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LEADER VALUES AS PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE

AFFECT AND WORK PASSION INTENTIONS

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Abstract: The purpose of this study was to examine the empirical connection between employee perceptions of their leaders' values orientation, employee job-specific affect, and the resultant impact these two constructs have on employee work passion intentions. Seven hundred forty-seven respondent surveys were analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM) to assess the study's proposed theoretical model. The latent constructs tested included cognition (i.e., perceptions of interpersonal work experience), affect, and intentions. Perceived leader self-concern showed a significant direct correlation with negative job-specific affect as well as a negative relationship with intent to stay. Leader other-orientation showed sizeable, direct, significant correlations with employee positive job-specific affect and resultant work passion intentions such as intent to endorse, intent to perform, intent to stay, intention to use discretionary effort, and intention to be an organizational citizen.

Keywords:work passion intentions;affect, leader self-concern, leader other-orientation

1. Introduction

Over the last several years the emerging concept of engagement/work passion has begun to mature (see Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck & Wollard, 2009, for summary overviews).[1] Since the

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initial "coining" of the term *engagement* by Kahn (1990), who used the term to describe the employee "being fully present" at work, much has been written to describe the phenomenon but not necessarily explain the formulation and practical application of the concept (Albrecht, 2010; Scherbaum, Putka, Naidoo, & Youssefnia, 2010).

The links between employees' perceived organizational environmental conditions and non-apparent internal states of work passion have not been adequately explored through empirical research (Albrecht, 2010; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010). Much of the research up to now has focused upon describing the relationship between engagement/work passion and performance related outcomes (Albrecht, 2010; Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011).

Additionally, some initial research has examined the role of leadership in the encouragement of employee engagement/work passion (i.e., Papalexandris & Galanaki, 2009; Segers, De Prins, & Brouwers, 2010; Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012); however, future leadership studies need to include underlying conceptual frameworks that both inform future research, as well as build a body of research based upon a common definition and understanding of latent constructs that explain the conditions which foster engaged or passionate employees (Albrecht, 2010; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009). Specifically, the question of what leaders can do to foster or discourage employee work passion needs to be explored.

The purpose of this article is to present a case for an empirical connection between employee perceptions of their leader's values orientation, employee job-specific affect, and the resultant impact these two constructs have on employee work passion intentions. The framework for this study builds upon the social cognitive model proposed by Zigarmi et al. (2009) to explain how employee work passion occurs. This article explores employee connection with leadership and colleagues as perceived conditions of the environment and two internal characteristics (i.e., affect and intention). More specifically, it proposes that employee cognitions or perceptions of their leader's values will influence how employees feel about their job, which will, in turn, encourage or inhibit certain behaviors indicative of employees who are passionate about their work.

2. Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

A Model of Employee Work Passion

As the concept of employee engagement/work passion has evolved, at least five models have been proposed to explain its formation: the job demands-resources model (JD-R, Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), the conservation of resources theory (COR, Hobfoll, 1989), role theory (Kahn, 1990), the job characteristic theory (JCT, Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and employee work passion appraisal model (EWPA, Zigarmi et al., 2009).

The EWPA model is embedded in the social cognitive theory of appraisal (i.e., Lazarus, 1984, 1991a, 1991b, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and associated with theories of reasoned action (i.e., TRA; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and planned behavior (i.e., TPB; Ajzen, 1985, 1991). The theories above aim to explain human behavior in general rather than focusing specifically on the behavior of work passion. We have chosen the EWPA model because it is in keeping with theories such as the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, which maintain that intentions play a key role in the prediction of behavior (Webb & Sheeran, 2006). This section first provides a conceptual description of the EPWA model, which is then followed by evidence from a preliminary field test of that model.

The EWPA model, which involves the four components of cognition, affect, job well-being, and intention, uses an appraisal construct to integrate these latent constructs. The operational definition of employee work passion offered through this model is "an individual's persistent, emotionally positive, meaning-based, state of well-being stemming from reoccurring cognitive and affective appraisals of various job and organizational situations that result in consistent, constructive work intentions and behavior" (Zigarmi et al., 2009, p. 310).

Within the EWPA model, the appraisal process is conceptually divided into two phases. The first phase is concerned with questions of whether the situation or experience is relevant to an individual's sense of well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and the second phase involves an understanding and choosing of coping options to deal with that sense of well-being or lack thereof (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). As this social cognitive theory would imply, the importance of the second phase involves the generation of intention to shape the future for the "agentic" individual. While the first phase is concerned with the intake of information and the processing of the descriptive features of what is being appraised, the second phase proceeds beyond description to an evaluation of the experience and what can be done about it (James & James, 1989; Shamir, 1991). Employee intentions are the bi-products of affective and cognitive appraisals formed from the employee perceptions of environmental factors such as interpersonal relationships, organizational culture, and the job demands and requirements.

Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, and Diehl (2011) conducted an initial empirical field test of the EWPA model that provided partial support for the conceptual definition of employee work passion offered by Zigarmi et al. (2009). In the EWPA diagrammatic representation suggested by Zigarmi et al. (2011), besides the incorporation of the concept of well-being as a mediator of cognition, affect, and intention, several relevant hypotheses were confirmed (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Structural Model of Employee Work Passion (p. <0.005)
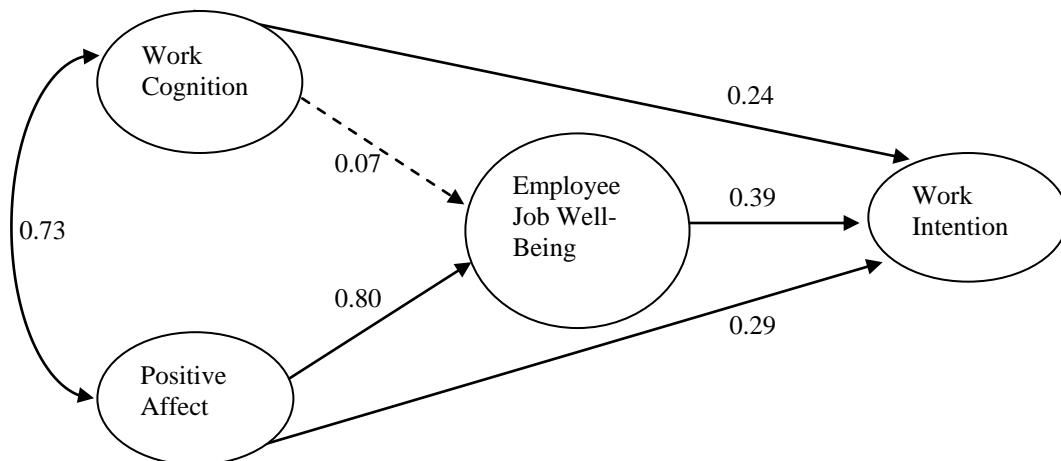
From: "A Preliminary Field Test of an Employee Work Passion Model" by D. Zigarmi, K. Nimon, D. Houson, D. Witt, and J. Diehl, 2011, Human Resource Development Quarterly, 22, p. 208.Copyright2011 by Wiley.

Using structural equation modeling techniques in their field test, Zigarmi et al. (2011) reported that the correlations between the four latent constructs were differentially important. Their findings indicated that the formation of work passion appeared to be a process by which employees form cognitive conclusions and affective inferences about their workplace which result in a sense of well-being that correlates with the second phase of the appraisal process, namely, intentions.

In the present research, because we were less interested in proving the viability of the complete model and more interested in the direct relationship between cognition and affect and the resultant intentions, we chose not to include the moderating variable of well-being. Also, we did not include the measurement of the concept of well-being in this study because, while well-being was a strong mediator between work cognition, work affect, and intention in the EWPA field test, there also were significant direct paths between cognition and intention (. 24) and affect and intention (.29). The initial study by Zigarmi et al. (2011) informed and shaped the current investigation.

The Concept of Cognition

The cognitive dimension of the EWPA model is concerned with the development of mental schema or patterns of thought that represent the features, images, feelings, and ideas associated with the work experience being appraised (James & James, 1989; Lord & Kernan, 1987; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). Interrelated schemas are formed and hierarchical conclusions or schemata take shape because the perceived world possesses highly correlated elements (Lord & Kernan, 1987).

We define work cognition as the accumulation of mental descriptions or schema and valuations or schemata, which are formed stemming from the individual's interaction with the work experience appraised (cf. Lord & Kernan, 1987; Markus, 1977; Wofford et al., 1998). Hierarchical mental structures (schemata) are formed to represent the combination of remembered, as well as perceived, schemas of present experience (Lord & Kernan, 1987; Wofford et al., 1998). In this way, already formed antecedent schema (beliefs, expectations, and past history) are combined with present experience, and cognition moves from descriptive to evaluative conclusions (Lazarus, 1991a, and 1991b).

There are several antecedents "outside" the appraiser around which various cognitions are formed. Ostroff (1993) suggested three construct separations and associated variables by which to understand possible environmental influences: perceptions of job experience (i.e., autonomy, meaningful work, etc.), perceptions of organizational experience (i.e., opportunities for growth, distributive fairness, etc.), and perceptions of interpersonal work experience (i.e., connectedness with leaders, connectedness with colleagues, etc.). Ostroff's third construct—perceptions of interpersonal work experience—is relevant to the framework proposed by this study, which examines employees' relationship-based cognitive perceptions of their leaders/colleagues and the resulting impact on employee affect and intention. Thus, to learn more about how interpersonal experiences may predict employee work passion, the current study specifically examines employees' cognitive perceptions of their work environment pertaining to their interpersonal experiences with their boss and colleagues.

Perceptions of Interpersonal Work Experience We examined four variables representing employees' cognitive appraisals of their interpersonal work experience; these are connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues, manager self-concern, and manager other- orientation. While there has been a great deal written on the topic of leadership in the last 50 years, with evolutions from transactional to transformational to authentic leadership, little research has been published examining the impact of leadership on employee work passion (Segers et al., 2010). Some initial work suggests that leaders can influence a follower's state of engagement (Segers et al., 2010) as well as create a work environment that influences levels of engagement (Tuckey et al., 2012).

The connectedness with leader variable has shown strong correlations with various output measures. This variable is defined as the extent to which individuals perceive a supportive and non-controlling relationship with their leader, characterized by perceptions of interpersonal fairness and psychological safety (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999). This variable involves the leader's displays of concern for an employee's needs and feelings and a sense of openness and willingness to be human. Connectedness connotes that the employee views his/her leader as being considerate, using a participative decision-making style, and having frequent meaningful conversations. This variable correlates with organizational commitment (S.P. Brown, 1996; Eby et al., 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), job satisfaction (Eby et al., 1999; Griffeth, et al., 2000), intrinsic motivation (Eby et al., 1999), and organizational citizenship behaviors (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002).

The connectedness with colleagues variable is defined as the extent to which employees perceive that they have rewarding interpersonal interactions with their coworkers (Parker et al., 2003). This factor is similar to connectedness with leader in that it relates to the general work environment and the interpersonal dynamics of the work experience. Interactions with coworkers foster a sense of belonging in employees, a sense of social identity and meaning, and a willingness to make future emotional investments in their work relationships (James & James 1989; McClure & Brown, 2008). In a recent meta-analysis, it was found that lateral relationships or a connection with peers had strong influences on role perceptions, work attitudes (affect), withdrawal, the use of OCBs, and performance, even after controlling for leadership effects and mediation processes (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Finally, a meta-analysis by Griffeth, Hom, and Gaetner (2000) found that work group cohesion frequently correlated with job satisfaction.

In addition to connectedness with others, the interpersonal work experience is also shaped by employees' cognitive perceptions of their leader's values. The preponderance of the research on values has been conducted at the individual level as opposed to organizational, institutional, societal, or global levels (Agle & Caldwell, 1999). In the studies done at the individual level, the bulk of the research has been done on individual personal values by such notables as Rokeach, Spranger, and Allport rather than specifically on work values (Agle & Caldwell, 1999; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Lastly, much of the research originates with the holder of the values in an attempt to measure multiple values simultaneously, rather than how the perceptions of others might be construed from another's speech and action (Agle & Caldwell, 1999).

Much of the past values literature on leadership starts with a methodological approach of profiling the leaders' values (leader self-report data) and comparing them to follower perceptions (follower questionnaire data) of various output measures such as job commitment or organizational commitment. In keeping with Agle and

Caldwell's (1999) suggestion "that having other people evaluate participants values may be fruitful" (p. 371) and, informed by the EWPA model framework, we chose to focus on how perceived managerial values might influence employee affect and work passion intentions. We propose that leader self-concern and other-orientation are key value orientations that influence how employees feel about their job and, ultimately, employees' work passion intentions. Rational self-concern is defined as thinking and acting in a manner that is expected to lead to optimal or maximal results for oneself on the basis of one's values and risk preferences (De Dreu, 2006). It has been said that self-interest often serves as an assumption rather than as the true foundation of behavior (Ferrero, Pfeffer, & Sutton, 2005; Miller, 1999). Other-orientation is defined as a concern for the interests, needs, and desires of others (De Dreu, 2006) and leads to cooperative behavior oriented toward serving collective goals. It is likely that self-concerned managers influence the feelings and work passion intentions of their direct reports in ways that are notably different from managers who are other-oriented.

De Dreu and Nauta (2009) argue that self-concern and other-orientation are independent constructs, asserting that people are driven by both self-interest and concern for others, rather than the common assumption that people are either self-interested or other-oriented. However, the authors of the model also note that in specific contexts, self- and other- orientations may be correlated positively or negatively (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). The above studies suggest that a leader's value orientation pervades many aspects of organizations. Furthermore, it is reasonable to believe that leader self-concern and other-orientation influence how employees perceive their interpersonal work experience.

Self-sacrificial leadership behavior has been shown to correlate with employee perceptions of leader charisma and legitimacy as well as the tendency to reciprocate (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004). The impact of leader self-serving behavior or self-sacrificing behavior has been shown to impact employee productivity, perceived effectiveness (i.e., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), and most importantly, employee affect (i.e., De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2004).

The Concept of Affect

The affective aspect of the EWPA is concerned with employees' emotional reactions formulated in the appraisal process stemming from their perceptions of their work experience (James & James, 1989; Lazarus, 1984). We refer to the concept of affect, or emotions, as lasting affective inferences formulated during and after cognitive conclusions are reached, concerning the impact of the work experience has on one's sense of well-being (cf. James & James, 1989, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Siemer & Reisenzein, 2007).

Cognitive and affective schema can occur simultaneously. While it has recently been proposed that emotions and cognitions are related via "bidirectional paths" or in a synchronous reciprocal relationship (Fugate, Harrison, & Kinicki, 2011), the preponderance of research suggests that complex appraisals are comprised of both affective inferences and cognitive conclusions (Lazarus 1984; Parkinson, 2007). Most of the time, feeling is not free of thought nor is thought free of feeling (Lazarus, 1984; Zajonc, 1980). In some cases certain feelings increase attention to specific environmental stimuli which may precipitate cognition (Forgas & George, 2001; Fugate et al., 2011).

Since the development and validation of the PANAS (Watson, Clark, &Tellegen, 1988), the measurement of mood or affect using a standard acceptable instrument has appeared more frequently in the literature. Using meta-analytic methods, positive and negative affect has been shown to correlate with job-related attitudes, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and dimensions of burnout (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, de Chermont, & Warren, 2003). Positive moods have also been shown to correlate with task performance (Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007). Lastly, specific studies have shown the influence of affect on work-related behaviors such as worker motivation, creativity and performance, interpersonal judgments and communication, performance appraisal judgments and selection interviews, organizational spontaneity, employee flexibility and helpfulness, absenteeism, collective bargaining, and negotiation behaviors (Forgas & George, 2001).

A review of the literature on affect reveals that cognition and affect are directly connected to an individual's appraisal of his/her environmental experience. Given some of the prevailing research cited above we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Perceived connectedness with leader and connectedness with colleagues are positively related to positive job-specific affect.

Hypothesis 1b: Perceived connectedness with leader and connectedness with colleagues are negatively related to negative job-specific affect.

Hypothesis 2a: Perceived leader other-orientation is positively related to positive job-specific affect.

Hypothesis 2b: Perceived leader other-orientation is negatively related to negative job-specific affect.

Hypothesis 2c: Perceived leader self-concern is negatively related to positive job-specific affect.

Hypothesis 2d: Perceived leader self-concern is positively related to negative job-specific affect.

The Concept of Intentions

Starting with Wicker's (1969) review which revealed that general attitude items in survey research only weakly predict specific behaviors, several models have arisen to explain the connection between attitude, intention, and behavior (Webb & Sheeran, 2006). Models such as the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen 1985, 1991), the prototype-willingness model (PWM; Gibbons, Girard, Blanton, & Russell, 1998), and the theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) explore the relationship between intentions and behavior. Over the years several meta-analytic studies (i.e., Armitage & Connor, 2001; Godin & Kok, 1996; Randall & Wolf, 1994) reported weighted sample average correlations between measures of intention and behavior ranging from .41 to .47. A recent meta-analysis by Sheeran (2002) examined the role of intention in 422 studies involving 82,107 participants showed that, on average, 28% of the variance ($r_+ = .53$) in behavior was accounted for by intention. Furthermore, intentions have been shown that the strong connection in the attitude-intention-behavior sequence (Webb & Sheeran, 2006).

As described in the appraisal literature (Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), employees begin to use the formed summative evaluative statements concerning their overall well-being as a result of their various experiences in the organization over time. By combining conclusions of well-being (or lack of) generated by their organizational or environmental experience (past and present) with their already established personal values, emotions, and expectations, individuals form future strategies or intentions to cope with those experiences (Bandura, 1986; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b). Work intentions are created to cope with realized difficulties or identified needs and wants that emerge from a positive or negative sense of well-being (Bagozzi, 1992; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Intentions are used as a mental guide to purposeful behavior. They can be of two types: goal intentions and their contingent means intentions (Heckhausen & Beckmann, 1990). Work intentions are a set of goal representations or mental schema, and means representations or mental schemas are formed as a result of the appraisal process. Intentions are designed to meet an individual's needs or wants stemming from a sense of, or lack of, well-being. Intentions are a mental representation of behavior that an employee chooses to manifest (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Bagozzi, 1992). These mental representations of behavior become guides for purposeful action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Bagozzi, 1992).

We are in agreement with others (i.e., R.D. Brown, 1996; Cooper-Hakim &Visweswaran, 2005) that commitment is best conceptualized as a single fundamental concept. As Brown points out, commitment "refers to a pledge or promise of some sort…. and refers to the condition of someone who has made a firm commitment with another party connected to some future event" (R.D. Brown, 1996, p. 233). It is practically impossible to refer to commitment in any other way other than an individual's inclination to act in a given way toward a given object (R.D. Brown, 1996). Commitment is the inclination or intention to behave in a certain way, and therefore by measuring intentions, we are essentially assessing commitment. (See Zigarmi & Nimon, 2011, and Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2012, for a rationale on the measurement of work passion intention.)

In this article, we are defining and measuring work intention through a set of work-related variables such as intention to use organizational citizenship behaviors, intent to stay, intention to use discretionary effort, intent to endorse the organization and its leadership, and intention to perform at a higher than average level. Depending upon the intention, each of these intentions has been found to correlate with various output measures such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, attrition, absenteeism, and productivity.

For example, intention to use organizational citizenship behaviors correlates with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance (e.g., LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Intention to stay/turnover not only predicts attrition but correlates with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance (Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993). The intention to endorse has been found to correlate with organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and role performance (Cheng, Aryee, & Lee, 2005). Intention to use discretionary effort correlates with perceived psychological contract fulfillment, affective commitment to the job and organization, and to the concept of engagement (Shuck et al., 2011; Zeidan, 2006). Since that appraisal process involves the generation of intentions to cope with that experience stemming from cognitive conclusions and affective inferences, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Positive job-specific affect is positively related to employee work passion intentions.

Hypothesis 3b: Negative job-specific affect is negatively related to employee work passion intentions.

Based upon the discussions above and the hypotheses offered, we proposed a conceptual model with multiple processes. While almost no research has been published on the effects of connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues' managerial, self-concern, or other-orientation on various work passion intentions, we hypothesize that there may be some direct effects. They are the following:

Hypothesis 4a: Positive and negative job affect will mediate the relationship between employees' cognitive perceptions and their work intentions.

3. Methods

Participants

Study participants included managers and non-managers who have been clients of an international management and training consulting company. Participants were clients of a consulting company that provides leadership and training services to a broad range of industries (including nonprofit and for-profit). The company maintains an active email list used to invite individuals to participate in 360-degree surveys to assess leadership competence and organizational productivity.

Procedure

Individuals from the email list were sent an email invitation to participate in this study and offered access to past research white papers for participating. Those who volunteered were provided a link to a survey which included the employee Work Intention Inventory and related scales.

Of the 885 who volunteered, 747 completed the study. Of the 747 participants, 39.9% were male. Approximately 70% were managers, and the prominent age group was Gen Xers (1961-1981 = 61%), followed by Boomers (1943-1960 = 33.6%). Tenure with organization varied across the volunteer sample (1 year or under-3%, 2 to 4 years-23%, 5 to 7 years-19%, 8 to 10 years-10%, and over 10 years-33%) as well as years in current position (1 year or under-26%, 2 to 4 years-41%, 5 to 7 years-17%, 8 to 10 years-6%, and over 10 years-8%), and the size of the company for which employees worked.

Measures

*Work Cognition Inventory (WCI).*Reporting on three studies, Nimon, Zigarmi, Houson, Witt, and Diehl (2011) presented the initial construct validity for the WCI. The two 5-item scales used from this inventory were connectedness with leader (e.g., "I trust my boss to act in my best interest") and connectedness with colleagues (e.g., "My colleagues take an interest in me professionally"). Each of these two scales provided a 6-point Likert response scale, ranging from 1 (no *extent*) to 6 (*the fullest extent*). The alpha coefficients reported in other studies for connectedness with leader ranged from .951–.957, and for connectedness with colleagues, .939–.948 (Nimon et al., 2011).

Leader Self-Concern and Other-Orientation. In order to measure the employees' perceptions of their leader's value systems, we adapted three self-concern and three other-orientation items developed by De Dreu and Nauta (2009) such that item content referred to each respondent's manager. This enabled employees to rate their managers on each construct. The three leader self-concern items were "My manager is concerned about his/her own needs and interests," "My manager's personal goals and aspirations are important to him/her," and "My manager considers their own wishes and desires to be more relevant." The three items used to measure leader other-orientation were "My manager is concerned about the needs and interests of others such as me and my colleagues," "The goals and aspirations of me and my colleagues are important to my manager," and "My manager considers the wishes and desires of others to be more relevant." These six items asked respondents to rate their manager on a 5-point scale (1= *not at all*, 5= *very much*). De Dreu conducted two separate studies using the same subscales and reported alpha reliabilities for self-concern to be .81 (N= 144) and .82 (N= 129) and the alpha reliabilities for the other-orientation to be .79 (N= 144) and .87 (N= 129). Across situations and studies, these two constructs have been shown to be orthogonal and independent constructs (see De Dreu&Nauta, 2009).

*Affect Intensity Measure (AIM-J).*Affect, in a broad sense, is an individual's phenomological state of feeling (Thoresen et al., 2003) and usually describes emotional terms such as pleased, excited, sad, or happy using a semantic differential format. The AIM-J is a yet to be published semantic differential comprised of 12 words describing positive or negative affect (e.g., *absorbed, aware, fearful, eager, anxious, guarded).* The respondents are asked to use these words to describe their feelings about their job at the present time, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(not at all)* to 5 *(extremely).*

The authors of this instrument, like the PANAS (Watson, Clark &Tellegen, 1988), assert that the positive and negative scales are orthogonal. The negative and positive scales of the AIM-J are two highly distinctive scales rather than opposites. The factor correlation between these two scales showed -.374, N=1377. (Personal communication with author Kim Nimon, March 21, 2011).

*Work Intention Inventory (WII).*Reporting on two studies, Zigarmi et al., (2012) presented the construct validity for five scales measuring various types of employee work intentions. The scales were reported to have systematically displayed adequate factorial structure and internal consistency. Each item of the five scales was responded to on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 *(no extent)* to6 *(the fullest extent).* The five intention scales included five items each: intent to endorse the organization and its leadership (e.g., "I intend to speak out to protect the reputation of this organization"), intent to perform at a higher than average level (e.g., "I intend to exert the energy it takes to do my job well"), intention to use discretionary effort (e.g., "I intend to spend my discretionary time finding information that will help this organization"), intent to stay in the organization (e.g., "I intend to continue to work here because I believe it is the best decision for me"), and intention to be an organizational citizen (e.g., "I intend to respect this organization's assets"). Alpha coefficients reported for the above scales were: intent to endorse .96; intent to perform, .95; intent to use discretionary effort, .88; intent to stay, .87; and intent to be an organizational citizen, .93 (Zigarmi et al., 2012).

4. Results

Table 1. Scale Score Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
(1) Connectedness with Leader	3.51	1.15	(.926)										
(2) Connectedness with Colleagues	3.62	.92	.367**	(.917)									
(3) Leader Self-Concern	3.75	.87	-.381**	-.072	(.780)								
(4) Leader Other-Orientation	3.39	.90	.709**	.259**	-.411**	(.829)							
(5) AIM-J Positive	3.66	.70	.399**	.277**	-.200**	.368**	(.830)						
(6) AIM-J Negative	2.07	.81	-.236**	-.140**	.275**	-.332**	-.256**	(.828)					
(7) Intention for Discretionary Effort	4.24	.95	.310**	.358**	-.074*	.232**	.464**	-.104**	(.837)				
(8) Intent to Perform	5.25	.74	.254**	.271**	-.072*	.214**	.434**	-.139**	.559**	(.931)			
(9) Intent to Endorse	4.69	1.09	.436**	.288**	-.207**	.421**	.547**	-.288**	.467**	.558**	(.947)		
(10) Intent to Stay	3.30	1.17	.444**	.201**	-.293*	.430**	.439**	-.289**	.277**	.312**	.620**	(.835)	
(11) Intention for OCB	5.15	.78	.241**	.304**	-.035	.244**	.368**	-.157**	.470**	.696**	.578**	.313**	(.931)

*Note.* Cronbach's Alpha estimates are in parentheses on the diagonal. $N = 747$.
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level

Preliminary Analysis

Correlations, means, standard deviations, and alpha reliabilities for variable scale scores are presented in Table 1. As expected, all environmental variables were positively correlated with AIM-J positive (rs ranged from .277 to .399, ps< .001) and negatively correlated with AIM-J negative (rs ranged from -.140 to -.332, ps< .001), with the exception of leader self-concern, which (as expected) was negatively correlated AIM-J positive ($r = -.200$, $p< .001$) and positively correlated with AIM-J negative ($r = .275$, $p< .001$). AIM-J positive was correlated with each intention variable in the anticipated theoretical direction (rs ranged from .367 to .547, ps< .001), as was AIM-J negative (rs ranged from -.104 to -.289, ps< .001). Note that the magnitude of the correlations indicates a stronger relationship between AIM-J positive and intentions than between AIM-J negative and intentions.

Figure 2.　Hypothesized Model
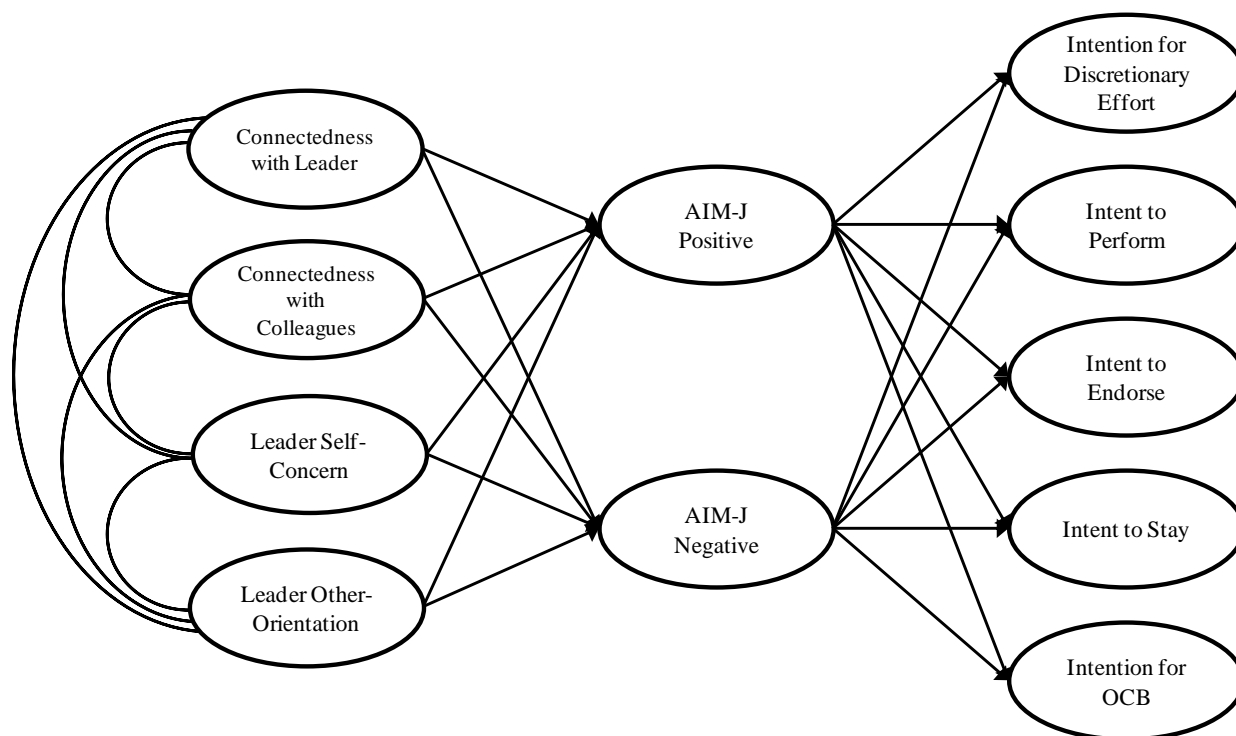
As shown by Figure 2, our hypothesized model suggested that environmental factors (i.e., connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues, leader self-concern, and leader other-orientation) lead to job-specific affect (i.e., AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative), which in turn predict work intentions (i.e., intention for discretionary effort, intent to perform, intent to endorse, intent to stay, and intent for OCB). Although the correlation matrix provided preliminary support for many of our hypothesized relationships, structural equation modeling (SEM) in EQS was utilized as the primary analysis for hypothesis testing and is presented below.

Measurement Model

Prior to evaluating the hypothesized structural model, several measurement models were examined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in EQS. First, we tested the discriminant validity of latent factors within each of our three broad conceptual categories: environmental factors, job-specific affect, and intentions. For each of those three categories, we compared a model with the items for each variable loading on their own individual factors with a model in which all the items across variables loaded on a single factor. For the environmental variables, the four-factor model fit significantly better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2[6] = 3147.82$, $p < .001$); for job-specific affect, the two-factor model was superior to the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2[1] = 1046.99$, $p < .001$); and for the intentions variables, the five-factor model fit the data significantly better ($\Delta\chi^2[10] = 5474.11$, $p < .001$). Thus, in all cases the discriminant validity of the latent factors was supported.

With the above in mind, we then used CFA to test the fit of the overall 11-factor measurement model. A measurement model with all latent variables allowed to covary fit the data moderately well (χ^2 [1270] = 3663.29, CFI = .92, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .05). The LaGrange Multiplier test indicated that measurement model fit could be improved by allowing the error terms of some observed items to covary. Upon closer examination of items with correlated error terms, it became evident that they were highlighting items that were in the same scale and had highly similar content and/or that were in the same scale and were adjacent to each other in the survey. For example, the LaGrange Multiplier test indicated that the following two items had correlated error terms, were related in content, and were neighboring items in the intent to perform scale: "I intend to do my job well" and "I intend to achieve all my work goals." Harrison and McLaughlin (1993) describe how "spurious response consistency" (p. 131) can sometimes occur as a result of respondents' cognitive carryover from processing prior survey items. To account for the common variance shared by these items that was not accounted for by the latent factors, a second measurement model tested the same 11-factor model but with correlations among seven pairs of error terms. The second measurement model fit the data well (χ^2 [1263] = 3027.28, CFI = .94, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .04) and significantly better than the first measurement model ($\Delta\chi^2$ [7] = 636.01, $p < .001$). Standardized factor loadings for the final measurement model were significant and sizable. Loadings for the four environmental factors ranged from .46 to .98 (with all but one item loading above .60); loadings for the two AIMJ factors ranged from .40 to .88 (with all but two items loading above .50); and loadings for the five intention factors ranged from .46 to .92 (with all but two items loading above .60).

Common Method Variance

Self-report data were valuable in the current study because employees are the best sources from which personal perceptions, affect, and work intentions can be reported. Nevertheless, we used Harman's single factor procedure (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, &Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff& Organ, 1986) to test for problematic degrees of

common method variance. Podsakoff et al. (2003) explain that, although there are limitations to this technique, issues with common method variance may be evident if Harman's procedure indicates that just one factor accounts for most of the variance in the data. An EFA was used to conduct Harman's procedure. Several factors emerged, and the first factor accounted for only 26% of the items' variance (compared to all factors which explained 62% of the variance), suggesting that common method variance was not notably problematic for the current study. Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggest that Harman's procedure can also be conducted with CFA, so we used CFA to compare the study's 11-factor model to a 1-factor model. The proposed 11-factor model fit the data significantly better than the 1-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ [55] = 12,656.57, $p < .001$), further supporting our conclusion that common method variance was not a pervasive issue in this study.

Structural Model

Gender, age, and manager/non-manager position were examined as control variables in the analyses. Although there were several significant relationships between the control variables and the variables in the model, including them in the analysis did not alter the interpretation of the final results. In other words, the overall model fit, the significance of the individual paths, and the sign/magnitude of the significant paths were consistent whether the control variables were included or not. Thus, for the sake of parsimony, only the analyses without the control variables are presented here.

Our hypothesized structural model (Model 1) specified paths from each environmental variable to each AIMJ variable and paths from each AIMJ variable to each intention variable. The model tested AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative as mediators of the relationship between the environmental factors and the intention factors. The disturbance terms of all intentions variables were allowed to covary for two reasons: (a) we suspect that our intention variables could be correlated, and (b) our empirical results indicated that 7 of 10 possible pairs of intention variables were significantly correlated at $r = .527$ or higher ($p < .05$).

Structural equation modeling was used to test our hypothesized model, which fit the data well (χ^2 [1284] = 3208.07, CFI = .93, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .05). To thoroughly evaluate our hypothesis suggesting full mediation, additional competing structural models tested AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative as partial mediators of the relationship between environmental factors and work intentions (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006). Comparative models examining the possibility of partial mediation are presented below.

Mediation Testing

Five competing partially mediated models (Models 2a-2e) were tested. Each model included all paths estimated in our hypothesized model, but with the addition of four direct paths from the exogenous environmental variables to a single intention variable. For instance, Model 2a added a path from each environmental variable directly to intention for discretionary effort, for a total of four additional paths. Model 2b added four direct paths from each environmental variable to intention to perform. Models 2c, 2d, and 2e did the same but for intention to endorse, intention to stay, and intention for OCB, respectively. As shown by the chi-squared difference tests in Table 2, three of the five partially mediated models (i.e., Models 2a, 2d, and 2e) demonstrated significantly improved fit compared to the hypothesized, fully mediated model (Model 1). In Model 2a, only the direct path from connectedness with colleagues to discretionary effort was significant. Model 2d had significant direct paths from connectedness with leader and leader self-concern with intent to stay. Three of the four direct paths tested in Model 2e were significant: connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues, and leader other-orientation, each leading to intent for OCB. Noting the results from Models 2a-2e, a final model (Model 3) added only the significant direct paths from the three partially mediated models that demonstrated significantly improved fit compared to the originally hypothesized model (Model 1). Thus, in Model 3 we added the six significant direct paths from 2a, 2d, and 2e to our original conceptual framework. Model 3 fit the data significantly better than Model 1 ($\Delta\chi^2$ [6] = 84.84, $p < .001$), and thus Model 3 was accepted as final. Figure 3 illustrates our final, best fitting model (Model 3) and provides standardized path coefficients, which is interpreted next.

Table 2. Comparison of Structural Equation Models

Model Number	χ^2	df	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Compared to Model 1)
1	3208.07	1284	0.93	0.07	0.05	
2a	3175.93	1280	0.934	0.066	0.045	32.15, $df = 4, p < .001$
2b	3206.26	1280	0.933	0.07	0.045	1.813, $df = 4, p > .05$
2c	3200.51	1280	0.933	0.069	0.045	7.56, $df = 4, p > .05$
2d	3163.89	1280	0.935	0.067	0.044	44.19, $df = 4, p < .001$
2e	3193.60	1280	0.934	0.067	0.045	14.47, $df = 4, p < .01$
3	3123.24	1278	0.936	0.062	0.044	84.84, $df = 6, p < .001$

Note. df = degrees of freedom, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

DREA ZIGARMI[1,*] AND TAYLOR PEYTON ROBERTS[2]

Figure 3. Final Model
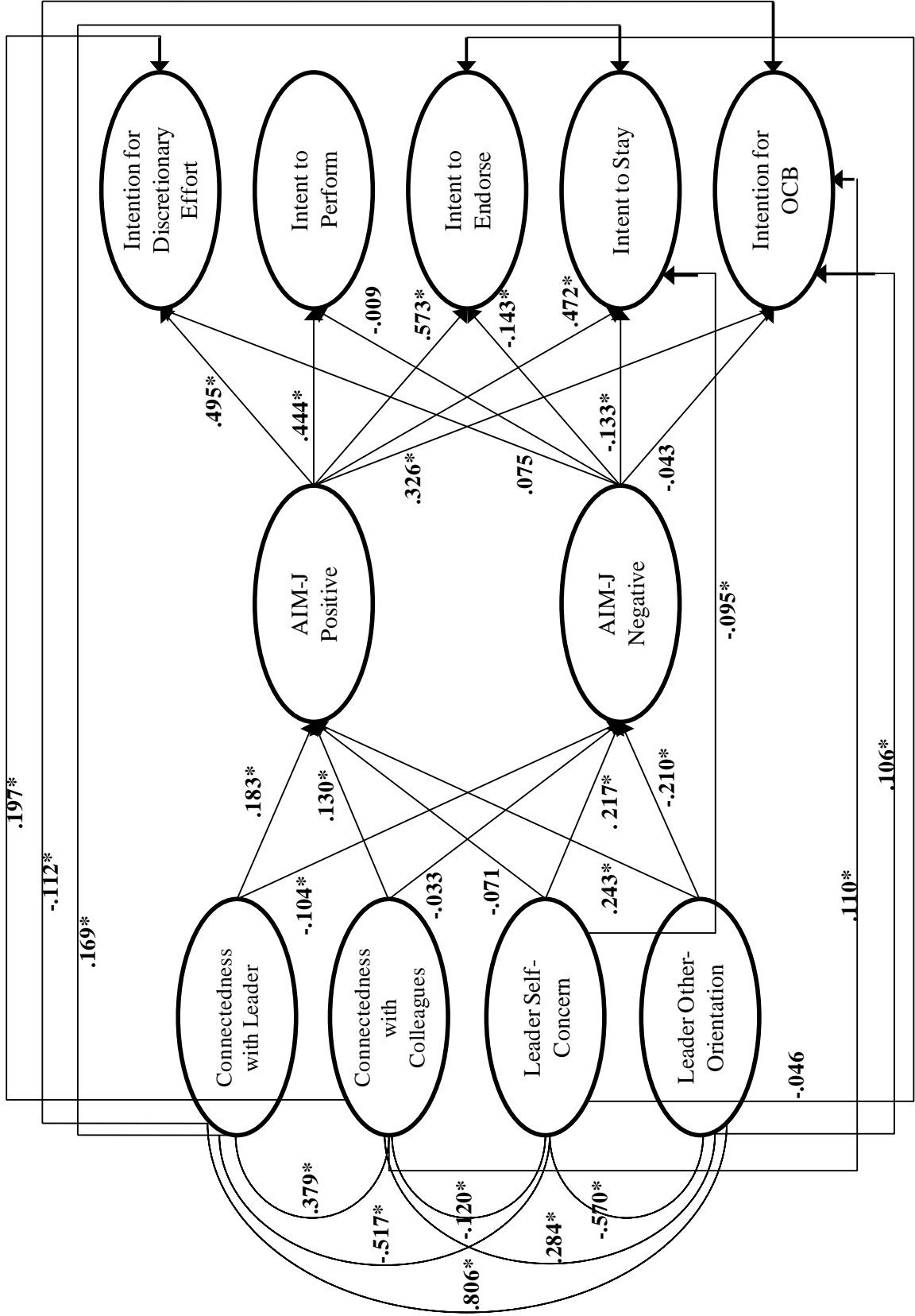
Final Model Interpretation

All environmental factors indicating healthy connectedness to others at work (i.e., connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues, and leader other-orientation) were significantly related to AIM-J positive (β = .183, β = .130, and β = .243, respectively, all ps<.05). In turn, AIM-J positive was strongly linked to every intention variable (βs ranged from .326 to .573, ps< .05). Leader self-concern was not significantly associated with AIM-J positive (β = -.017, p> .05), but it was significantly associated with AIM-J negative in the anticipated direction (β = .217, p < .05). Alternatively, only one of the three healthy connection environmental factors was significantly linked to AIM-J negative; individuals with managers demonstrating increased levels of other-orientation reported decreased levels of negative job-specific affect (β = -.210, p < .05). While the path coefficients were negative in direction for the relationship between connectedness with leader/colleagues and AIM-J negative, these two paths were not significant (β = -.104, β = -.033, respectively, ps> .05). AIM-J negative was significantly associated with only two of the five intention variables: intent to endorse and intent to stay (β = -.143, β = -.133, respectively, ps< .05). Negative job-specific affect did not significantly predict individuals' intention for discretionary effort, intent to perform, or intention for OCB (β = .075, β = -.009, and β = -.043, respectively, all ps>.05). Thus, our final model strongly supports positive job-specific affect as a key predictor of employee work intentions.

The final model also suggests AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative are best not always treated as full mediators, but rather should be considered partial mediators of the relationship between environmental factors and work intentions in some cases. Direct paths between the following five pairs of variables were significant and interpretable: connectedness with colleagues and intention for discretionary effort (β = .197, p< .05); connectedness with colleagues and intent for OCB (β = .108, p< .05); leader self-concern and intent to stay (β = -.095, p< .05); leader other-orientation and intention for OCB (β = .106, p< .05); and connectedness with leader and intent to stay (β = .169, p< .05). In these cases, although job-specific affect did explain a portion of the relationship, the significant direct effects indicate that other mechanisms may be operating.

There was one additional significant direct effect between connectedness with leader and intention for OCB (β = -.112, p< .05). This negative relationship was not consistent with the hypothesized model, nor was it consistent with the correlation results which showed a positive relationship between these two variables (r = .263, p< .05). The change in sign from the correlation to the SEM path coefficient is likely a statistical artifact due to the multicollinearity among exogenous variables, particularly between leader other-orientation and connectedness with leader (r = .806, p< .05). Follow-up regression analyses indicated that the direction of the standardized coefficient between connectedness with leader and intention for OCB would reverse when connectedness with leader and leader other-orientation were in the presence of AIM-J positive and connectedness with colleagues. Some research has shown that multicollinearity can lead to unstable estimates (Grapentine, 2000; Jagpal, 1982), and thus we argue that the path coefficient between connectedness with leader and intention for OCB should not be interpreted unless it is validated in future research.

Effect decomposition analyses were conducted to provide additional information about the total indirect effects of each environmental factor on each intentions factor through job-specific affect (both AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative). According to Table 3, the indirect effects for three of the four cognition variables (connectedness with leader, connectedness with colleagues, and leader other-orientation) were significant for all intention variable outcomes. However, significant indirect effects of leader self-concern on intentions were found only for intent to endorse and intent to stay. Thus, the mediating role of positive and negative job-specific affect was more pronounced for the relationship between favorable environmental factors and work intentions.

Table 3. Total Indirect Effects of Cognition on Intentions through AIM-J Positive and AIM-J Negative.

	Cognition Variables			
Intention Variables	Connectedness with Leader	Connectedness with Colleagues	Leader Self-Concern	Leader Other-Orientation
Intention for Discretionary Effort	0.08	0.06	ns	0.11
Intent to Perform	0.08	0.06	ns	0.11
Intent to Endorse	0.12	0.08	-0.07	0.17
Intent to Stay	0.10	0.07	-0.06	0.14
Intention for OCB	0.06	0.04	ns	0.09

Notes. Only standardized coefficients for the significant indirect effects are shown. *ns* = not significant at the .05 level. Values shown represent the total indirect effect for the intention variable on the cognition variable through both AIM-J positive and AIM-J negative.

5. Discussion

This study builds upon a model that stresses employee work passion as a process. It is a process that involves cognitive and affective appraisals of work experience which result in workplace intentions. There are several contributions evident in the results of this study.

First, while there are some direct paths from cognitive perceptions to employee work intentions, affect as construct seems to play a somewhat central role in work passion intention. The analysis confirms that job-specific emotions partially mediate the effects of perceived managerial values on the work intention of employees, and this is particularly true for work environments offering positive interpersonal relationships.

Second, the model's direct paths between some of the cognition and intention variables indicate that employees with greater connection to their colleagues were more likely to intend to voluntarily give more effort to their jobs and help others at work. Similarly, employees with greater connection to their leaders had increased intentions to continue working for their organization. For employees with managers demonstrating high other-orientation, intentions to help at work were greater. Alternatively, employees with highly self-concerned managers were less likely to intend to remain with their organization in the future.

Third and perhaps most importantly, individuals who perceived they were more connected with their leaders/colleagues and who had leaders demonstrating greater other-oriented behavior were more likely to have higher levels of positive job-specific affect, which in turn was related to increased work intentions. Individuals who had leaders showing greater amounts of self-concern were more likely to report higher levels of negative job-specific affect. Furthermore, employees who felt higher levels of negative emotions during their workday reported lower intentions to actively endorse and remain with their current organization.

Leaders must begin to acknowledge that how people feel about the way they are being managed is a key component in work passion. Employee job-specific affect is not only closely connected to the quality of interpersonal working relationships but affect also has broader implications for employee intentions and perhaps subsequent performance.

This article effectively highlights some of the unintended consequences of hiring, developing, and allowing highly self-serving individuals to manage others. When employees perceive a manager as more concerned with his/her own agenda than the welfare of others, negative affect often results and can be followed by the employees' reluctance to endorse the organization and its leadership, stay with the organization, and feel connected to their leader or their colleagues.

Implications for Practice

Given the impact that emotions have on intentions, leaders must allow for management practices that take into account how external, environmental events impact the internal mood states of those employees they wish to keep passionately involved in their work. Intentions to perform at a higher than average level, stay with the organization overtime, endorse the organization and its leaders, use discretionary effort, and be an altruistic organizational citizen are predicated, in part, on the positive affect generated by their interactions with their leaders and colleagues. Positive affect serves as an impetus to continue with a set course of action (Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, &Kuhnel, 2011). Negative affect only serves as a yellow light of caution or a red light to discontinue on a specific course for fear of further loss of well-being (Fugate et al., 2011). While not every work experience can or will be positive, managers must continually be watchful as negative shifts in affect occur, and they should work to provide perspective for themselves and others. There are data to suggest that the dynamic interplay between positive and negative affect is natural and occurs frequently in an employee's workday (Bledow et al., 2011). If negative emotions are acknowledged and shifted, this self-regulation can result in higher proportions of positive affect overtime (Bledow et al., 2011) and is indicative of adaptive human functioning (Seligman &Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Another implication for practice is for HR personnel and strategic leaders to create and sponsor leadership training programs and company values that stress and support servant leaders. Consistent, overt, self-concerned managers should be counseled and invited to become more aware of their behavior. If the self-concerned behavior persists, the leader and his/her sponsors should reconsider whether a leadership position is a good fit for all people concerned.

6. Limitations and Future Research Directions

While we believe there are several strengths presented in the study, two limitations are worthy of note. First, this study used a cross-sectional sample at one point in time and therefore does not allow for conclusions regarding the order of causality, which would be possible with a longitudinal design. The study employed a convenience sample involving various clients of a consulting company. Thus, findings are not generalizable to a broader population of organizations and may vary across organizational settings. For instance, it is possible that different organizational cultures might reveal disparate results for the latent constructs measured. Future research could investigate whether or not the model holds across various global contexts (e.g., compare differences in the psychological mechanisms underlying work passion for organizations nested within individualist versus collectivist cultures). Future studies could examine single organizations of different sizes, industries, and countries. This type of work could provide rich information about the nature of work passion across contexts.

Second, the study's theoretical model was tested solely through employee perceptions. Although we believe employee self-report data to be the most reliable source from which to measure the experience of work passion and the psychological mechanisms accompanying it, coupling managerial self-report data with perceptions of employee cognition, affect, and/or intentions could cross-validate the constructs measured and may be theoretically fruitful in the future.

Finally, as this study focused on perceptions regarding interpersonal relationships, future research could explore other environmental variables suggested by Ostroff (1993). It is possible that employees' cognitive assessment of their jobs and/or organizational work experiences may be differentially related to job-specific affect and/or intentions. Research of this nature has the potential to notably expand what we currently know about the origins and function of work passion in organizational life.

NOTES

[1] At the present time, the difference between the terms engagement and employee work passion has not been definitively clarified yet there is seemingconceptual overlap. Because of the theoretical origins and models from which the definitions of these terms originated, this clarification has not occurred as of yet. The emphasis of this article is intentions, which could be manifested by either an engaged individual or an impassioned individual. Therefore, for the purposes of this article the term work passion will used but both the literature on work passion and engagement will be referenced. (For further understanding we refer the reader to Zigarmi, et al, 2009, 2011, p.196, or Ho, Wong & Lee, 2011.)

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