn will translate into job satisfaction (Gillet, Colombat, Micinov, Pronost, & Fouquereau, 2013) leading to continuance commitment (Kwantes, 2009). Following these trends, our hypothesis states that reward for application

will be positively related to continuance commitment, relation that will be mediated first by procedural justice distributive justice (parallel mediation) and satisfaction (serial mediation).

H4. Individuals who score high on fate control tend to put less emphasis on job satisfaction, on education or on mutual attraction has a tendency to use wishful thinking as a coping mechanism, thus (Leung, Huang, Kurman, Niit, & Niit, 2007). Therefore, our hypothesis states that the relation between fate control and affective commitment will be positively mediated by distributive justice (serial mediation).

H5. Individuals that score high on religiosity usually have a preference for accommodation, are not very hedonistic (Leung, Huang, Kurman, Niit, & Niit, 2007) thus in their case a high normative commitment mediated through procedural justice should be an essential aspect. We also expect that job satisfaction will not be an important mediating aspect. Therefore, our hypothesis will state that the relation between religiosity and normative commitment will be positively mediated only by procedural justice (serial mediation).

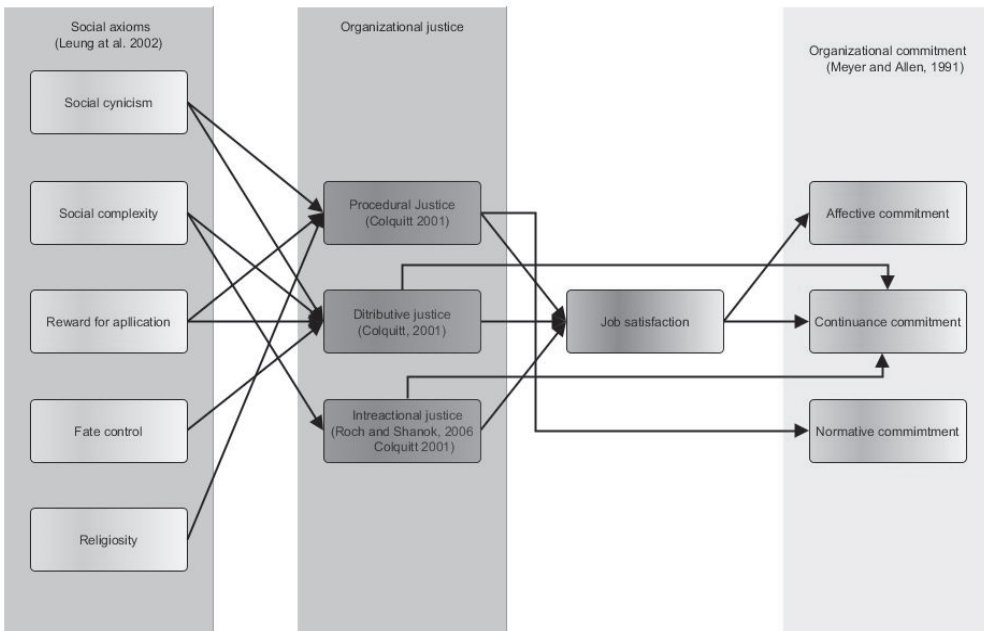


Figure 2. Graphical illustration of the hypothesis

**Methods**

**Sample**

The study took place in two organizations, one with 100% Romanian capital, and one that is the local branch of a major international corporation, both organizations focusing on manufacture. Data collection was organized with help from the management, participation was voluntary, anonymous, and measures were taken to ensure the privacy of the information given by respondents. Two versions of the questionnaires were administered. For the workforce the authors personally read the questions to groups of workers (a group containing between 20 and 25 individuals), and the participants marked their answers on a response sheet. In case of management full versions of the questionnaires were given which then were collected in a sealed ballot

box opened only after the conclusion of the time allocated for the field study. Only the authors of the study have seen the response sheets and the questionnaires, the management of the companies receiving only a statistical analysis of the results. Sample sizes and sampling methodology was done according to the guidelines of Babbie (2008). In the first organization (organization A) the data was collected during April-May 2017 where a total of 370 questionnaires were administered, and the data from the other organization (organization B) was collected during May 2018 where the number of questionnaires collected was of 350. The study relies itself on the information obtained from the questionnaires thus it can be described as single source. In total 720 questionnaires were administered.

Table 1 summarizes the composition of the sample on which the present research is based.

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics of sample (N=676)*

Age groups	Category	Percentage		
		Organization 1	Organization 2	Total sample
	20 or less	3.0	2.1	4.4
	21-30	17.2	32.2	24.2
	31-40	33.7	31.3	31.9
	41-50	31.6	17.6	24.2
	51-60	12.7	12.2	12.2
	60 or more	1.8	4.6	3.1
<b>Gender</b>	Male	41.7	48.6	45.7
	Female	58.3	51.4	54.3
<b>Education</b>	Primary school	3.4	.6	4.6
	Gymnasium	27.8	1.5	13.9
	Trade school	35.8	24.0	29.2
	High school	25.7	36.2	30.1
	College	7.3	37.7	22.1

**Instruments**

Social axioms were measured with the scale developed by M. Bond and K. Leung. The original scale is the result of a multicultural study using samples from Hong-Kong and Venezuela, the resulting scales were then adapted to multiple countries around the world. The scale has three versions of 182, 82, and 60 items, with a robust transcultural resonance due to the universal character of the examined subjects. During the original factorial analysis done on the specific national samples the previously described five factors

were identified, which are constant in all versions of the survey. For the purposes of this study we will use the 60 item variant. The scale uses five subscales for measuring social cynicism (item example: It is rare to see a happy ending in real life), fate control (item example: Fate determines one’s successes and failures), social complexity (item example: One has to deal with matters according to the specific circumstances), religiousness (item example: “Religious faith contributes to good mental health”) and reward for application

(item example: “Knowledge is necessary for success”).

The original Colquitt Organizational Justice Questionnaire (2001) has 20 items that are evaluated on a Likert scale with scores between 1 (complete disagreement) and 7 (complete agreement). However because of the scope of the present research, the subscale measuring interactional justice was expanded by including the interpersonal justice scale developed by S. Roch and L. Shanock (2006) that contains 4 items (item example: “My supervisor is rude to me”) developed based upon Bies’s updated definition of the concept but also keeping Colquitt’s items measuring informational justice (item example: “To what extent has he/she communicated details in a timely manner”). The other two subscales of the questionnaire are used for measuring procedural justice (item example: “To what extent does your outcome reflect the effort you have put into work”) and normative justice (item example: “To what extent have those procedures been free of bias”).

For measuring job satisfaction the P. Warr, J. Cook and T. Wall Job Satisfaction Scale

(1979) was used, which in itself is part of a larger questionnaire that measures constructs like job motivation, life satisfaction, happiness, etc. and of course job satisfaction. In this present case only the items regarding job satisfaction were used which contained 2 subscales measuring intrinsic (item example: “How satisfied are you with colleagues”) and external sources of satisfaction (item example: “How satisfied are you with your direct superior”) using a 7-point Likert scale.

For measuring organizational commitment, the used scale was the updated N. Allen and J. Meyer Organizational Commitment Scale (2004). All items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale. The scale uses three subscales measuring normative (item example: I feel very little loyalty to this organization), affective (item example: “I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization”) and continuance commitment (item example: “I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization”).

The internal consistency indices for the whole sample are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. *Scale analysis for Colquitt organizational justice scale*

Dimension	<i>α coefficient</i>
<i>Colquitt organizational justice scale</i>	
Distributive justice	.82
Procedural justice	.81
Interpersonal justice	.47
Informational justice	.84
Total scale	.88
<i>Meyer and Allen organizational commitment scale</i>	
Normative commitment	.71
Affective commitment	.70
Continuance commitment	.80
Total scale	.87
<i>Warr &amp; Cook sources of the satisfaction scale</i>	
Internal Sources of satisfaction	.84
External Sources of satisfaction	.81
Total scale	.90
<i>Leung and Bond Social Axioms scale</i>	
Social cynicism	.902
Reward for application	.833
Fate control	.739
Religiousness	.886
Social complexity	.880
Total scale	.960

## Results and data analysis

For the analysis of the obtained data, SPSS v.22, and AMOS v.22. was used. When presenting the results of the analysis, the present paper uses the guidelines recommended by Pallant (2006), Howitt and Cramer (2010).

For checking the underlying factor structure we have done a confirmatory factor analysis through structural equation modeling. The results are presented in Table 3. In all cases we have compared the model provided by literature with a one-factor model. In case of the Colquitt scale 5-factor model has a GFI .94 of CFI .95 of and RMSEA of .05 compared to the one-factor model which has the following fit indices: GFI .79, CFI .77, RMSEA .11. In case of the Meyer and Allen scale the 3-factor model has a GFI of .92, CFI of .96 and RMSEA of .04 which is better than the one scale model which has the following fit indices: GFI .66, CFI .78, RMSEA .08. In case of War & Cook scale we have tested based

upon literature 3 possible models one with two underlying factors (GFI .93, CFI .93, RMSEA. 06), one with three underlying factors (GFI .90, CFI .9, RMSEA. 06) and a one-factor model ( GFI .90, CFI .93, RMSEA .06). Based upon results we can conclude that the three-factor model has slightly better indices than the two-factor model; however both versions have better indices than the one-factor model. In case of social axioms the five-factor model (GFI .85, CFI.88, RMSEA .05) also has better fit indices than the one-factor model (GFI .69, CFI .75, RMSEA .06); however the obtained indices are below the recommended .9 cut-off. However in the Romanian adaptation study the obtained fit indices were very similar (GFI .85, RMSEA .05) Based upon the recommendations of Kenny (2015) we have calculated the RMSEA for the base model which is .121. and according to him CFI indices should not be calculated for models that have a base model with a RMSEA smaller than .158.

Table 3. *Structural modeling results for the used scales in case of the whole sample*

<i>Scale</i>	$X^2$	<i>(df)</i>	<i>GFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Colquitt organizational justice scale	393.919	0.00	0.94	0.95	0.05
Colquitt organizational justice scale one factor	1598.147	0.00	0.79	0.77	0.11
Meyer and Allen organizational commitment scale	316.524	0.00	0.92	0.96	0.04
Meyer and Allen organizational commitment one factor	950.141	0.00	0.66	0.78	0.08
War&Cook job satisfaction scale 2 factor	337.810	0.00	0.93	0.93	0.06
War&Cook job satisfaction scale 3 factor	342.013	0.00	0.90	0.93	0.06
War&Cook job satisfaction one factor	342.013	0.00	0.90	0.92	0.06
Social axiom scale 60 5 factor	3570.24	0.00	0.85	0.88	0.05
Social axiom scale 1 factor	5811.67	0.00	0.69	0.75	0.06

Note: \*  $p < .05$ ,

The next step was structural equation modeling using AMOS. For the structural equation modeling we used the aggregated scores, not latent variables from the CFAs.

Firstly, we explored the relationship between organizational justice, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment Because of the low Alpha Cronbach score obtained by the

interpersonal justice subscale (Table nr.2.) the decision was made to eliminate it from the analysis. Table nr.5, presents the correlations, standard deviations, and means of the concepts used. When constructing the model we have started exploring relations between constructs according to theory. Using job satisfaction as mediator between justice and commitment can be considered unorthodox as most studies find job satisfaction on the same structural level with commitment (Lee, 2000; ; Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2007; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993)

with only a few using JS as mediator (Fulford, 2005; Tang & Strasfield-Baldwin, 1996; Crow, Lee, & Joo, 2012). To determine whether job satisfaction functions better as a mediator than a construct on the same structural level with commitment, two probable situations were analysed, one in which the relation between organizational justice and organizational commitment is not mediated by job satisfaction (M1A figure 6), and one in which job satisfaction mediates the relationship between the two constructs (M1B figure 7).

Table 4. Means, standard deviations and interrelations of variables

	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Distributive justice	5.08	1.44											
2.Procedural justice	4.58	1.37	.55**										
3.Interactional justice	5.37	1.51	.49**	.52**									
4.Normative commitment	3.89	1.32	.32**	.42**	.42**								
5. Affective commitment	4.2	1.27	.3**	.41**	.42**	.65**							
6. Continuance commitment	4.14	1.42	.3**	.29**	.38**	.67**	.51**						
7.Total satisfaction	4.65	1.27	.49**	.58**	.6**	.57**	.54**	.45**					
8.Social cynicism	3.42	.82	.28**	.23**	.34**	.35**	.26**	.5**	.32**				
9.Fate control	3.09	.9	.27**	.24**	.26**	.39**	.28**	.49**	.31**	.72**			
10.Social complexity	3.66	.75	.35**	.33**	.39**	.39**	.33**	.45**	.43**	.77**	.67**		
11.Reward for application	3.82	.76	.39**	.38**	.43**	.39**	.35**	.46**	.49**	.76**	.67**	.85**	
12. Religiosity	3.32	.88	.27**	.27**	.33**	.38**	.25**	.41**	.32**	.66**	.65**	.65**	.66**

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)\*\*

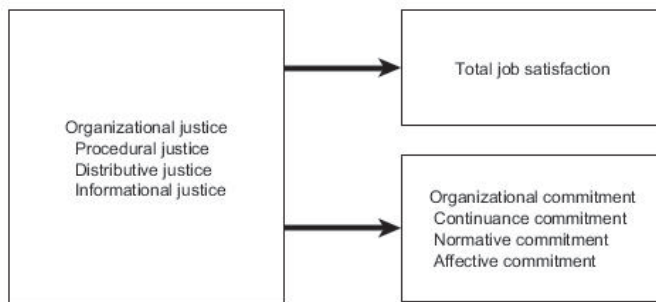


Figure 6. MIA with OJ and JS on the same level



Figure 7. M1B, JS mediating the relation between OJ and OC

Table 5. Model fit for evaluating the mediating role of total job satisfaction

Model	$X^2$	$P$	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
M1A: model with OJ and JS on the same level	27.193	<.01	.97	.98	.077
M1B: model with JS as mediator including IPJ	12.738	>.05(.254)	.99	.99	.021

Note: \*  $p < .05$

Because model M1B (GFI .99, CFI .99, RMSEA .021) had better statistical indices than M1A (GFI .97, CFI .98, RMSEA .077) it was concluded that for our data total job satisfaction will fit better as a mediator.

The next step in analyzing the data was adding to the previously mentioned model the construct of social axioms, organizational justice and total job satisfaction serving as a mediator between social axioms and organizational commitment. Even if the first part of the model is well researched as presented before, to our best of knowledge

there is no research that connects social axioms to organizational justice. There are researches that deal with the impact of cynicism on different organizational aspects (Aküzüm, 2014; Bernerth, Armenakis, & Walker, 2007; Tabatabaei & Bigdelli, 2015), organizational justice being among them, but in these cases cynicism is not conceptualized as part of social axioms. Table 6 and 7 present the statistical parameters of the model. (GFI .99, CFI .99, RMSEA .021)

Table 6. Model fit for evaluating the mediating role of total job satisfaction

Model	$X^2$	P	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
M3: Model with the relation between social axioms and organizational commitment mediated by organizational justice and total job satisfaction	39.076	>.05(.124)	.99	.99	.021

Note: \*  $p < .05$

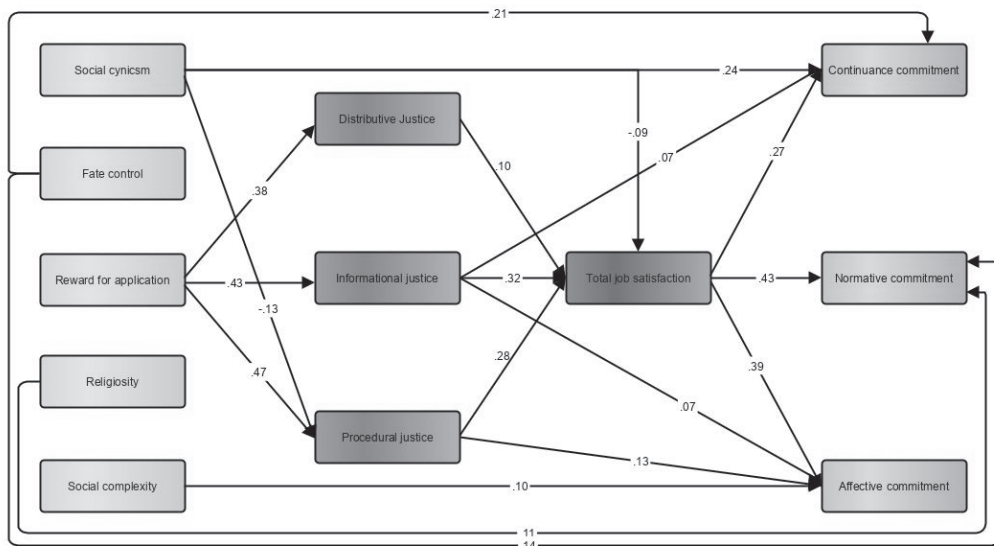


Figure 8. M3, JS and OJ mediating the relation between SA and OC with dimensions included

Table 7. Standardized regression coefficients of model M3.

			Estimate	S.E.	P	Standardized Estimate
Distributive justice	←	Reward for application	.74	.070	***	.37
Informational justice	←	Reward for application	.86	.070	***	.43
Procedural justice	←	Reward for application	.87	.092	***	.47
Procedural justice	←	Social cynicism	-.22	.076	.003	-.12
Total job satisfaction	←	Informational justice	.26	.029	***	.31
Total job satisfaction	←	Reward for application	.47	.075	***	.28
Total job satisfaction	←	Distributive justice	.09	.030	.003	.10
Total job satisfaction	←	Procedural justice	.25	.033	***	.27
Total job satisfaction	←	Social cynicism	-.14	.065	.028	-.09
Normative commitment	←	Total job satisfaction	.43	.037	***	.42
Continuance commitment	←	Total job satisfaction	.29	.041	***	.27
Affective commitment	←	Procedural justice	.11	.034	***	.13

Table 7. Standardized regression coefficients of model M3.

			Estimate	S.E.	P	Standardized Estimate
Continuance commitment	←	Fate control	.32	.064	***	.20
Affective commitment	←	Social complexity	.17	.055	.002	.10
Affective commitment	←	Informational justice	.05	.031	.054	.07
Affective commitment	←	Total job satisfaction	.38	.042	***	.38
Normative commitment	←	Fate control	.20	.050	***	.14
Normative commitment	←	Procedural justice	.11	.030	***	.12
Normative commitment	←	Religiosity	.16	.048	***	.10
Continuance commitment	←	Social cynicism	.40	.067	***	.23
Continuance commitment	←	Informational justice	.06	.031	.054	.06

Note: \*\*p<.01

In the above model (Figure 8.) although the unmediated relationships between informational justice and continuance commitment together with the relationship between informational justice and affective commitment add to the robustness of the model when performing bootstrap analysis, they failed to reach statistical significance (p>.05), thus these relationships will be disconfirmed from further analysis.

From model M3, we can observe that the relationship between fate control and continuance commitment (B=.20, SE=.064 CI 95% [.135, .278], p<.001) and fate control and normative commitment (B=.14, CI 95% [.086-.206], p<.001) is unmediated.

There is an unmediated relationship between social complexity and affective commitment of .10 (SE=.05 CI 95% [.34, .171], p<.05).

Another unmediated relationship is between religiosity and normative commitment (B=.10, SE=.048 CI 95% [.053, .153], p<.05).

Tables 8, 9 and 10 present in detail the significance levels, lower and upper bounds of paths presented in model M3. Based upon these results we can summarize that in case of social cynicism we have an unmediated effect between social cynicism and continuance commitment (B=.23, SE=.067 CI 95% [.190,-363] p<.001); an unmediated effect between

social cynicism and total job satisfaction (B=-.091, SE=.042 CI[-.021,-159] p<.05); and a direct effect between social cynicism and procedural justice (B=-.12, SE=.076 CI[-.101, -.375] p<.005). In case of indirect effects we have mediation by procedural justice between social cynicism and total job satisfaction by procedural justice (B=-.036, SE=.14 CI [-.017,-.061] p<.010); a mediation between social cynicism and normative commitment through procedural justice and total job satisfaction (B=-.071, CI 95% SE=.02 [-.107, -.036] p<.010); a mediation between social cynicism and affective commitment (B=-.066: SE=.02 CI 95% [-.101, -.035] p<.010) through procedural justice and total job satisfaction; and a mediation between social cynicism and continuance commitment through (B=-.01, SE=.02 CI 95% [-.014,-.061] p<.010) procedural justice and total job satisfaction.

Regarding total effects between social cynicism and continuance commitment or data shows a score of .202 (CI 95% SE=.04 [.126, .279] p<.010). Regarding the total effect between social cynicism and affective commitment we have a score of -.066 (CI SE=.02 95% [-.035, -.101] p<.010). Regarding the total effect between social cynicism and normative commitment we have a score of -.71 (SE= .02 CI.95% [-.036,-.107] p<.010).

Table 8. Standardized Total Effects Model M3 with confidence intervals

	Social complexity	Religiosity	Fate control	Reward for application	Social cynicism	Distributive justice	Informational justice	Procedural justice	Job satisfaction
Distributive commitment	.00	.00	.00	.37(.29,.45)**	.00	.00	.000	.00	.00
Informational justice	.00	.00	.00	.43(.33,.51)**	.00	.00	.000	.00	.00
Procedural justice	.00	.00	.00	.47(.36,.57)**	-.12(-.2,-.05)*	.00	.000	.00	.00
Job satisfaction	.00	.00	.00	.58(.48,.68)**	-.12(-.19,-.05)**	.1(.04,.16)**	.31(.25,.38)**	.27(.21,.33)**	.00
Continuance commitment	.00	.00	.2(.13,.27)**	.18(.14,.24)**	.2(.12,.27)**	.02(.01,.05)**	.15(.09.21)**	.07(.04.10)**	.27(.19,.35)**
Affective commitment	.1(.03,.17)*	.00	.00	.31(.25,.39)**	-.06(-.1,-.03)**	.04(.04.07)**	.19(.12,.26)**	.23(.17,.30)**	.38(.29,.46)**
Normative commitment	.00	.1(.05,.16)**	.14	.31(.25,.37)**	-.07(-.1,-.03)**	.04(.01.07)**	.13(.1,.17)**	.24(.18,.30)**	.42(.36.49)**

Values in parenthesis represent confidence intervals after performing bootstrap analysis

Note: \*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*  $p < .05$

Table 9. Standardized Direct Effects Model M3 with confidence intervals

	Social complexity	Religiosity	Fate control	Reward for application	Social cynicism	Distributive justice	Informational justice	Procedural justice	Job satisfaction
Distributive commitment	.00	.00	.00	.37(.29,.45)**	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Informational justice	.00	.00	.00	.43(.33,.51)**	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Procedural justice	.00	.00	.00	.47(.36,.57)**	-.12(-.2,-.05)**	.00	.00	.00	.00
Job satisfaction	.00	.00	.00	.28(.18,.38)**	-.09(-.15,-.02)*	.1(.04,.16)**	.31(.25,.38)**	.27(.21,.33)**	.00
Continuance commitment	.00	.00	.2(.13,.27)**	.00	.23(.16,.31)**	.00	.06(.00,.13)	.00	.27(.19,.35)**
Affective commitment	.1(.03,.17)*	.00	.000	.00	.00	.00	.07(.00,.14)	.13(.06,.21)**	.38(.29,.46)**
Normative commitment	.000	.1(.05,.16)**	.14(.08,.2)**	.00	.00	.00	.00	.12(.12,.18)**	.42(.36,.49)**

Values in parenthesis represent confidence intervals after performing bootstrap analysis

Note: \*\* $p < .01$ .

\* $p < .05$

Table 10. Standardized indirect Effects Model M3 with confidence intervals

	Social complexity	Religiosity	Fate control	Reward for application	Social cynicism	Distributive justice	Informational justice	Procedural justice	Job satisfaction
Distributive justice	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Informational justice	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Procedural justice	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Job satisfaction	.00	.00	.00	.30(.23,.37)**	-.03(-.06,-.01)**	.00	.00	.00	.00
Continuance commitment	.00	.00	.00	.18(.14,.24)**	-.03(-.06,-.01)**	.02(.01,.05)**	.08(.05,.12)**	.07(.04,.1)**	.00
Affective commitment	.00	.00	.00	.31(.25,.39)**	-.06(-.1,-.03)**	.04(.01,.07)**	.12(.08,.16)**	.10(.07,.14)**	.00
Normative commitment	.00	.00	.00	.31(.25,.37)**	-.07(-.1,-.03)**	.04(.01,.07)**	.13(.1,.17)**	.11(.08,.15)**	.00

Values in parenthesis represent confidence intervals after performing bootstrap analysis

Note: \*\* $p < .01$ .

\* $p < .05$

In case of reward for application we have direct effects between it and procedural justice ( $B=.470$   $SE=.06$   $CI$  [.369,-.573]  $p<.005$ ); reward for application and informational justice ( $B=.432$   $SE=.05$   $CI$  95% [.337,-.517]  $p<.005$ ); reward for application and distributive justice ( $B=.377$ ,  $SE=.05$   $CI$  95% [.290,-.456]  $p<.005$ ). Regarding indirect effects the relationship between reward for application and total job satisfaction ( $B=.306$   $SE=.04$ ,  $CI$  95% [.238, -.374]  $p<.005$ ) is mediated by all three aspects of organizational justice. We can also establish mediations between reward for application and continuance commitment ( $B=.189$ ,  $SE=.02$   $CI$  95% [.147, .243]  $p<.005$ ) through all aspects of organizational justice and total job satisfaction; between reward for application and normative commitment ( $B=.310$ ,  $SE=.03$   $CI$  95% [.253, .375],  $p<.005$ ) through all aspects of organizational justice and total job satisfaction; and reward for application and affective commitment ( $B=.319$ ,  $SE=.04$   $CI$  95% [.257,-.392]  $p<.005$ ) through all aspects of organizational justice and total job satisfaction.

Regarding total effects between reward for application and continuance commitment, we have a score of .189 ( $SE=.02$   $CI$  95% [.147, .243]  $p>.05$ ). Regarding total effects between reward for application and normative commitment we have a score of .310 ( $SE=.03$   $CI$  95% [.253, .392]  $p>.05$ ). Regarding total effects between reward for application and affective commitment we have a score of .319 ( $SE=.04$   $CI$  95% [.253, .375]  $p<.005$ ).

## Discussions

One of the first observable complex links between a dimension of social axioms and organizational commitment is between social cynicism and commitment. This connection is one of the most interesting of all analyzed paths. Our original hypothesis stated that social cynicism will be positively related to continuance commitment, relationship that will be mediated by distributive justice, procedural justice (parallel mediation) and job satisfaction (serial mediation) (H1). Based on our data, we can observe that we only have one direct path to procedural justice, which is a negative relation. This leads to the possibility

that people with high cynicism on the one hand don't trust procedures, but on the other hand it is the only way through which they evaluate organizational justice. If they are more or less satisfied with the "game rules" this may lead to positive job satisfaction. It is also worth mentioning that in this case we also have an unmediated negative path with job satisfaction, meaning that high cynicism can lead to slightly low job satisfaction, but a direct positive path with continuance commitment. It is possible that a person with high social cynicism may consider staying with an organization because the subject involved believes that any other organization is as bad as the one he/she is currently in. This supposition is based on the results of J. HiuWai, M. Bond and N. Hui (2009) that cynical persons, because of the negative view about human nature will have less social engagement and more negative social feedback thus organizations, in general, will also be viewed in a negative manner. When we look at the total effects the only positive path found is between social cynicism and continuance commitment; thus we can assume that a person with a high social cynicism score will stay with an organization due of the belief that he has nowhere better to go. From the point of the organization this is the worst possible attitude an employee can have, as it could lead to low motivation and passive-aggressive behavior. Our results regarding the effects of social cynicisms on organizational commitment tend to support the observations made by H. Deng at al. (2011) who state that even high social cynicism can lead to commitment although less significantly than in cases with low cynicism. The present data give more substantiality to the conclusions of H. Deng, showing that the increase is in continuance commitment, while affective and normative commitment tends to decrease. As a summation we can say that social cynicism is related to all three forms of organizational commitment a path that is partially mediated by procedural justice and job satisfaction, thus we can state that H1 is partially confirmed.

In case of social complexity, our hypothesis stated that reward for application will be positively related to continuance commitment, relation that will be mediated all

aspects of organizational justice (parallel mediation) and job satisfaction (serial mediation) (H2). In case of our data the only statistically significant path found was between it and affective commitment, thus we failed to confirm the relations stated in H2.

Our original hypothesis stated that reward for application will be related to continuance commitment, a relationship that will be positively mediated by procedural and distributive justice (parallel mediation) followed by job satisfaction (serial mediation) (H3). Based upon our data the strongest link between the dimensions of social axioms and organizational commitment mediated by organizational justice and job satisfaction is through reward for application, which is (Leung & Bond, 2004) the general belief that, efforts, hard work, knowledge, meticulous planning and investing personal and social resources will lead to positive results and will help to avoid negative consequences, thus this relation should not come as a surprise. The dimension is very strongly related to all aspects of organizational justice, first with procedural justice, followed by informational justice and distributive justice, which in turn mediate the measure in which someone with high scores at reward for application would evaluate if he or she is satisfied with its job, which will in our case led first to a strong affective commitment and then to a normative commitment to the organization. This path brings further proof regarding the link between reward for application and commitment also described by C. Kwantes at al. (2009). Summarizing these results we can state that the path between reward for application all three forms of organizational commitment is fully mediated by all three types of organizational justice and total job satisfaction, thus H3 is partially confirmed.

In case of fate control, our hypothesis stated that the relationship between it and commitment will be positively mediated only by distributive justice (serial mediation) (H4). Based upon our data we could only find direct relations with continuance and normative commitment. In other words a person with high fate control score cares less about organizational justice and job satisfaction, committing to an organization believing that it

is pointless fighting something that is preordained, thus we failed to confirm any mediation by organizational justice (H4).

In the case of religiosity, the proposed hypothesis stated that the path between it and organizational commitment will only be related to normative commitment, path that is mediated only by procedural justice (H5). Based upon our data we could establish only a direct path between religiousness and normative commitment. The direct path between religiousness and normative commitment, although quite weak, would suggest that a person with a high religiousness score would stay with an organization because "it is the right thing to do". In this case the present research managed to capture the relationship between the two dimensions which until now was intuited by C. Kwantes and C. Karam (2009) but were unable to prove it. Thus, because of the lack of mediation between this aspect of social axioms and organizational justice, H5 is only partially confirmed.

## Conclusions

To summarize our results, we can state that three of five hypotheses were partially confirmed and two were not. Taking into consideration that study, to the best of our knowledge, is among the very few to apply all five dimensions of social axioms in an organizational setting, the results can be considered acceptable.

Based upon literature review very few researches have attempted to use all five dimensions in an organizational context (Kwantes & Karam, 2009; Deng, Guan, Bond, Hu, & Zhang, 2011) much less propose a complex model that links multiple aspects of organizational life, which based upon our presented results the present paper manages to do. The research was successful in its primary objective which was linking social axioms to behavioral outcomes in an organizational setting. The resulted model serves as proof that the construct is a valuable addition for understanding how people behave in an organization. More specifically it is among the first to signal how social axioms, which were used to evaluate psychological aspects of

individuals, can lead to paradoxical organizational outcomes (cynicism can lead to continuance commitment even if it causes low job satisfaction), and in some cases bypassing completely aspects designed to regulate and increase efficiency of behaviour inside an organization (lack of mediation between fate control and commitment; lack of mediation between religiousness and commitment; lack of mediation between social complexity and commitment).

One major limitation of the study is of a methodological nature which is the failure to measure interpersonal justice in a statistically significant way, thus this dimension had to be dropped from the data analysis because of the low internal consistency of the scale. In our opinion, this failure is not related to a theoretical deficiency of the scale proposed by S. Roch and L. Shanock (2006) but it has more to do with the personal nature of the questions and the unwillingness of the employees to answer truthfully. The scales measuring affective commitment, normative commitment, and fate control have also internal consistencies below 0.8, however they are in the limits considered as acceptable by J. Pallant (2006). Because of the complexity of the social axiom scale the fit indices are also lower than .9, however the original adaptation study had very similar indices. We have also to take into consideration that the data collected is single source as it relies solely on information gathered from questionnaires.

Further directions that can be taken regarding social axioms is further researching the way in which these interact with organizational level constructs a link which is underrepresented in social and organizational setting but also using them in a clinical setting as they have the potential to better explain the connection between individual and social levels.

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## BOOK REVIEW

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# **Alan Willett – Leading the unleadable: How to Manage Mavericks, Cynics, Divas, and Other Difficult People NY: AMACOM, 22 p.**

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According to McCleskey (2014), the study of leadership spans over more than 100 years. Leadership has thus been defined and conceptualized in many different ways along the way. Bass (2008) argues that the quest for a single characterization of this concept is useless and that regarding the correct choice of a definition, what matters is the specific aspect concerning leadership, that is important to the individual. Thus, when it comes to the book of Alan Willett, “Leading the unleadable. How to Manage Mavericks, Cynics, Divas, and Other Difficult People”, the aspect that is important for the author refers not only to managing such team members, as the title misleadingly states but moreover, to transforming them, and their peers alike, in “tremendous team players everyone wants them to be”. This approach falls under the paradigm of the Transformational Leadership which is one of the most studied and debated concepts in the field of leadership, in the last 30 years (Diaz-Saenz, 2011, p. 299).

Burns (1978) described the transformational leader as an individual who raises the consciousness of the followers regarding the value of the outcomes and the way of reaching them. Bass (2008), added that the transformational leader also raises the need’s level of the followers from basic needs to self-actualization and achievement. These are the exact main points Alan Willett intends to make along with his book. With a focus on problem employees, he emphasizes on aspects

such as the importance of creating a sense of purpose and a need for excellence, which are in line with the definition of a transformational leader, mentioned above.

Having experience acquired from the field of practice, Alan Willett shares, in his book, some of the key points derived from his direct implication in consulting some of the top tier high technology organizations around the world, such a NASA, Oracle and Microsoft. The book is mainly structured around practical advice and case studies of real-life situations that the author has worked with, and it is addressed to people who find themselves in positions of leadership. Each part of the book has reflection points at the end, where the reader is invited to think about how the main points of the chapter could be applied to his own experience.

The book has four main parts, each of them addressing a specific facet of the leadership situation, that are further divided into more chapters. The first chapter, The call to exceptional leadership, introduces the main recurrent themes and ideas, that function as a backbone for the parts that follow. This part addresses ideas that the reader has to internalize itself to become a leader capable of inspiring others. As the author states, leadership is a choice that has been made by the leader whether he/she has acknowledged it yet, or not, and one of the critical points to lead the unleadable is first to take ownership of this position. Another critical point of the first part

is the differentiation made by Allan Willett, between leadership and exceptional leadership. His conceptualization of outstanding leadership fits very well with the way that transformational leadership is depicted by literature. He states that a change of mindset is needed to switch to extraordinary leadership so that the facts that one might perceive as obstacles and problems will be viewed as challenges. Here, the author emphasizes the importance of setting goals that have an intrinsic personal value.

Another point made by the author is, is that to achieve the mindset necessary for leading difficult people, the leader must start from the idea that the other people also strive for excellence themselves. The goal of the leader becomes helping such individuals grow within his lead and teaching teams to manage their troubles without the involvement of the management. Quality, progress and the wellbeing of the team members, are seen as indicators of a leadership style that aims at excellence.

The above-mentioned key points are further transposed in the second part, The leader in action. Spotting trouble, dealing with trouble. As the leader's responsibility is to the group, it is essential that he takes action in the case of a troublesome situation or individual. First, it is important that the leader becomes aware of why the condition is necessary to be dealt with, both for him and for the group, and then he is invited to take part in a reflective process to determine what emotions does the situation evoke and why. A non-judgmental attitude is suggested when addressing the problematic individual. The importance of a follow-through plan is also made clear. Emphasis is placed on setting objectives that start from the idea that success is the possible outcome if we have decided to keep the individual in the organization, and on the process of teaching other team members to help their colleague in his development.

The process of goal setting is also substantial, for the third part "The leader in action. Preventing trouble". The author starts from the idea that there is a general need for difficult tasks as long as these are viewed as valuable, and thus the process of setting goals and expectations becomes crucial for building a sense of purpose. Another key point in

preventing trouble is by making sure you have a good start, which is further debated in this part, containing specific techniques and ideas.

The last part, "Leading leaders" is focused on two main themes: Leading a particular group of people composed of individuals who themselves hold leading positions, and learning to lead yourself. Regarding leading a group of leaders, differences are drawn between this situation, and the case of leading regular followers and some techniques are offered an example for early detection and solving of problematic situations. According to Alan Willett "if you truly want to be an exceptional leader who can consistently provide great value, to have positive impact, and even to transform troublesome situations to tremendous, then the focus must start with your inner game of leadership." He further suggests focusing on the "leadership sweet spot" that enables the individual to draw more energy from tasks, than the amount of energy he/she invests in these tasks. The leadership "sweet spot" is at the intersection of three main factors: Passion, that in the conception of the author is similar to the flow state and refers to the feeling of not noticing the time passing, when engaged in a task, Competence, defined as the skill set necessary for the completion of jobs, and Value that the work provides to yourself and others. Guidelines are also offered on how to manage your energy levels.

Across all the four main parts of the book, there is a set of recurrent themes that come together as important and function as a red wire to guide the reader. First, there is the concept of Ownership and self-awareness that focuses on establishing and prioritizing the things that hold value and contribute to a sense of purpose, and then taking responsibility of your choice and of the process of following this choice. To facilitate this process, emphasis is placed on the importance of operationalization, of both goals and indicators that you have attained your target. The reader is encouraged to set goals and indicators that follow a high standard, aiming at excellence. All these are backed up by a change of mindset. Once the leader has taken ownership of the decision to lead, she/he will see the process, not as an obligation but as a choice which will further lead to a change in the perspective of everyday work. The leader

will go from having to make it through the day to make the best of the day and helping the team grow as well along the way. These aspects could be considered the foundation that the books is built on.

Derived from practice, *Leading the unleadable*, also contains many great examples of specific cases in which the application of suggestions recommended by the author have proven efficient for different leaders and managers. However, the book lacks the theoretical part, as it does not provide evidence of being backed up by the scientific literature, nor does it contain any mention of frameworks or theories that the reader could further investigate. In some cases, overgeneralizations are made, such as the emphasis placed upon setting standards of excellence and pushing the limits, without mentioning that a mistake can result from the overall growth of workload without taking in the account the challenges and hindrances in our specific context. These aspects, although, are somewhat justified as the book is aimed at people who already have a leadership position and can supplement the information derived from the book with their own experience. In this case, the book could offer a set of insights and could prove to be a good inspiration

source to boost one's motivation for improving its leadership game.

"Leading the unleadable" by Alan Willett is addressed to leaders but is an easy read for anyone interested in the topic of leadership. It focuses on practical perspective, containing both examples and reflection points to keep the reader engaged. The book's central affirmations are in line with the theory of transformational leadership, and they aim at offering support for leaders who wish to make a change, maximize their resources, and to transform the "troublesome in the tremendous".

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- McCleskey, J. A. (2014). Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 5(4), 117.

## BOOK REVIEW

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### **Lanik, M. (2018). *The Leader Habit: Master the Skills You Need to Lead – in Just Minutes a Day*. New York, NY: AMACOM. 238 p.**

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CARMEN PĂCALĂ

*West University of Timișoara, Romania*

The times we are living in are becoming very complicated. People are expected to know as many things from as diverse fields as possible. But even so, how can we use all this knowledge and is it relevant? What can we do with all the information we gather and try to memorize? These are day-to-day issues everyone deals with, no matter the field or the studied subject. These are some questions the author asks himself, and the answers are comprised in this book.

Leadership has been in the eye of the researchers for a substantial number of years, and many practitioners that have the responsibility to guide a group of people have probably read books and went to workshops and different training programs, but how much did that help them?

This book has many practical applications, but it is mainly addressed to leaders that are uncertain about the aspects that don't seem to have the expected effect and how to find the issue in this situation, for leaders that want a simple and accessible way to know themselves better and then to improve certain facets that seem to be the problem, for the leaders that studied their area, but are unsure how to use all the information they gained. It can be categorized in the self-development department, but also in the field of psychology of leadership, even though it includes different aspects of various subjects of psychology.

The author, who has a career built in the leadership development domain, promises a

simple solution for acquiring new leadership skills in just five minutes. The central idea is that people can develop different skills by overlearning simple behaviors to the point of becoming habits. Because of their nature, practices need very little mental energy to occur, a process that the author names "automaticity" and it's similar to autopilot mode.

The book is short and written in a friendly manner so that the readers, no matter the experience they have, can understand the main idea and how to apply it in a style that suits them best. It is divided into six parts and then is smaller chapters. The chapters also have a few subtitles that are only two to three pages long, so the reader doesn't feel forced to go through a significant chapter.

The first two chapters are comprised in the first part of the book called "How it works". It addresses the main ideas that stand behind the "leader habit formula". It breaks down the main components, it gives a clear definition, and it doesn't expect the reader to know certain aspects of psychology or neuroscience already. This first chapter encompasses information taken from different reliable, scientific sources that the reader can later check if they are interested in the processes that are behind habits. The next chapter elaborates the characteristics of specific behaviors that have the potential to become a habit. The author includes a description of the study that is behind the book and the

procedures he and his team went through when they categorized the primary twenty-two leadership skills with their corresponding seventy-nine micro-behaviors.

Part two called "Build your leadership skills" has three chapters, and the central idea is the way the personality of the leader can influence the way they acquire specific skills. The author is helping the reader to know himself better and then to find the particular micro-behaviors, as he calls them, that they can practice more efficiently so that eventually they will occur naturally. The book has a brief questionnaire that can guide the reader, but the author provides a link for a free, extended version of the said questionnaire. It continues with a thorough description of the six main personality dimensions of the theory that have the corresponding labels: curious, organized, caring, outgoing, ambitious and resilient.

Part three elaborates on all the seventy-nine micro behaviors the author mentioned in the previous chapters. He divides them by the corresponding primary leadership skills and then indicates why are those specific skills critical, what they add to a leader's experience, how can one figure out they need to improve that particular skill and which personality trait has a natural tendency to do the said behavior. As expected, this is the longest part of the

book. The author didn't take any shortcuts and gave the reader a reliable scaffolding for picking and practicing the micro-behaviors they consider best for them.

The last part of the book entitled "Encourage skills in others" addresses the motivations that stay behind our behaviors and how we can foster them in others, what ways we can use to persuade people to change, how to challenge them to see that certain things they do aren't reasonable. The chapters go into inevitable mistakes one does when telling others, they need to change or improve what they do and how they do specific tasks. It touches the subjects of empathy, patience, and contemplation and in the end, it encourages the reader to persevere in his journey of becoming a better leader.

To conclude, I consider this book a valuable source of information for the general public, that has a scientific background and structure behind it, an aspect that will please the more skillful reader that knows different fields of psychology. Even though the book is intended for those that want to improve their leadership skills, the information presented is simple enough so that the reader can apply it in different aspects of his day-to-day life, no matter the circumstances.

## PUBLISHING STANDARDS

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# Psychology of Human Resources – guide for authors

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### THE EDITORS

This document represents the “Guide for Authors”. It covers the format and language to be used for manuscripts submitted to Human Resources Psychology. Also, this document can be found on the webpage of the Romanian Association of Industrial and Organizational Psychology ([www.apio.ro](http://www.apio.ro)).

This “Guide for Authors” follows the 6<sup>th</sup> APA Publication Manual.

### Manuscript Submission and Format

All manuscripts for the journal Human Resources Psychology should be submitted to the following e-mail address: [revista@apio.ro](mailto:revista@apio.ro).

To edit the manuscript please use Times New Roman 12-point type, 1.5 line spacing and the A4 page setting. Each page will be numbered in the upper right corner. The top and side margins should be left of at least one inch or 2.54 cm. A full example of a manuscript can be found in the 6<sup>th</sup> APA Publication Manual.

### Publications

Accepted papers are copy-edited and retyped. Authors have to review edits and proofread their work. The editor of Human Resources Psychology will contact the corresponding author after the editor assigns your work to an issue.

If your work is accepted, please keep the editor informed of changes in your contact information and of long absences.

### Front Page

The first page of the manuscript should include the following information:

#### 1. Title

The title should be a concise statement of the main topic and should identify the variables or theoretical issues under investigation and the relationship between them. It should be typed in sentence case, centered between left and right margins, and positioned in the upper half of the page.

#### 2. Author name(s) and institutional affiliation(s)

Author name(s) will be presented in the following form: first name, middle initial(s), and last name.

Institutional affiliation should reflect the institution/location where the author(s) were when the research was conducted. When an author has no institutional affiliation, the city and state of residence below the author’s name should be specified. The institutional affiliation should be centered under the author's name, on the next line.

#### 3. Author’s note

This section should include the following:

- First paragraph should include the departmental affiliations at the time of the study for all authors as follows: name of the author as it appears in the byline, comma, department name, comma, university name, semicolon, next

author name, and so on, and end with a period.

- Second paragraph should include any changes in author affiliation subsequent to the time of the study as follows: [author's name] is now at [affiliation].
- Third paragraph should include acknowledgments (only for grants or other financial support, any special agreements concerning authorship, thanks for personal assistance) and special circumstances (disclose them before the acknowledgements in this paragraph).
- Fourth paragraph should include information about the person to contact in terms of mailing address and e-mail.

Place the author note on the title page, below the title, byline, and affiliation. Center the label *Author Note*. Start each paragraph of the note with an indent, and type separate paragraphs for the authors' names and current affiliations, changes in affiliations, acknowledgments, and special circumstances, if any, along with the person to contact. The author note is not numbered or cited in the text.

### **Abstract Page**

The abstract as well as the title of the work go on page 2. The abstract should be no longer than 150 words. The label *Abstract* should appear in sentence case, centered, at the top of the page. Type the abstract itself as a single paragraph without paragraph indentation. Place a running head (short title).

The abstract will be written in English, French and Romanian. It is necessary to include 3-5 key words after each abstract, in all these three languages.

### **Main body text pages**

In preparing your manuscript, begin the introduction on page 3. Type the title of the manuscript in sentence case centered at the top of the page, and then type the text. The remaining sections of the article follow each other without a break; do not start a new page when a new heading occurs.

This section should include the following:

- Introduction of the problem. This section will present the specific problem under the study and describe the research strategy. There is no need to label this section as Introduction.
- Explore importance of the problem. This section states why the problem deserves new research. State explicitly this problem according to the type of the study (empirical study, literature review and meta-analysis, methodological paper and case study).
- Describe relevant scholarship by discussing the relevant related literature and demonstrating the logical continuity between previous and present work.
- State each tested hypothesis clearly and provide a theoretical argument for how it was derived from theory or is logically connected to previous data and argumentation.

### **Method**

This section describes in detail how the study was conducted, including conceptual and operational definitions of the variables used in the study. Authors should include the following:

- Sample description, by describing the main characteristics with particular emphasis on characteristics that may have bearing on the interpretation of results.
- Sampling procedure by describing the procedures for selecting participants in terms of sampling method, the percentage of the sample approached that participated, the number of participants who selected themselves into the sample.
- Sample size, power and precision.
- Measures and covariates by describing the methods used to collect data and to enhance the quality of the measurements.
- Research design.

- Experimental manipulations or procedures.
- Task description.

## Results

This section summarizes the collected data and the analysis performed on the data to test the proposed hypotheses. Report the data analysis in sufficient detail to justify your conclusions. For more information please consult the 6<sup>th</sup> APA Publication Manual.

## Discussion

This section evaluates and interprets the implications of the results, especially with respect to original hypotheses. Examine, interpret, and qualify the results and draw inferences and conclusions from them. Emphasize any theoretical or practical consequences of the results.

Also, the limits of the study and possible future studies can be considered in this section.

## References

References are your entries in the *alphabetical list at the end* of your article or research note. This list should include all the works you have cited throughout the manuscript. The references should be formatted as follows:

### 1. Periodicals (selective examples)

Author, A.A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx, pp-pp. doi: xx.xxxxxxxx

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., Author, C. C., Author, D. D., Author, E. E., Author, F.F., ... Author, Y.Y. (year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx, pp-pp. doi: xx.xxxxxxxx

Author, A.A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx, pp-pp.

Author, A.A., & Author, B.B. (in press). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*. Retrieved from <http://cogprints.org/5780/1/ECSRAP.F07.pdf>

### 2. Books

Author, A. A. (year). *Title of work*. Location: Publisher.

Author, A. A. (year). *Title of work*. Retrieved from <http://www.xxxxxxx>

Author, A. A. (year). *Title of work*. doi: xxxxx

Editor, A. A. (Ed.) (year). *Title of work*. Location: Publisher.

### 3. For chapters in a book or entry in a reference book (selective example)

Author, A.A., & Author, B.B. (year). Title of chapter or entry. In A. Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor (Eds.), *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Location: Publisher.

Author, A.A., & Author, B.B. (year). Title of chapter or entry. In A. Editor & B. Editor (Eds.), *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Retrieved from <http://www.xxxxxxx>

Author, A.A., & Author, B.B. (year). Title of chapter or entry. In A. Editor, B. Editor, & C. Editor (Eds.), *Title of book* (pp. xxx-xxx). Location: Publisher. doi: xxxxxxxx

### 4. Meeting and symposia (selective examples)

Contributor, A.A., Contributor, B.B., Contributor, C.C., & Contributor, D.D. (Year, Month). Title of contribution. In E.E. Chairperson (Chair), *Title of symposium*. Symposium conducted at the meeting of Organization Name, Location.

Presenter, A.A. (Year, Month). *Title of paper or poster*. Paper or poster session presented at the meeting of Organization Name, Location.

### 5. Unpublished works (selective examples)

Author, A.A. (Year). Title of manuscript. Unpublished manuscript [or "Manuscript submitted for publication," or "Manuscript in preparation"].

For a detailed description of the procedure related to the citation of other types of work than those listed above, consult the 6<sup>th</sup> APA Publication Manual.

## Footnotes

Footnotes are used to provide additional content or to acknowledge copyright permission status.

## Appendices

The appendices of the manuscript (labeled APPENDIX A, APPENDIX B etc.) contain materials that supplements article content such as lengthy methodological procedures, calculations of measures, scales etc.

## Tables and Figures

The author should number all tables and figures with Arabic numerals in the order in which they are first mentioned in the text, regardless of whether a more detailed discussion of the table or figure occurs later in the paper. The author should label them as Table 1, Table 2, and so on or Figure 1, Figure 2, and so on. List all tables first followed by figures. Place tables and figures after appendices at the end of the manuscript, and indicate the position of each in the text as follows:

-----  
 Insert Table 1 about here  
 -----

Each table or figure needs an introductory sentence in your text. The format agreed is the standard (canonical) one. Each table should report one type of analysis (which is identified in the title), and each vertical column and horizontal row should contain only one type of data.

## Citation

It is important to put in the Reference section every work you have cited throughout the manuscript. The author can cite in-text as follows:

### 1. One author

Name and year: It has been found that X is associated with Y (Author, year)

Year only: Author (year) has found that

### 2. Two authors

When a work has two authors, the author should cite both names every time the reference occurs in the text.

When a work has three, four, or five authors, you should cite all authors the first time the reference occurs but in the subsequent citations, include only the surname of the first author followed by et al.,

(not Italicized and with a period after al.) and the year.

### 3. Two or more cited works

The author should order citations *alphabetically*. Designate two or more works by one author (or by an identical group of authors) published in the same year by adding “a,” “b,” and so forth, after the year.

### 4. Works with no identified author or with an Anonymus author

When a work has no identified author, the author should cite in text the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. Use double quotation marks around the title of an article, a chapter, or a web page and italicize the title of a periodical, a book, a brochure, or a report:

on organizational commitment  
 (“Study Report”, 2011)  
 the book *Motivational Outcomes*  
 (2011)

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To cite a specific part of a source, the author should indicate the page, chapter, figure, table, or equation at the appropriate point in text. Always give page numbers for quotations.

(Johnny, 2011, p. 13)

### 6. Secondary sources

When the original work is out of print, unavailable through usual sources, the author should give the secondary source in the reference list and in the text you should name the original work and give a citation for the secondary source

Minnie’s report (as cited in Smith, 2011).

**Thank you for paying attention to the conventions outlined in this guide – it will help the work of everyone involved in the publication of this journal.**