

Research Unit for Occupational & Organisational  
Psychology and Professional Learning



**Its relationship with follower's work engagement and job outcomes  
at the individual and team level**

**Vivi Gusrini Rahmadani**

Doctoral thesis offered to obtain the degree of  
Doctor of Psychology (PhD)

Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Wilmar Schaufeli  
Co-supervisor : Prof. Dr. Jeroen Stouten

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# ENGAGING LEADERSHIP

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# Funding

This dissertation was funded by LPDP Scholarship (Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education).



# Summary

Leaders can positively influence their followers' work engagement, both directly by the effect of the quality of their relationship as well as indirectly through their influence on the availability of job resources for their followers. Leaders provide a resourceful work environment that fulfills followers' basic psychological needs, which in turn, enhances follower's work engagement. It is argued that by satisfying basic psychological needs, leaders enhance the levels of engagement of their followers. Engaging leaders who inspire, strengthen, connect and empower their followers promote the fulfillment of follower's basic psychological needs for meaningfulness, competence, relatedness, and autonomy, respectively, thereby increasing their levels of work engagement.

The aim of this PhD project is to probe the relationship between engaging leadership, work engagement and performance measured with multiple indicators (i.e. learning, innovation, intra-role and extra-role behavior) at the individual and team level of analysis. The first objective is to build a conceptual framework of engaging leadership and probe the engaging leadership-work engagement relationship. The second objective is to probe the engaging leadership, work engagement and performance relationships at the individual and team level of analysis. The motivational process that is described by the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R), as well as the Self-Determination Theory were used to theoretically frame the studies in this dissertation. The objectives of this PhD project are addressed in six chapters starting with an introductory chapter that explains the concept of engaging leadership and outlines the overall research model of this PhD project.

Chapter 2 presents Study 1 addressing the questions: "Does basic need satisfaction mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement?" and "Is the proposed mediation model invariant across national samples (from Indonesia and Russia)?" A series of multigroup analyses with a cross-sectional design provided strong evidence for the validity of the research model that assumes a mediating role of basic need satisfaction in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement in both countries.

Chapter 3 contains Study 2 addressing the question: "Do job resources in addition to basic need satisfaction mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement?" Study 2 expands the first study by using a longitudinal design and a broader conceptual framework, which also includes job resources (i.e., the JD-R model) – in addition to the satisfaction of basic psychological needs – as an explanatory mechanism linking engaging leadership with work engagement. Structural equation modeling was used to test the mediation hypotheses, using a two-wave longitudinal design in an Indonesian sample of 412 employees. The results suggested that engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement across a one-year period, both directly as well as indirectly through job resources and subsequent basic needs satisfaction.

Chapter 4 contains Study 3 introducing *diuwongke* (Javanese-Indonesian term that refers to the feeling of being treated with respect) and seeking to answer the question: "Is the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement moderated by *diuwongke*?" This cross-sectional study included 607 employees and partly confirmed the moderation hypothesis; only employees with average and low levels of *diuwongke* seem to benefit from engaging leadership in the sense that for them this is associated with higher levels of work engagement.

Chapter 5 contains Study 4 addressing the question: "Does engaging leadership increase the level of collective team engagement, which, in its turn, is followed by an increased level of team outcomes (i.e., team learning, team innovation, and team performance)? In addition, the cross-level effect of engaging leadership and collective, team work engagement on individual work engagement and individual work performance, was investigated. A multilevel longitudinal study was conducted among 224 blue collar employees nested in 54 teams, working in an Indonesian state-owned agro-industrial company. The findings of this study showed that at the team level – as predicted – engaging leadership was positively related to team learning and team innovation, through team work engagement. Across levels – and again as predicted – engaging leadership at team level was positively related to individual job performance, employee learning, and innovative work behavior, also via work engagement. Finally, in Chapter 6 the main results of the four empirical studies are summarized and integrated, and the theoretical and practical implications as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the PhD project are discussed.



# Samenvatting

Leiders kunnen de bevoegenheid van hun volgers positief beïnvloeden, zowel rechtstreeks door het effect van de kwaliteit van hun relatie als indirect door hun invloed op de beschikbaarheid van hulpbronnen voor hun volgers. Leiders die hun volgers inspireren, versterken, verbinden en empoweren, worden bevoegen leiders genoemd en zij bevorderen de vervulling van de psychologische basisnoden van medewerkers voor respectievelijk zingeving, competentie, verbondenheid en autonomie, en verhogen daardoor hun bevoegenheid. Daarnaast zorgen bevoegen leiders voor een werkomgeving die rijk is aan hulpbronnen.

Het doel van dit doctoraatsproject is om de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap, bevoegenheid en prestaties te onderzoeken aan de hand van meerdere indicatoren (namelijk leren, innovatie, intra-rol en extra rol-gedrag), zowel op individueel niveau als op teamniveau. De eerste doelstelling is om een conceptueel raamwerk van bevoegen leiderschap te ontwikkelen, en om de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid van hun volgers te onderzoeken. De tweede doelstelling is om de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap, bevoegenheid en prestaties van volgers te analyseren op individueel niveau en op teamniveau. Het Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, met name het motivatieproces dat door dit model wordt beschreven, evenals de zelfdeterminatietheorie werden gebruikt om de studies theoretisch te kaderen in dit proefschrift. In zes hoofdstukken wordt beschreven hoe de doelstellingen van dit doctoraatsproject zijn behaald, beginnend met hoofdstuk 1 waarin de algemene introductie van het doctoraatsproject wordt voorgesteld.

Hoofdstuk 2 omvat Studie 1, waarin volgende vragen worden behandeld: "In hoeverre verklaart de vervulling van de basisnoden de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid van hun volgers?" en "Is het voorgestelde mediatie model invariant over nationale steekproeven (uit Indonesië en Rusland)?" Een reeks multigroep-analyses met een cross-sectioneel design verleende steun aan de validiteit van het onderzoeksmodel, waarin de vervulling van basisnoden een mediërende rol speelde in de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid in beide landen.

Hoofdstuk 3 omvat Studie 2 waarin de vraag werd behandeld: "In hoeverre verklaren de vervulling van psychologische basisbehoeften, alsmede de hulpbronnen op het werk, de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid?". In Studie 2 wordt gebruikt gemaakt van een longitudinaal onderzoeksdesign en wordt er een breder conceptueel raamwerk gebruikt dan in Studie 1, waarbij naast psychologische basisbehoeften ook hulpbronnen op het werk in ogenschouw worden genomen als verklaring voor de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid van volgers. Lineaire structuurmodellen werden gebruikt om de mediatiehypothesen te toetsen, in een steekproef van 412 Indonesische werknemers die tweemaal een vragenlijst invulden met een tijdsinterval van één jaar. De resultaten suggereren dat bevoegen leiderschap een toename van bevoegenheid voorspelt over een periode van één jaar, zowel direct als indirect, via hulpbronnen en de daaropvolgende vervulling van psychologische basisbehoeften.

Hoofdstuk 4 bevat Studie 3 die *diuwongke* introduceert (Javaans-Indonesische term die verwijst naar het gevoel met respect te worden behandeld) en tracht volgende vraag te beantwoorden: "Wordt de relatie tussen bevoegen leiderschap en bevoegenheid gemodereerd door *diuwongke*? Deze cross-sectionele studie met 607 werknemers verleende gedeeltelijke steun aan de hypothese; alleen werknemers met gemiddelde en lage niveaus van *diuwongke* lijken baat te hebben bij bevoegen leiderschap, in de zin dat dit voor hen wordt geassocieerd met hogere niveaus van bevoegenheid.

Hoofdstuk 5 bevat Studie 4 waarin de vraag wordt behandeld: "Verhoogt bevoegen leiderschap het niveau van collectieve teambevoegenheid, wat op zijn beurt zorgt voor betere teamprestaties, teamleren en teaminnovatie? Daarnaast wordt het cross-level effect van bevoegen leiderschap en collectieve teambevoegenheid op individuele bevoegenheid en individuele werkprestaties onderzocht. Daartoe werd een multilevel longitudinaal onderzoek uitgevoerd bij 224 arbeiders uit 54 teams van een Indonesische staatsbedrijf uit de agrarische industrie gedurende een periode van één jaar. De bevindingen van deze studie toonden aan dat bevoegen leiderschap op teamniveau positief gerelateerd was aan teamleren en teaminnovatie, via teambevoegenheid. Op cross-level niveau was bevoegen leiderschap positief gerelateerd aan individuele prestaties, leren op individueel niveau en innovatief werkgedrag, eveneens via bevoegenheid. Ten slotte vat hoofdstuk 6 de belangrijkste resultaten samen en bespreekt hun theoretische en praktische implicaties, alsook de sterke en zwakke kanten van het dissertatieonderzoek.



# Acknowledgement

“If it’s both terrifying and amazing then you should definitely pursue it” - Erada. Indeed, I felt intimidated when I came to this exceptional group to pursue this PhD. It seems like everybody is so sharp, fast and productive yet witty and playful. However, I knew I was in the good hand when the ‘Godfather’ of burnout and work engagement was willing to accept me as his student. This long road full of challenges, criticism and constant self-doubt was never be easy, however, as my supervisor said, “Eventually you will get there”, I kept going. That is my every day mojo during this last four years. And here comes the day, Alhamdulillah, “All the praises and thanks be to God who is the Lord of the universe”, I am here. On the long road to completing this PhD, I am grateful for the excellent supports I received from various institutions and individuals.

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Wilmar Schaufeli, the role model of engaging leaders and engaged workers himself, thank you for trusting me and giving me the opportunity to develop my skills to be a more cautious and engaged scientist under your guidance. It is an honor for me to have you as my mentor, and to be one of your students among those top scholars around the world. Thank you for being such a great supervisor with the therapeutic effect, indeed, you know how to play with the demands and resources to your student. I am also greatly thankful for your visit to our university and the research site in Indonesia, you are always welcome in Medan. Moreover, I would also thank my co-supervisor, Professor Jeroen Stouten, thank you for giving me the constructive feedback and assisting me in the last four years. I would also thank my mid-term jury members, Professor Dirk Van Dierendonck, Eva Kyndt and Lieven Brebels for providing me with useful feedback to improve my dissertation during the mid-term meeting. I would thank my examiners in the public defense, Professor Dirk Van Dierendonck, Professor Martin Euwema and Dr. Marc Verschuere for taking your time to read my dissertation and give me the insightful questions and feedback.

Thank you for Professor Hans for the friendly and positive welcome since my day 1 at O2L. Thank you for Professor Martin for continuous support and attention, how lucky I am to be part of your team. My O2L colleagues, Dorien, Kristien, Natalie, Els, Saidur, Uche, Gary, Ellen, Eva, Renee, Bernarda, Carlos, Anahi, Steffie, Katharina, Anne, Wouter, Jana, Gosia, Michelle, Sophie, Katrien, Ilke, Innocentina, Emma, Kelly, Katrin, Kathleen, Katrien Billiet, Jeroen, Tijs, Nele, Hein, Jacqueline, Yan and everyone who I could not mentioned one by one, each of you has touched my life. Thank you for your help regarding life in Leuven, Dutch translation, Statistics, books’ suggestions, progress report’s sample, the good laugh and, especially, the beautiful friendship. I am going to bring all the insightful experiences and the beautiful memories I had in this group to my home country. Please do remember, you have one Indonesian sister, keep in touch.

I would also like to express my gratitude to my research site, especially to Kak Amalia, Yefri, and the participants for allowing me to collect the data and helping me out with the survey. I hope the organization and the participants themselves could have advantages from the knowledge of this dissertation. Thank you for LDPD Scholarship and all the staff members. With the funding and supportive management, I could finish this task and will give back to Indonesia as well. Hopefully, more and more Indonesian have chances to



access higher education abroad. I would also thank to my university, Universitas Sumatera Utara, especially my colleagues in Faculty of Psychology, Industrial and Organizational Psychology Departement: Bang Zul, Bang Eka, Bang Ferry, Mbak Irma, Mbak Mila, Mbak Rika, Pak Is, Pepi, and all the staff members, especially PCB, Ivo, Sisi, Lola, Debby, Ade, Ama, Rahmi, Dina, Dian, Liza, Indri, Silvi, thank you for all the support and friendship.

Thank you for PPI Leuven and Indonesian community in Belgium, for making our stay became home away from home. For LPDP awardees year 2016 in Leuven: Kezia, Indah, Gati, Bobby, Bayu, Astrid and Irene, let's finish strong and see you in Indonesia. I would like to say thank you to my best friends on- and off-line around the world. Thank you for being my support system and always accessible one whatsapp away. Dian, Putri, Muti, Sukma, Imong, Ifada, Sura, Windy, Sissi, Gula, Kiky, Yasmin, Diana, and Juli, I will keep you forever.

My greatest thank you for my Mom, Mariana Hasibuan, thank you for your continuous support and prayers for me. Kak Tanti, Bang Ucok, Joan, thank you for your support. My prayers go to my late sister and dad, Kak Dewi and Papa. Thank you all for loving me unconditionally and being the best family, I could ever ask for. Finally, I would also like to express my gratitude to the most favorite persons in my life: my husband, Bang Surya and my daughter, Alvira, thank you for making my dream became our dream. Thank you for being so loving, understanding and recharging during the last four years when my things were always the priorities. I apologize for the times when I was not fully available at home physically and psychologically. I could never imagine to do all of this without you guys, my super team. Juggling between being a mother, a wife and a PhD student abroad is a real-deal, but if I have to do it one more time, let it be in the same place with the same people. I feel both happy and tired now looking back the last best four years in my life, however, I will recover soon and ready for the next adventures.

Leuven, February 2020  
Vivi Gusrini Rahmadani

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# CHAPTER 1

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## General Introduction

To cope with today's global competition and environmental uncertainty, organizations need employees who not only fulfill their formal job requirements but also have a high level of work engagement so that those organizations will have a competitive advantage (Schaufeli, 2012). Work engagement is a positive affective-motivational and work-related psychological state characterized by vigor (high levels of energy and perseverance), dedication (a sense of significance and involvement) and absorption (being focused and engrossed in one's work) (see below, and Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). This concept has gained popularity both in academia and the business world because it has a positive impact on individual employees, as well as the organization as a whole.

Employees who feel engaged fully dedicate themselves to the organization and do their jobs with great enthusiasm (Markos & Sridevi, 2010); they are intrinsically motivated (Schaufeli, 2012) and proactive (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008), as well as healthier and more committed to the organization than their less engaged colleagues (Halbesleben, 2010). Work engagement is therefore critically important for organizations' competitive advantage in terms of productivity, low turnover rates, customer satisfaction and loyalty, and profitability (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). In addition, research has found that engaged employees display innovative behaviors at work (Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and are more creative (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015). Furthermore, work engagement is positively related to high financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), good service quality (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), superior business-unit performance (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002), workplace safety (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011), and business growth (Gorgievski, Moriano, & Bakker, 2012). Moreover, based on a meta-analysis that included almost one hundred studies, work engagement was shown to be related to performance outcomes over and above job attitudes such as job involvement and job satisfaction (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011). Thus, taken together, work engagement is beneficial to employees as well as to the organizations for which they work.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) integrated work engagement in the so-called Job Demands-Resources model stating that work engagement mediates the impact of job resources and personal resources on personal and organizational outcomes. A resource that is studied in its own right as an antecedent of work engagement is leadership (Schaufeli, 2015). The reason for doing so is that

leadership has an impact on other job resources, which, in their turn, drive work engagement. Hence, leaders may positively influence their employees' work engagement, both directly through the relationship with their followers and indirectly through managing and allocating job resources (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015). In sum, leaders play a key role in boosting employees' work engagement.

Previous research focused mostly on individual work engagement, and less is known about work engagement at the team level, which also exists as a collective psychosocial phenomenon (Richardson & West, 2010). Team work engagement is described as a positive, fulfilling, and shared motivational emergent state characterized by team vigor, team dedication, and team absorption, which emerges from the interaction and shared experiences of members of a workgroup (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martínez, & Schaufeli, 2003). Team work engagement is experienced only when team members' positive-motivational states converge, which is not necessarily always the case. Thus, this current project also tries to integrate team work engagement into the JD-R model and to test that model at the team level.

Mainstream leadership studies have focused on increasing employees' performance or ensuring that employees exert their maximum effort on works, whereby overperformance may cause poor well-being, according to Nielsen and Taris (2019). These authors suggested that though efforts have been taken to develop leadership concepts that also focus on employees' health and well-being, some questions remain unanswered about which specific leadership characteristics promote employee health and well-being. Therefore, the current dissertation proposes a particular type of leadership that focuses primarily on employee well-being—that is, work engagement.

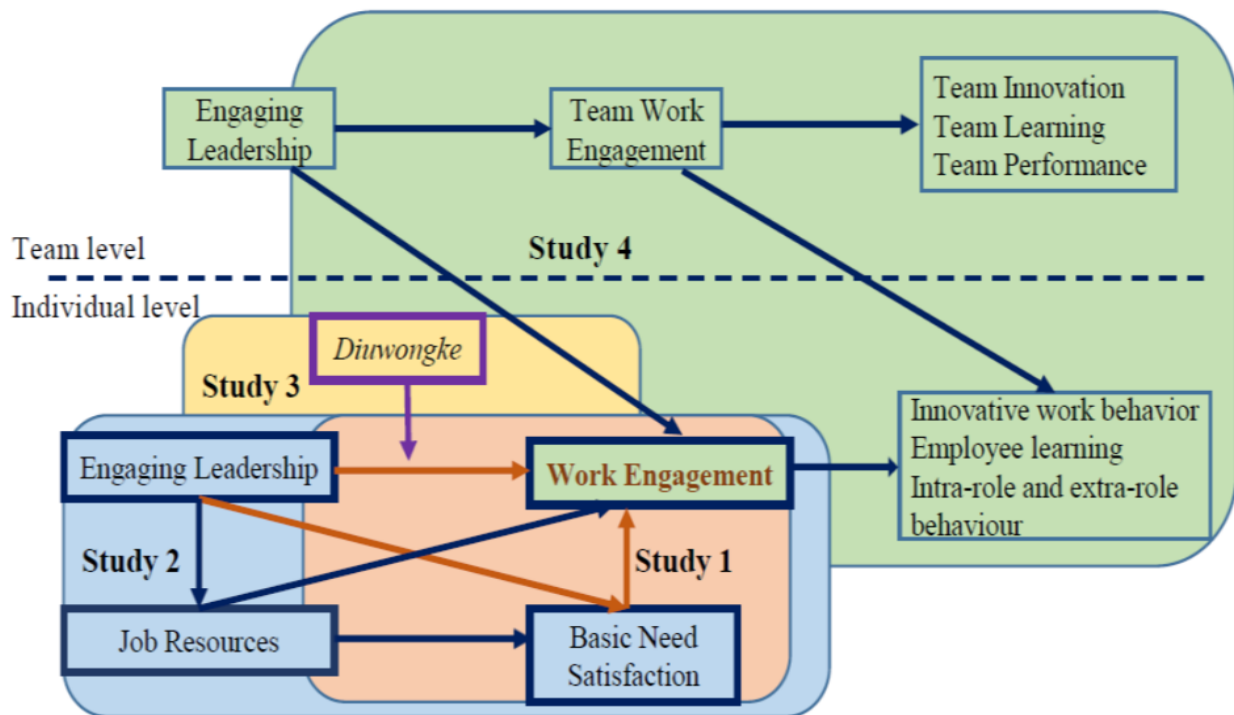
Various leadership styles were found to have a positive relationship with work engagement (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018) such as transformational leadership, servant leadership, authentic leadership, and ethical leadership. However, none of those leadership styles was specifically conceived to increase employees' work engagement. Triggered by the view —particularly in business— that 'leadership' is crucial for (team) work engagement, Schaufeli (2015) developed the concept of engaging leadership that is rooted in Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to Schaufeli (2015), engaging leadership refers to a positive leadership style that fosters employees' work engagement through a specific psychological mechanism that can be described by using the Self-Determination Theory (SDT). The concept of engaging leadership assumes that engaging leaders fulfill employees' basic psychological needs, which, in their turn, foster work engagement. The engaging leadership concept tries to explain the unique psychological mechanism of leaders' behavior on employees' work engagement and, hence, job performance.

The overall objective of this PhD project is to probe the relationship between engaging leadership, (team) work engagement, and job outcomes using the Job Demand Resources (JD-R)

model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Employees' job outcomes at the individual level are assessed using multiple indicators—namely, employee learning, innovative work behavior, and job performance (intra-role and extra-role behavior). Job outcomes used at the team level are team learning, team innovation, and team performance (intra-role and extra-role performance). Organizational studies show that these three outcomes are positively interrelated (Montes, Moreno, & Morales, 2005; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). In addition, to answer calls for the use of more indigenous concepts in psychological research (Kim, Park, & Park, 2000), the current project also introduces a specific local, Indonesian phenomenon, probing the impact of engaging leadership on work engagement as moderated by *diuwongke* (feeling as though one is treated with respect, as 'a human being'). Through four studies, the relationship between engaging leadership on the one hand and (team) work engagement and job outcomes on the other hand is tested, using an Indonesian sample. In addition, a Russian sample is used to test the robustness of the mediation of basic need satisfaction in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement across countries. Moreover, a longitudinal study is performed to test the impact of engaging leadership on work engagement over time.

The study of leadership is inherently multilevel in nature (Bliese, Halverson, & Schiesheim, 2002; p. 4) and team member's perceptions of engaged leadership converge, meaning that team members generally agree about the level of engaging leadership of their supervisor (Essoussi, 2016). Thus, in the current PhD project, the impact of engaging leadership on work engagement is also measured at the team level; more specifically, it is assumed that team-level engaging leadership may effectively foster team work engagement and individual work engagement. This, in turn, may foster positive outcomes at the team and individual level. To test these assumptions, a two-wave multilevel study is conducted. Figure 1 provides an overview of the overall research model and the four studies, which are discussed in more detail below.



**Figure 1. Overall Research Model.**

### Conceptual Framework

#### Work Engagement

Work engagement was first introduced in the 1980s by the management consulting firm Gallup (Wah, 1999). Later, (Kahn, 1990) introduced the concept to academia and described engaged employees as those who express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally, and mentally during role performance. In their seminal paper, Macey and Schneider (2008) defined engagement as “... a desirable condition [that] has an organizational purpose and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy” (p. 4). However, this definition was criticized for being too broad and acting as an umbrella term for other, similar concepts (Saks, 2008). In contrast, Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) described engagement more specifically as “...a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74). Vigor refers to high levels of energy and perseverance, dedication to a sense of significance, inspiration, and involvement, and absorption to being focused, fully concentrated and engrossed in one’s work.

In a somewhat similar vein, Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) described engagement as a broad construct that “involves a holistic investment of the entire self in terms of cognitive, emotional, and physical energies” (p. 97), whereby these three aspects of engagement overlap

with absorption, dedication, and vigor, respectively. Schaufeli (2013) argued that work engagement refers to employees' relationship to their work, whereas employee engagement may also include employees' relationship to their organization. As a consequence, by including the relationship to the organization, the distinction between engagement and traditional concepts such as organizational commitment and extra-role behavior becomes blurred. Thus, although *employee* engagement and *work* engagement are often used interchangeably, the term "work engagement" is more specific and will therefore be used, throughout the current dissertation.

The concept of engagement has been criticized for its overlap with other concepts, such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Particularly business is accused of putting old wine into new bottles as these concepts have been used as proxies for "employee engagement" (Jeung, 2011). However, work engagement shows different patterns of correlations with other variables as compared to satisfaction, involvement and commitment (Schaufeli, 2013). For instance, using a meta-analysis, Christian et al. (2011), showed that engagement predicted in-role as well as extra-role performance, after controlling for job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Thus, although positively related, engagement can be distinguished from job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment (Schaufeli, 2013).

### **Work Engagement, Job Demands and Job Resources**

Various theoretical approaches have been proposed to explain the underlying psychological mechanisms involved in work engagement, such as Social Exchange Theory (Saks, 2006), Emotional Contagion Theory (Bakker, Westman, & Schaufeli, 2007), Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Van den Broeck et al., 2008), Conservation of Resources Theory (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), Social Cognitive Theory (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011), Broaden and Build Theory (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, & Schaufeli, 2011), and the Affective Shift Model (Bledlow, Schmitt, Frese & Kühnel, 2011). However, the JD-R model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) is most often used to investigate work engagement (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

According to the JD-R model, job resources are defined as "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development" (Demerouti et al., 2001; p. 501). Job resources are assumed to have inherent motivational qualities (cf. Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and, as such, act as antecedents of work engagement. In turn, as we have seen above, work engagement is associated with a myriad of positive individual and organizational outcomes. In other words, according to the

JD-R model, work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between job resources and positive outcomes. This is called the motivational process. In a similar vein, burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and negative outcomes, whereby job demands are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). This is called the “health impairment process” and will not be investigated in the current PhD thesis.

The JD-R model has received quite a bit of empirical support. For instance, based in a literature review Schaufeli and Taris (2014) confirmed the mediating role of engagement in the motivational process of the JD-R model. Moreover, Taris and Schaufeli (2016) reviewed eight longitudinal studies and found that the causal relationships between job characteristics (i.e., job demands and job resources) and employee well-being (i.e., burnout and work engagement) as stipulated by JD-R model were confirmed by five studies, partly supported by two studies, and only one study failed to find a longitudinal relationship. Moreover, a recent meta-analytic review that included 74 longitudinal studies confirmed that job resources predict work engagement across time; the opposite is also true, though this reversed causal effect is somewhat weaker (Lesener, Gusy & Wolter, 2019).

As Schaufeli and Taris (2014) pointed out the JD-R model is a heuristic, descriptive model rather than an explanatory model. For instance, as mentioned above, the JD-R model predicts that job resources increase work engagement, without specifying the underlying psychological mechanism. This means that other theories, such as Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000), can be used to fill that gap. For instance, job resources might lead to the fulfillment of the basic psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, which, in their turn, foster work engagement (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). That way, a general theory on human motivation (SDT) may be used to explain a specific relationship (i.e., between job resources and work engagement) that is assumed by the JD-R model. The current dissertation follows this lead. To conclude, the general nature of the JD-R model is both its strength and its weakness, as this framework requires other complementary theoretical frameworks to explain the mechanism of how, for instance, job resources impact work engagement. As noted previously, the present dissertation will focus on the motivational process of the JD-R model; more specifically, it will use SDT to explain the specific effects of engaging leadership on job resources, engagement, and individual and team outcomes.

Initially, leadership was studied as a mere job resource in the JD-R model, as one of the antecedents of work engagement. For instance, according to Halbesleben (2010), employees become more engaged in their work when they receive social support and recognition from their supervisors.

More recently, Breevaart et al. (2015) found that transformational leadership —conceptualized as a job resource— is positively related to work engagement. However, in fact, leadership goes beyond a mere job resource because leaders play a key role in creating resourceful work environments for their employees (Chang et al., 2013; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, & Martinez, 2012). In other words, leaders play an essential role in allocating and managing job resources (and job demands) in such a way that their employees feel engaged and perform well (Schaufeli, 2015). This applies not only to individual workers but also to teams; that is, team leaders are supposed to create a resourceful team environment that fosters the collective engagement of the team as well as team performance (Torrente et al., 2012). In sum, being a key antecedent of work engagement, leadership should be considered in the context of the JD-R model as a specific job resource in its own right (Schaufeli, 2015).

Faced with this challenge, and based on previous studies, which sought to develop certain leadership concepts related to work engagement, the present dissertation sets out to develop a conceptual model that includes a specific leadership concept—namely, engaging leadership that is supposed to promote work engagement among followers.

### **Engaging Leadership**

The basic tenet of engaging leadership is that engaging leaders fulfill employees' basic psychological needs, which, in their turn, foster work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015). According to SDT basic psychological needs are defined as “those nutriments that must be procured by a living entity to maintain its growth, integrity, and health” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 326). The three basic psychological needs that SDT has identified are the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The need for autonomy is defined as the individual's desire to experience a sense of ownership over his or her own behavior. The need for relatedness is defined as the individual's desire to be a member and part of a group and to feel connected to others. Finally, the need for competence is defined as the individual's inherent desire to be effective in dealing with environmental challenges and to be capable of achieving desired outcomes. In addition, a fourth basic psychological need was added—namely, the need for meaningfulness (Baumeister, 1991; Frankl, 1992), which is defined as the individual's inherent desire to be engaged in activities that are useful, important, significant, and in line with his or her personal values (Schaufeli, 2015). In sum, the key to moving employees toward full engagement is the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs through the creation of opportunities for need satisfaction at work (Meyer, Gagné, & Parfyonova, 2012).

As indicated above, the concept of engaging leadership is ingrained in SDT and assumes that employees will be engaged when their basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness,

competence, and meaningfulness are satisfied. Schaufeli (2015) argued that engaging leaders fulfill the basic psychological needs of their employees by performing certain leadership behaviors—namely, strengthening, empowering, connecting, and inspiring. By empowering employees (for instance, by giving them a voice), engaging leaders satisfy their need for autonomy. By strengthening employees (for instance, by delegating tasks and responsibilities and providing challenging jobs), engaging leaders satisfy their need for competence. By connecting employees to others in their team, engaging leaders satisfy the employees' need for relatedness. Finally, by inspiring employees, engaging leaders acknowledge employees' personal contribution to the significant overall goal of the team or organization and hence, satisfy employees' need for meaningfulness.

As a result, the satisfaction of each basic need may boost components of work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption). When they have a sense of autonomy, employees feel greater freedom to do their work, and their work goals can be brought more in line with their personal goals. This may increase their sense of pride in, and enthusiasm for, their work. When their need for relatedness is satisfied, employees feel at ease and comfortable enough to express themselves in their work teams and to relate to others, which contributes to a positive team spirit. Additionally, when their need for competence is satisfied, employees experience mastery, which motivates them to invest extra effort into their work. Finally, when their need for meaningfulness is fulfilled, employees feel that their work is useful and important. This fosters a strong identification with their work, which makes it difficult for employees to detach themselves from their work activities. Hence, having their basic need satisfied, employees are more likely to experience vigor, dedication, and absorption.

According to Schaufeli (2015), engaging leadership partly overlaps with other leadership concepts—notably, with transformational leadership that includes four aspects: idealized influence (i.e., expressing high confidence in followers), inspirational motivation (i.e., talking optimistically and enthusiastically about the future), intellectual stimulation (i.e., encouraging followers to challenge present approaches, think in new ways) and individualized consideration (focusing on helping followers to develop their strengths). Schaufeli argued that inspirational motivation overlaps with inspiring, while intellectual stimulation overlaps—at least partly—with empowering. Unfortunately, the conceptual rationale for the inclusion of these four constituting elements of transformational leadership is lacking (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). In contrast, the four components of the engaging leadership concept refer to the fulfillment of basic psychological needs, which is rooted in SDT. Moreover, while transformational leadership is considered a broad leadership construct, engaging leadership is a narrow concept because it focuses on specific leadership behaviors that foster work engagement. More specifically, Bormann and Rowold (2018)

argued that “narrow” leadership constructs, which are “base[d] on a single pillar” (p. 163), are more successful in predicting narrow outcomes (such as work engagement) than are “broad” leadership constructs.

It was previously shown that psychological need satisfaction mediates the relationship between servant leadership and work engagement among followers (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). Servant leadership is a concept akin to engaging leadership but has a broader focus—namely, to serve the needs of others in general (Greenleaf, 1977). It was not specifically introduced to foster employee engagement. Although it might seem that both servant leadership and engaging leadership refer to the same underlying mechanisms in terms of the employee’s needs, servant leadership does not explicitly focus on the satisfaction of basic psychological needs as defined by SDT. Thus, in contrast to servant leadership engaging leadership is a more distinct (narrow) and theory-based concept.

### Cross-cultural Perspective

Because the current study has been carried out mainly in Indonesia, also a cross-cultural perspective is also taken. Following Kim, Park, and Park (2000) and Smith, Bond, and Kagitcibasi (2006), it is important that novel concepts (such as engaging leadership) be studied in different cultural contexts. From the perspective of cross-cultural organizational behavior and psychology research, cultural values and beliefs play a significant role in how employees behave at work (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007), including their responses to leaders. Hence, the many political and socio-economic differences that exist between cultures and countries may influence leadership behaviors. This is the reason why the basic premise that basic need satisfaction mediates the association between engaging leadership on the one hand and work engagement on the other hand was tested simultaneously using an Indonesian sample as well as a non-Indonesian (i.e., Russian) sample. That way, the basic mechanism that might explain the impact of engaging leadership on work engagement would be validated cross-culturally.

Second, following the study of Hu, Schaufeli and Taris (2016), who integrated the Chinese indigenous concept of *guanxi* into the JD-R model, an Indonesian indigenous concept is included to shed light on the question of why engaging leadership might work, particularly in the Indonesian context. More specifically, the moderating effect of *diuwongke*—a specific, indigenous interpersonal Javanese-Indonesian concept—is investigated. *Diuwongke* refers to being treated kindly and humanely, meaning that the person feels respected and that his or her presence is recognized, opinion heard, and contribution considered. In essence, it signifies that the person is allowed to participate in decision making even though (s)he has less formal power. In Javanese-Indonesian culture, people feel safe and happy when they experience a sense of humanness, that is,

when they feel treated as human in society (*diuwongke*), as shown empirically by Prasetyo (2016). Indonesian people want to be treated humanely (*diuwongke*); otherwise, they lose their dignity and do not consider themselves to be respectable people (Prasetyo, 2016). When authorities provide support to low-status persons, these persons feel *diuwongke*, as illustrated by Setiawan (1998). Moreover, such persons need a patron to provide security and support (Setiawan, 1998). In the work context, leaders might act as patrons; thus, it is expected that the positive and secure relationship that employees have with their leaders (*diuwongke*) will reinforce the effect of engaging leadership on work engagement.

### **Job Outcomes**

Three job outcomes are measured: performance, learning, and innovation, at both the team level and individual level. There are at least two reasons for the selection of these outcomes in this study. First, job performance, learning, and innovation are critical outcomes for an organization to survive and be competitive in the rapidly changing business environment (Kontoghiorghes, Awbrey, Feurig, 2005) and these three outcomes are positively interrelated (see Montes, Moreno, & Morales, 2005; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). Second, these three job outcomes were positively associated with work engagement as predicted by the motivational process of the JD-R model (see Schaufeli, 2012). Moreover, following SDT which focuses on human work motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005), it can be expected that intrinsic motivation, which is typical of engaged employees (Van Beek, Hu, Schaufeli, Taris, & Schreurs, 2012) may increase these job outcomes.

#### *Individual Level*

This present dissertation probes the relationship between engaging leadership, work engagement, and job outcomes (i.e., job performance, learning, and innovation) at both the team level and individual level. Individual job outcomes are indicated in the form of employee learning, innovative behavior, intra-role and extra-role behavior. In line with the definition of learning at the team level (Edmondson, 1999; Edmonson, Dillon, & Roloff, 2007), this dissertation describes employee learning as an ongoing process of reflection and action, characterized by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions. Employee learning is not only an occasional training; it is viewed as a continuous process that may also focus on future assignments and career development (McCauley & Hezlett, 2001). The second job outcome indicator is innovative work behavior, which is defined as complex behavior consisting of a set of three different behavioral tasks: idea generation, idea promotion, and idea realization (Janssen, 2000). The third individual job outcome is job performance, consisting of intra-role and extra-role behavior, which is related to the task and

contextual performance, respectively (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Specifically, task performance includes activities that are related to the formal job, whereas contextual performance refers to actions that exceed what the employee is prescribed to do, e.g., helping others or engaging in voluntary overtime work. Hence, both complementary types of performances provide a comprehensive picture of employees' job performance.

### *Team Level*

The main objective of this PhD dissertation is to probe the relationship between engaging leadership, (team) work engagement, and job outcomes at both individual and team levels. Engaging leadership as the specific leadership style that is rooted in SDT and inherently related to work engagement, is expected to play a key initiating role. In addition to that major contribution, the present dissertation also investigates engagement at both the individual and the team levels. Previous studies of work engagement largely focused on the individual level rather than on the team or organizational levels. Team work engagement (TWE) is conceived of as a shared, positive, fulfilling, and emergent affective-motivational state (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014). TWE is shared when team members' affective-motivational states converge. In contrast, high variability in the experienced levels of engagement among team members would mean that, rather than being a collective phenomenon, engagement is basically individual in nature. TWE is considered an emergent state whose collective structure is shaped by the nature of the members' interactions during team processes and dynamics. For example, enthusiastic comments about a new prospective client by one team member who incites coworkers to actively suggest strategies to accommodate this client are likely to foster the emergence of TWE. Though some studies have included TWE (e.g., Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014a), the concept is under-researched and still needs further validation. Following Costa et al. (2014a), in this dissertation, we also use a reference shift from "I/me" to "we/our" in questionnaire items to assess TWE.

The first indicator of team outcomes is team learning. Learning at the group-level of analysis is an ongoing process of reflection and action, characterized by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions (Edmonson, 1999; Edmonson, Dillon, & Roloff, 2007). For a team to discover gaps in plans and to make changes accordingly, team members must test assumptions and discuss differences of opinion openly rather than privately or outside the group. This conceptualization of team learning is consistent with a definition of group learning proposed by Argote, Gruenfeld, and Naquin (1999): as both the processes and outcomes of group interaction activities through which individuals acquire, share, and combine knowledge. The second indicator of team outcomes is team innovation. Team members are able to accomplish simple innovations, while teams consisting of members with



diverse knowledge are needed for completing more complicated innovations (Janssen, 2000). Team innovation performance is seen as the degree to which the team accomplishes its innovative tasks (Sun, Teh, Ho, & Lin, 2017). The third indicator of team outcomes is team performance consisting of intra-role and extra-role team performance. Following Torrente et al. (2012), intra-role and extra-role team performance was assessed analogously to individual intra-role and extra-role performance. The referent used was the team instead of the individual employee.

While we measured all study variables at the individual level, we used the collective referent shift—such as “My team” and “We”—for all the team-level outcomes. Moreover, to analyze the data at the team level, we employed an aggregation procedure by averaging individual scores to a mean score for each team and justifying them with the aggregation criteria.

So far, virtually all studies on leadership and work engagement have been cross-sectional in nature and have focused exclusively on individual work engagement. The current dissertation is unique not only because the impact of engaging leadership is studied across time but also because this is done simultaneously at the individual level and team level, thus allowing for the testing of cross-level effects.

### Empirical Studies

Four empirical studies were carried out to investigate the relationships between engaging leadership, (team) work engagement, and performance at the individual and team level. These studies were conducted in Indonesia, in a state-owned agribusiness company that operates in the cultivation of palm oil and rubber, as well as the production, sales, and export of palm oil and rubber products. The initial sample included 607 employees nested in 94 teams. The data collection was performed at (Time 1) April-June, 2017 and (Time 2) April-July 2018. Additional data for cross-cultural validation were used from a Russian sample of 384 civil servants.

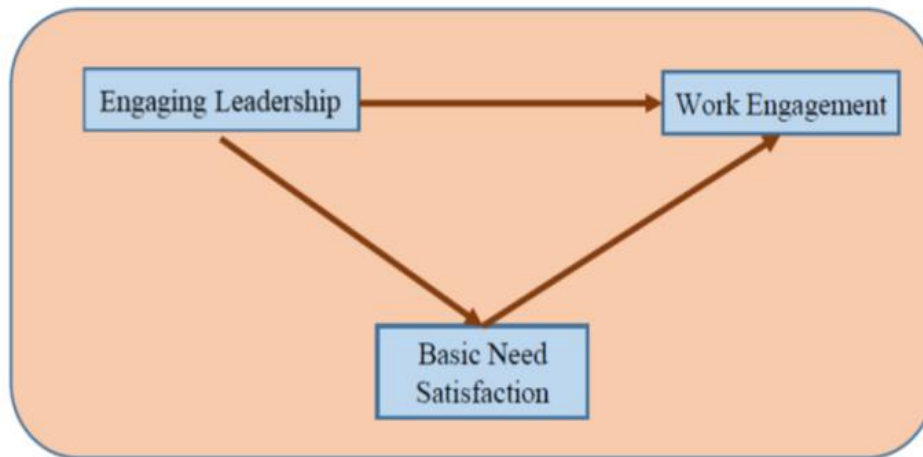
- *Study 1. Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction Mediates the Relationship Between Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement: A Cross-National Study (Chapter 2).*

*Aims and Specific Contribution:* This study sets out to investigate the mediating role of basic psychological need satisfaction in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement by testing this in a cross-national setting. The research model is displayed in Figure 2.

*Research Questions:* (1) Does basic need satisfaction mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement? (2) Is the proposed mediation model invariant across national samples from Indonesia and Russia?

*Method:* Data were collected from two independent samples from Indonesia (n = 607 employees of a state-owned company) and Russia (n = 384 civil servants). Multiple group analysis using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as implemented by AMOS (Arbuckle, 1997) was conducted to test the research model in both national samples simultaneously.

**Figure 2. Research Model of Study 1.**



- *Study 2. How Engaging Leaders Foster Work Engagement (Chapter 3).*

*Aims and Specific Contribution:*

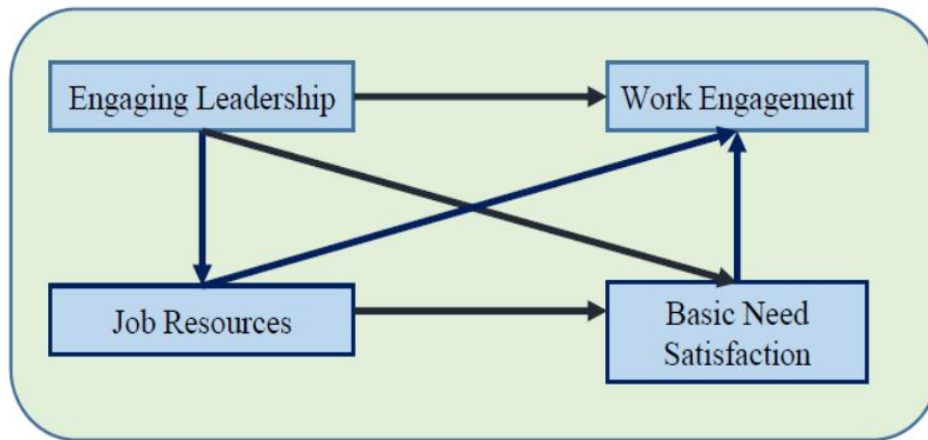
This study uses the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as a conceptual framework and investigates the link between supervisor's engaging leadership and employees' work engagement, as mediated by job resources and basic psychological need satisfaction. This study probes the relative importance of the indirect paths running from T1 engaging leadership to the T1-T2 increases in work engagement through T1 job resources and T1-T2 increases in basic need satisfaction, respectively. The research model is depicted in Figure 3.

*Research Question:* To what extent do job resources and the changes of basic need satisfaction mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and increases in work engagement?

*Method:*

A two-wave survey was conducted among 412 Indonesian employees working in one of Indonesia's largest state-owned agribusinesses in 2017 and 2018. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as implemented by AMOS (Arbuckle, 1997) was conducted to test the research model.

**Figure 3. Research Model of Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement Mediated by Job Resources and Basic Need Satisfaction.**



- *Study 3. The Linkage Between Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement as Moderated by Diuwongke (Chapter 4).*

*Aims and Specific Contribution:*

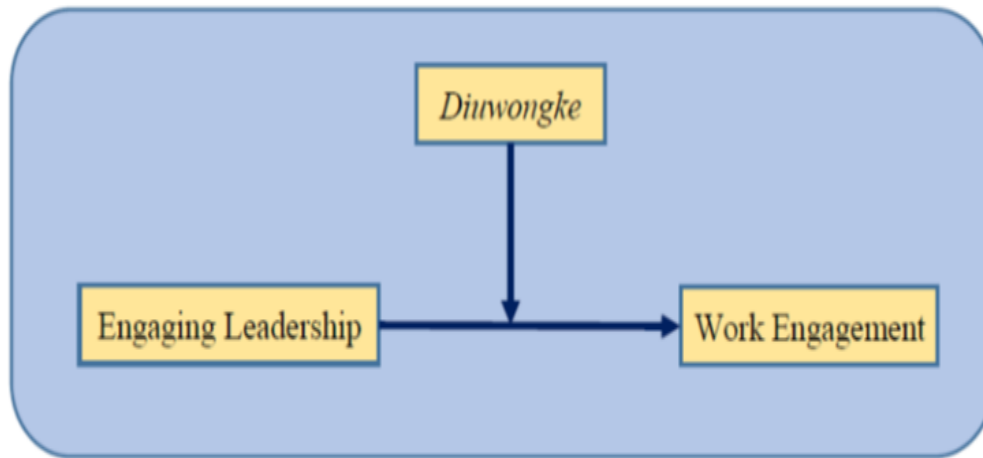
This study investigates engaging leadership and work engagement among Indonesian employees and the moderating role that *diuwongke* plays in this relationship. We also included transformational leadership in order to show the added value of the novel concept of engaging leadership (i.e. concurrent validity). The research model is shown in Figure 4.

*Research Questions:* (1) Does *diuwongke* moderate the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement? (2) Is the (moderated) effect of engaging leadership on work engagement larger than that of transformational leadership?

*Method:*

Participants in this study were 607 employees from a state-owned agribusiness company in Indonesia. Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS was conducted in order to simultaneously investigate the associations of engaging and transformational leadership with work engagement. Furthermore, Model 1 of the SPSS PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2017) was used to test the moderation effect of *diuwongke* in the relationship between engaging and transformational leadership on the one hand and work engagement on the other.

**Figure 4. Research Model of Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement Moderated by *Diuwongke*.**



- *Study 4. Engaging Leadership and its Implication for Work Engagement and Job Outcomes at Individual and Team Level: A Multilevel Longitudinal Study (Chapter 6).*

*Aims and Specific Contribution:*

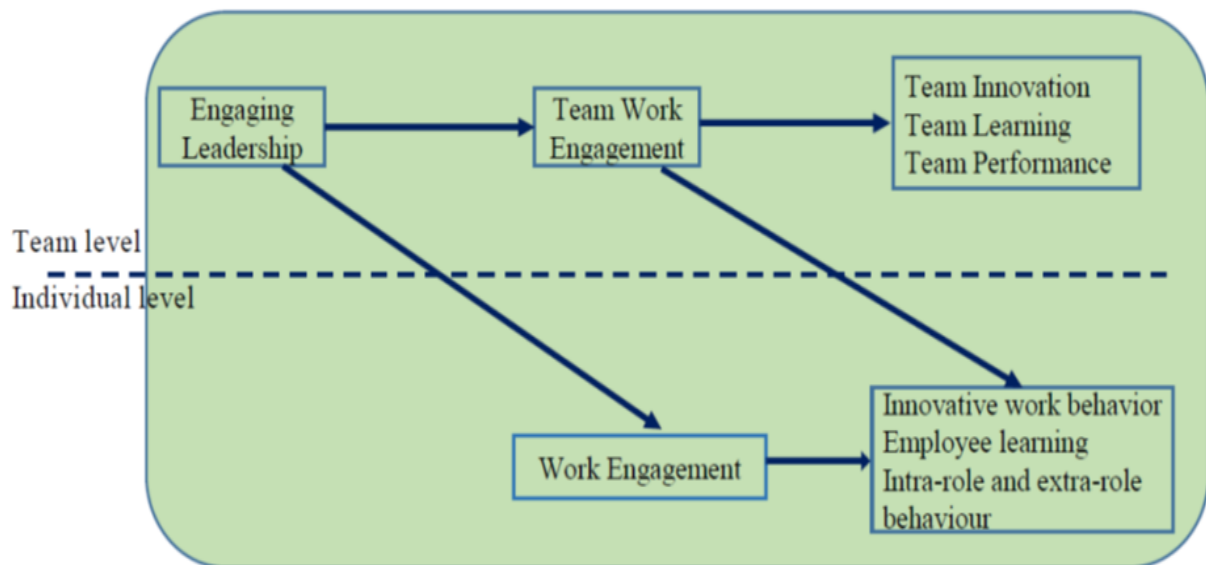
This study investigates how individual and team level work engagement and job outcomes can be fostered by leaders' leadership style (engaging leadership), using multilevel analysis. The research model is displayed in Figure 5.

*Research Questions:* (1) Does engaging leadership increase the level of collective, team work engagement, which, in its turn fosters team outcomes (i.e., team learning, team innovation, and team performance)? (team-level effect); (2) Does engaging leadership at team level increase individual job outcomes (i.e., employee learning, innovative behavior, and intra-role and extra-role behavior), through individual work engagement? (cross-level effect); (3) Does engaging leadership at team level increase individual job outcomes (i.e., employee learning, innovative behavior, and intra-role and extra-role behavior), through team work engagement? (cross-level effect).

*Method:*

A longitudinal multilevel study with a one-year time interval was performed to analyze the hypothesis among 54 working teams (N = 224) in a state-owned palm oil tree company in Indonesia.

**Figure 5. Research Model of Engaging Leadership, Work Engagement, and Job Performance Relationship at Individual Level and Team Level.**



Together these four studies uncover the impact of engaging leadership on work outcomes at the individual level and team level, including the mediation of employee's need satisfaction and the moderation of *diuwongke*. The studies will be presented in greater detail in chapters 2-5 and the dissertation finishes with an overall discussion of the results obtained in the four studies.

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## CHAPTER 2

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# **Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction Mediates the Relationship between Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement: A Cross-National Study<sup>1</sup>**

### **Introduction**

Research and practices of work engagement are growing since it has a positive impact on employees as well as organizations (Schaufeli, 2012). The most widely used scholarly definition of work engagement describes it as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002; p.74)". The vigor component refers to high levels of energy and perseverance, the dedication component refers to a sense of significance, inspiration, and involvement and the absorption component refers to being focused, fully concentrated, and attentive in one's work. By employing engaged workers, organizations may increase not only the performance at the individual and team level, but also at the organization and business unit level (Salanova, Rodríguez-Sánchez, Schaufeli, & Cifre, 2014; Schneider, Barbera, & Macey, 2009; Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012; Schneider, Yost, Kropp, Kind, & Lam, 2018). Thus, employees with high levels of work engagement constitute the organizations' most valuable competitive advantage (Schaufeli, 2012).

Despite the importance of work engagement, the prevalence of highly engaged workers in organizations worldwide seems to decline (Czarnowsky, 2008), which necessitates human resource development (HRD) scholars and practitioners to develop research agendas and practical strategies to nurture engaged workers (Shuck, Rocco, & Albornoz, 2011). Previous studies emphasized the role of the leaders to increase employees' work engagement (Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011;

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<sup>1</sup> This chapter was published as Rahmadani, V.G., Schaufeli, W.B., Ivanova, T.Y., & Osin, E.N. (2019). Basic psychological need satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement: A cross-national study. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 30, 453– 471. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21366>  
Part of this paper has been presented at the 6th World Congress of Positive Psychology, 'Engaging leadership predict work engagement via work-related basic need satisfaction', July 19, 2019, Melbourne, Australia.

Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015). Leaders are important agents to nurture and manage work engagement among their employees. A recent meta-analysis found that various leadership styles are positively related to work engagement, such as ethical leadership ( $k = 9$ ;  $\rho = .58$ ), transformational leadership ( $k = 36$ ;  $\rho = .46$ ), servant leadership ( $k=3$ ;  $\rho = .43$ ), authentic leadership ( $k = 17$ ;  $\rho = .38$ ), and empowering leadership ( $k = 4$ ;  $\rho = .35$ ) (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018). Although these leadership styles are related to work engagement, in-depth knowledge about the underlying mechanism is still lacking. It remains unclear how certain leadership styles may increase work engagement. This has – at least partly – to do with the lacking theoretical foundation of current leadership concepts such as transformational leadership (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Thus, there is a need for developing an alternative, theory-based, specific leadership conceptualization that may be inherently linked to work engagement.

The current study attempts to address this need by proposing and testing the novel concept of engaging leadership, which was developed by Schaufeli (2015) and is firmly rooted in Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Based on the systematic review by Bormann & Rowold (2018) on construct proliferation in leadership style research, it can be argued that engaging leadership differs from other existing leadership concepts. First, while transformational leadership is categorized as a change-oriented leadership style, servant leadership, authentic leadership, and ethical leadership are categorized as relations-oriented leadership styles (cf., Yukl, Gordon, & Taber 2002). Contrary to transformational leadership, engaging leadership is relations-oriented since engaging leaders are supportive and promote their followers' well-being. Second, Bormann and Rowold (2018) posited that the core of “narrow” leadership constructs “bases on a single pillar” (p. 163), and they predict narrow outcomes, such as ethical leadership. Clearly, the concept of engaging leadership is narrow because it focuses on leadership behaviors that foster work engagement, which differs from broad leadership constructs, such as transformational or transactional leadership.

The main difference between engaging leadership and the other leadership concepts is, however, that the former is firmly rooted in a well-established theory, whereas previous leadership concepts are criticized because they lack a detailed theoretical description of the underlying processes (Bormann & Rowold, 2018), most notably transformational leadership (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Moreover, Bormann and Rowold (2018) suggested that leadership concepts might use SDT because this motivational theory allows a more parsimonious description of the mechanisms underlying leadership behaviors. In line with this suggestion, the engaging leadership concept *explicitly* builds on that theory (SDT), and therefore constitutes a positive exception, for instance, compared to authentic leadership or ethical leadership. In sum, even though each leadership concept is – to some extent – related to any other, engaging leadership can be seen as a distinct (narrow), relationship-oriented, and theory-based leadership concept. Tellingly, Bormann

and Rowold (2018, p.162) concluded that a one-sided critical stance regarding newer leadership styles in terms of proliferation is premature (e.g. because high correlations are likely to result from method bias).

The concept of engaging leadership was developed by Schaufeli (2015) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) was chosen as the theoretical foundation since research showed that the fulfillment of basic psychological needs at work, as stipulated by SDT, is positively related to work engagement (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, & De Witte, 2008; Schreurs, van Emmerik, Van den Broeck, & Guenter, 2014; Sulea, Van Beek, Sarbescu, Virga, & Schaufeli, 2015). When employees' basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are satisfied they are more likely to be engaged at work, that is. Engaging leaders might foster the fulfillment of these basic needs by strengthening, connecting, empowering and inspiring employees, respectively and hence increase their follower's levels of work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015). In addition to these three original basic needs, employee's need for meaningfulness was included in this study as well. It is expected that engaging leader behaviors are positively associated with work engagement through the fulfillment of followers' basic needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness, and meaningfulness.

The mediating role of basic psychological need satisfaction is studied in a cross-national setting, more particularly in Indonesia and Russia. Conveniently selected, Indonesia and Russia differ in terms of their socio-demography, economy, and culture. Indonesia is an Asian, tropical, lower-middle country with a very high population density. In contrast, Russia is a colder Eurasian country with a very low population density and a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita that is three times higher than Indonesia. Also, both countries differ in culture, as illustrated by the cultural dimension scores of Hofstede (2001). That is, compared to Russia, Indonesian culture is characterized by less power distance (78 vs. 93), individualism (14 vs. 39), uncertainty avoidance (48 vs. 95), and long-term orientation (62 vs. 81), and more by masculinity (46 vs. 36), and indulgence (38 vs. 20). The purpose of the current study is not to investigate cross-national differences per se, but rather to test the invariance of the hypothesized mediation model across two countries that differ in many respects.

In sum, the added value of this study is to contribute to the validity of the engaging leadership concept as a novel specific leadership style by showing its impact on employee's work engagement through the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs (mediation model). A special feature is the incorporation of an additional need for meaningfulness, whose mediating role will be tested separately. Moreover, the robustness of the mediation models will be investigated in two samples simultaneously that originate from countries that differ, socially, economically and culturally.

## Conceptual Framework

### The Job-Demands Resources Model and Leadership

Most studies on work engagement use the Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model (Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017), whereas other theories are Emotional Contagion Theory (Bakker, Westman, & Schaufeli, 2007), Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Van den Broeck et al., 2008), Conservations of Resource Theory (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), Social Cognitive Theory (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011), Broaden and Build Theory (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, & Schaufeli, 2011). However, the JD-R model has been criticized of being a descriptive rather than an explanatory framework, meaning that other psychological theories should be integrated into the model in order to explain and understand the underlying processes (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). In the current study, we use SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) for that purpose; that is for understanding the underlying mechanism that might explain the relationship between leadership and work engagement.

According to the JD-R model, work engagement mediates between job resources and positive outcomes (well-being, performance), whereas in contrast, burn out mediates between job demands and negative outcomes (health problems) (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The former is called the motivational process, whereas the latter is called the health impairment process. Schaufeli (2015) integrated leadership into the JD-R model, based on the principle that leaders are supposed to balance the job demands and job resources of their followers in such a way that they remain healthy, motivated, and productive. They do so by managing the allocation and the impact of job demands and job resources on their followers.

The current study focuses exclusively on the motivational process of the JDR-model and uses SDT as an explanatory theory on how leaders can impact employees' work engagement. Leaders have an important role in providing their followers (team members) with job resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Chang, Hsu, Liou, Tsai, 2013; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martínez, 2014). For example, leaders may increase employees' job resources by giving them support, autonomy, and feedback. In doing so they will satisfy their follower's basic psychological needs, as will be argued below, and consequently increase their level of work engagement. On the other hand, leaders may increase employees' job demands by giving them a lot of workloads, tight schedule, and no support.

### Engaging Leadership and Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

SDT is a well-known and widely empirically tested theory of human motivation and optimal functioning, which was also applied in occupational health psychology (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). According to SDT, individuals are growth-oriented agents who actively interact with their

environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). However, to reach the growth and self-determined stage, people's basic needs should be satisfied, as these act as resources that nourish their growth-oriented tendency (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). According to SDT, basic psychological needs are defined as "those nutriments that must be procured by a living entity to maintain its growth, integrity, and health" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 326). Thus, the satisfaction of basic psychological needs should be given a priority, in order to ensure positively engaged and optimally motivated employees (Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

At work, social-contextual factors such as work climate, job design, leadership have an impact on employees' basic need satisfaction and hence their mental health. Moreover, in SDT, autonomy-supportive social contexts facilitate autonomous motivation or self-determined motivation, such as the manager's autonomy support by satisfying the basic needs (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Thus, supervisor's or managerial autonomy support is identified as one of the variables that predict the employees' basic need satisfaction, and in turn, increase engagement, and well-being (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001).

Three basic psychological needs are distinguished in SDT; the need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The need for autonomy is defined as the desire to experience a sense of ownership over one's behavior. The need for relatedness is defined as the desire to be part of a group and to feel connected with others. Finally, the need for competence is defined as the desire to be effective in dealing with environmental challenges and being capable of achieving desired outcomes. Although the need for meaningfulness has not been identified as a separate basic need by SDT so far, theoretical and empirical arguments have been proposed in favor it (e.g. Andersen, Chen, Carter, 2000; Hadden & Smith, 2019). Need for meaningfulness has similar characteristics as basic psychological needs, namely, it has a motivational aspect, it promotes well-being, and it is unique (Hadden & Smith, 2019). Furthermore, based on their two diary studies, it is argued that need for meaning is a robust predictor of psychological well-being and it is uniquely correlated with well-being indicators, even in the presence of the three other basic needs (Hadden & Smith, 2019).

However, so far, the authors of SDT view meaningfulness as an outcome of basic psychological need satisfaction rather than a need in itself (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 252-254). In contrast and following Baumeister (1991) and Frankl (1992), we believe that the need for meaningfulness which is defined as the desire to be engaged in activities that are useful, important, significant, and are in line with one's personal values, plays a fundamental role in human motivation. Besides, meaningfulness has a strong positive association with work engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). The current research tests whether the need for meaningfulness can be considered a constituent element of psychological need satisfaction, which plays a mediating role between engaging leadership and employee's work engagement.



## Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement

Whilst Gagné and Deci (2005) measured autonomy support in relation to basic need satisfaction in a certain way, Schaufeli (2015) proposed four components of engaging leadership, namely, empowering, connecting, strengthening, and inspiring, which may facilitate the satisfaction of followers' basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, competence, and another important need namely, the need for meaningfulness. The corresponding behaviors that are also rooted in SDT referred to leadership competencies focusing on encouraging autonomy, deepening relatedness, and building competence (Fowler, 2018). By empowering employees, for instance, by giving them a voice, engaging leaders satisfy their need for autonomy. By connecting employees with others in their team, engaging leaders satisfy the employees' need for relatedness. By strengthening employees, for instance, through delegating tasks and responsibilities and providing challenging jobs, engaging leaders satisfy the employees' need for competence. Finally, by inspiring employees, engaging leaders acknowledge their personal contribution to the significant overall goal of the team or organization and hence satisfy their need for meaningfulness.

As a result, the satisfaction of each basic need may increase the components of work engagement. By having a sense of autonomy, employees' self-determination is triggered, because they feel greater freedom to do their work. Hence, their work goals can be brought more in line with their personal goals and because of this congruence, work goals may be more successfully integrated into the self and thus boost a sense of pride and enthusiasm with their work (dedication). By having their need of relatedness satisfied, employees feel at ease and comfortable to express themselves in their work team and to relate to others, which contributes to a positive team spirit (dedication, absorption). In addition to that, a diary study by Mäkikangas, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2017), has found that the connecting aspect of engaging leadership also encourages the job crafting behavior of teams. In its turn, job crafting is known to be beneficial for work engagement (Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013; Wang, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2016). By having the need for competence satisfied, employees experience mastery, which motivates them to invest an extra effort in their work (vigor). By having their need for meaningfulness fulfilled, employees feel that their work is useful and important, not only for themselves but also for their colleagues, customers, the organization, and perhaps even for society as a whole. This fosters a strong identification with the job, which makes it difficult to detach from it (dedication, absorption).

The mediating role of basic psychological need satisfaction in the relation between job characteristics and well-being has been studied by Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, and Kornazheva (2001) in a cross-cultural context. They confirmed that managerial autonomy support predicted need satisfaction among employees in both the US and Bulgaria and need satisfaction, in its turn, predicted both task engagement and employee well-being. In a similar vein, according to Meyer, Gagné, and Parfyonova (2012), the key to moving employees towards work engagement is

the fulfillment of basic psychological needs as stipulated by SDT. Furthermore, previous studies showed a significant relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement through increasing job resources (Schaufeli, 2015). Hence, it can be argued that job resources are instrumental in satisfying basic psychological needs, which then foster work engagement (Deci et al., 2001).

Van den Broeck et al. (2008) reported that the satisfaction of the three basic psychological needs described in SDT partially mediated the effect of job resources on engagement (vigor). Recently, Rigby and Ryan (2018) argued that the satisfaction of employees' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness leads to a higher quality of motivation for employees. Additionally, they stressed the importance of having personally meaningful goals at work for a high-quality motivation, which can be considered as being comparable to work engagement. Finally, based on a cross-lagged study, it was found that engaging leaders are essential in shaping a resourceful work context (Nikolova, Schaufeli, & Notelaers, 2019). In sum, these findings suggest that as a consequence of engaging leadership that focuses on inspiring, strengthening, connecting and empowering employees, basic psychological needs are fulfilled, which, in their turn, are likely to increase levels of work engagement. This leads to:

**Hypothesis 1a:** Basic need satisfaction (need for autonomy, competence, relatedness, and the additional need for meaningfulness) mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement.

In addition, the alternative hypothesis is tested in which the mediating role of the need for meaningfulness is investigated separately from that of the satisfaction of the three other basic needs.

**Hypothesis 1b:** Basic need satisfaction and need for meaningfulness independently mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement.

**Hypothesis 2a, b:** The proposed mediation models are invariant across both national samples originating from Indonesia and Russia.

## Method

### Procedure

For the Indonesian sample, the data collection started after the company officially granted permission. Conveniently selected, 700 participants, who worked at a state-owned agricultural company in Indonesia, which operates in the cultivation of palm oil and rubber, and the production, sale, and export of palm oil and rubber products have participated. A distribution officer handed the surveys in sealed envelopes to the participants in each unit. Participants received a written description of the study along with informed consent for the survey. The surveys were completed during the working hours; participants returned the completed survey within maximum of two weeks in a sealed envelope to the head office collectively per unit via a distribution officer. Participation

in the study was voluntary, and the participants' responses were confidential. The whole data collection process took three months, from April to June 2017.

The Russian sample was comprised of employees of a regional government agency overseeing and approving construction and development projects in the region and its local offices in 31 districts. The data were collected as part of an organizational survey of work conditions and workplace well-being conducted by an external research team at the request of management. The survey was completely anonymous and conducted online; the individual participants' responses were confidential. Participants received invitations to participate and informed consent forms through their corporate e-mail system. The data were collected in November and December 2016.

### Participants

For the Indonesian sample, participants were 607 employees; 611 returned the survey (response rate 87.3 percent) but four surveys could not be used for further analyses because of missing data. All participants were males; their mean age was 44.6 years ( $SD=7.7$ ); 23.2 percent completed elementary education, 59.6 percent completed secondary education, 0.2 percent completed professional higher education, 16.5 percent completed a bachelor degree, and 0.5 percent completed a master degree; more than half of the participants (56.5 percent) had over twenty years of job tenure.

For the Russian sample, participants were 384 employees resulting in a response rate of 60.6 percent (42 more participants started but did not finish the survey). The participants were mostly female (75 percent) with mean age 40.4 years ( $SD\ 11.7$ ); 84.1 percent had a bachelor or specialist degree, 14.6 percent had two or more degrees, and 1.3 percent had secondary education. Most participants had a short job tenure of 1-3 years (70.7 percent) or less than 1 year (10.9 percent).

### Measurements

Since all the original scales are in English, a back-translation procedure was employed for all scales for both countries.

*Engaging leadership.* The 12-item Engaging Leadership scale (Schaufeli, 2015) assesses the four core dimensions of engaging leadership, namely strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring with three items each. Each item of strengthening (e.g., "My supervisor delegates tasks and responsibilities to team members"), connecting (e.g., "My supervisor encourages collaboration among team members"), empowering (e.g., "My supervisor gives team members enough freedom to complete their tasks"), and inspiring (e.g., "My supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans ") is rated on a five- point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with

higher scores indicating higher levels of supervisor's engaging leadership as perceived by their followers.

The value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale for Indonesian sample was .86. In the Russian sample, the same Engaging Leadership Scale was used; the value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .95.

*Basic need satisfaction.* The 9-item Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction Scale assesses the three components of basic psychological need satisfaction, namely the need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The first three psychological needs are based on the adaption of Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (Deci et al., 2001) by Van den Broeck et al. (2008). All needs were measured with three items each: autonomy (e.g., "If I could choose, I would do things at work differently), competence (e.g., "I really master my tasks at my job"), and relatedness (e.g., I often feel alone when I am with my colleagues"). Additionally, 3 items need for meaningfulness were included (i.e., My work is full of meaning for me, personally; My work is useful for other people; With my work, I contribute to something important). All 12 items, use a five-point Likert scale ranging between "Strongly disagree" (1) to "Strongly agree" (5).

In the Indonesian sample, the value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .79 and .65 for the separate need for meaningfulness scale. In the Russian sample, the value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .86 and for the meaningfulness scale .73.

*Work engagement.* In both samples, work engagement was assessed with the 9-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES, Schaufeli et al., 2006). Previous studies carried out in other countries have shown that the UWES has satisfactory psychometric properties (Schaufeli, 2012). The UWES assesses the three core dimensions of work engagement, namely vigor, dedication, and absorption. Each item of vigor (e.g., "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"), dedication (e.g., "I am proud of the work that I do"), and absorption (e.g., "I get carried away when I'm working") is rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with higher scores indicating higher levels of employees' work engagement. In the Indonesian sample, the value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .87. In the Russian sample, a 1-7 point Likert scale was used; the value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .92.

## Results

### Preliminary analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the measurement model consisting of five correlated latent variables: engaging leadership (a second-order factor represented by its components of strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring, which were each represented by their three corresponding items), basic need satisfaction at work (a

second order factor represented by its components of autonomy, relatedness, and competence, which were each represented by their three corresponding items), need for meaningfulness (a first-order factor represented by its three items), work engagement (a second order factor represented by its components of vigor, dedication, and absorption, which were each represented by their three corresponding items).

Maximum likelihood estimation methods were used and the goodness-of-fit of each model was measured using absolute and relative indices. The fit of the model to the data for both samples was examined with the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Further, the Normed Fit Index (NFI); Incremental Fit Index (IFI); and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used. Values of RMSEA close to .06 or below as an indication of good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and values of all relative fit indices greater than .90 are considered as a good fit (Hoyle, 1995).

The measurement model showed an acceptable fit with the data for both the Indonesian sample ( $\chi^2 = 1189.28$ ,  $df = 440$ ,  $p < .001$ ; RMSEA = .053; CFI = .90; TLI = .88, IFI = .90), and the Russian sample ( $\chi^2 = 1230.39$ ,  $df=440$ ,  $p < .001$ ; RMSEA = .065; CFI = .91; TLI = .89, IFI = .91). However, the modification indices suggested that the fit could be improved by allowing two error terms for the items “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” and “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous”, and the items “I am immersed in my work” and “I get carried away when I’m working”, to correlate because of their overlapping item content. The resulting measurement model fit the data slightly better both for Indonesian sample ( $\chi^2 = 1130.51$ ,  $df = 438$ ,  $p < .001$ ; RMSEA = .049; CFI = .91; TLI = .91) and Russian sample ( $\chi^2 = 1088.33$ ,  $df = 438$ ,  $p < .001$ ; RMSEA = .059; CFI = .93; TLI = .91).

In Indonesian sample, one item (“My supervisor encourages team members to use their own strengths”) had a low loading on its latent factor representing “strengthening” with a coefficient of .31 ( $p < .01$ ). For a collective culture like in Indonesia, using one’s own strength is not perceived as strengthening. We retained the item for theoretical reasons, though. All other items loaded highly on their respective latent factors with coefficients ranging from .57 to .82.

One item (“My supervisor delegates to his subordinates tasks and responsibilities for completing them”) had a weak loading on its latent factor representing “strengthening” in Russian sample with a coefficient of .19 ( $p < .05$ ). Obviously, delegating tasks is perceived differently in Russia and not seen as a way of strengthening; however, we retained the item for theoretical reasons. All other items loaded highly on their respective latent factors with coefficients ranging from .46 to .94. A reliable measurement model was thus obtained.

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients, and Cronbach Alpha’s of the study variables. As expected, all variables were positively correlated.

**Table 1.**  
**Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Correlation Coefficients of the Study Variables.**

No	Variables	Indonesia N = 607		Russia N = 384		Correlations										
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Strengthening	4.00	.57	4.21	.93		.81	.71	.79	.42	.23	.30	.36	.27	.35	.22
2	Connecting	4.33	.48	4.22	.92	.51		.76	.84	.45	.24	.33	.33	.28	.31	.19
3	Empowering	4.17	.49	4.11	.85	.49	.66		.75	.48	.24	.34	.31	.22	.27	.21
4	Inspiring	4.26	.48	3.98	1.08	.41	.59	.61		.39	.21	.32	.36	.34	.39	.25
5	Autonomy	3.73	.72	5.67	1.01	.28	.23	.17	.22		.59	.67	.36	.39	.41	.35
6	Competence	3.99	.58	5.96	9.71	.22	.23	.19	.16	.48		.57	.44	.46	.49	.45
7	Relatedness	4.05	.56	6.21	.69	.21	.22	.17	.16	.34	.38		.31	.33	.36	.36
8	Meaningfulness	4.11	.54	5.39	1.08	.30	.30	.29	.26	.32	.48	.32		.55	.68	.48
9	Vigor	4.37	.67	4.24	1.17	.24	.25	.24	.25	.27	.37	.22	.25		.84	.62
10	Dedication	4.52	.60	4.53	1.19	.22	.26	.26	.26	.29	.35	.22	.25	.70		.71
11	Absorption	4.13	.70	4.80	.95	.31	.26	.35	.37	.29	.18	.34	.26	.55	.62	

Note. The scoring range of all variables is 1-5, except for basic need satisfaction (autonomy, competence, relatedness, meaningfulness) and work engagement (vigor, dedication, absorption) scores on the Russian variables that range from 1-7. Above diagonal, the Russian correlation coefficients are displayed, and below diagonal the Indonesian correlations. All variables are significantly correlated at .01 level (2 tailed).

### Testing of Hypotheses

Multiple group analysis using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as implemented by AMOS (Arbuckle, 1997) was conducted to test the model in both national samples simultaneously. First, the mediation model without any constraint was tested: a model that assumes the latent variable of engaging leadership with four indicators (i.e., strengthening, connecting, empowering, inspiring) is associated indirectly with the latent variable of work engagement with three indicators (i.e., vigor, dedication, and absorption) through the mediating latent variable of basic psychological need satisfaction with four indicators (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness, meaningfulness) (Hypothesis 1a/ M1a).

Next, in order to examine the robustness of proposed research model (M1a) and test Hypothesis 2a about the invariance of the model across the two national samples, several multi-group analyses were carried out including both samples simultaneously. The invariance across countries of the best-fitting multi-group model was assessed by comparing the unconstrained model with its constrained counterparts. M1a, the proposed (unconstrained) model was compared with the constrained models in terms of structural paths (M2), factor loadings (M3), and both structural paths and factor loadings (M4). When the fit of the constrained model to the data is not significantly worse than the fit of the unconstrained model, invariance has been demonstrated. For the multi-group analysis of the second research model with two separate mediating latent variables (basic psychological need satisfaction and need for meaningfulness) a similar procedure was performed (Hypothesis 1b/M1b). The results of the model fit related to Hypothesis 1a-2a and 1b-2b can be seen in Table 2 and 3, respectively.

Results, as depicted in Table 2, show that the first research model (M1a) fits the data well, with all fit indices meeting their respective criteria, and with all path-coefficients being positively significant, except the direct path of engaging leadership to work engagement for the Russian sample ( $\beta = .06, p > .05$ ). The model that is displayed in figure 1 explains 34.1 % and 44.3 % of the variance in work engagement in the Indonesian and Russian sample, respectively. Hence, as expected, basic psychological need satisfaction mediated the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement in both samples. In the Russian sample, basic psychological need satisfaction fully mediated this relationship, whereas in the Indonesian sample, this relationship was partially mediated. This means that Hypothesis 1a is confirmed.

**Table 2.**  
**Multi-group Structural Equation Analysis: Model Comparison of Research Model 1.**

Model	Sample	Structural Path			$\chi^2$	Df	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	Model Comparison	$\Delta\chi^2$	Df	P
		EL-WE	EL-BNS	BNS-WE											
M1a	Indonesia	.23***	.44***	.44***	39.31	82	.93	.94	.91	.94	.06				
	Russia	.06/ ns	.52***	.63***											
M2	Indonesia	.12***	.42***	.51***	401.22	85	.93	.94	.91	.94	.06	M3-M1	1.91	3	.012
	Russia	.16***	.54***	.56***											
M3	Indonesia	.21***	.47***	.43***	494.12	90	.91	.93	.90	.92	.06	M2-M1	10.3	8	.000
	Russia	.06/ ns	.51***	.64***											
M4	Indonesia	.14***	.43***	.53***	51.99	93	.91	.92	.89	.92	.06	M4-M1	12.68	11	.000
	Russia	.09/ ns	.52***	.59***											

Notes. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ;  $\chi^2$  = Chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; NFI = Normed Fit Index; IFI= Incremental Fit Index; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index, CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; EL= Engaging Leadership; WE= Work Engagement; BNS= Basic Need Satisfaction.

M1 = Unconstrained model,

M2 = Structural paths constrained model,

M3 = Factor loadings constrained model,

M4 = Structural paths and factor loadings constrained model.



**Table 3.**  
**Multi-group Structural Equation Analysis: Model Comparison of Research Model 2.**

Model	Sample	Structural Path					r	$\chi^2$	Df	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Df	P
		EL-WE	EL-BNS	BNS-WE	EL-Me	Me-WE	BNS-Me										
M1b	Indonesia	.28***	.38***	.55***	.47***	-.14/ ns	.71***	328.74	118	.95	.96	.94	.96	.042			
	Russia	.01/ ns	.51***	.27***	.44***	.56***	.34***										
M2	Indonesia	.09**	.37***	.22***	.40***	.35***	.73***	389.91	123	.94	.96	.93	.95	.046	61.17	5	.000
	Russia	.14**	.40***	.25***	.51***	.42***	.36***										
M3	Indonesia	.25***	.41***	.54***	.48***	-.15/ ns	.69***	448.84	127	.93	.95	.92	.95	.050	12.1	9	.000
	Russia	.00/ ns	.49***	.32***	.43***	.54***	.36***										
M4	Indonesia	.12***	.38***	.27***	.43***	.31***	.70***	512.03	132	.92	.94	.91	.94	.053	183.29	14	.000
	Russia	.15***	.51***	.25***	.49***	.34***	.38***										

Notes. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$   $\chi^2$  = Chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; NFI = Normed Fit Index; IFI= Incremental Fit Index; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index, CFI = Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; EL= Engaging Leadership; WE= Work Engagement; BNS= Basic Need Satisfaction.

M1 = Unconstrained model,

M2 = Structural paths constrained model,

M3 = Factor loadings constrained model,

M4 = Structural paths and factor loadings constrained model.

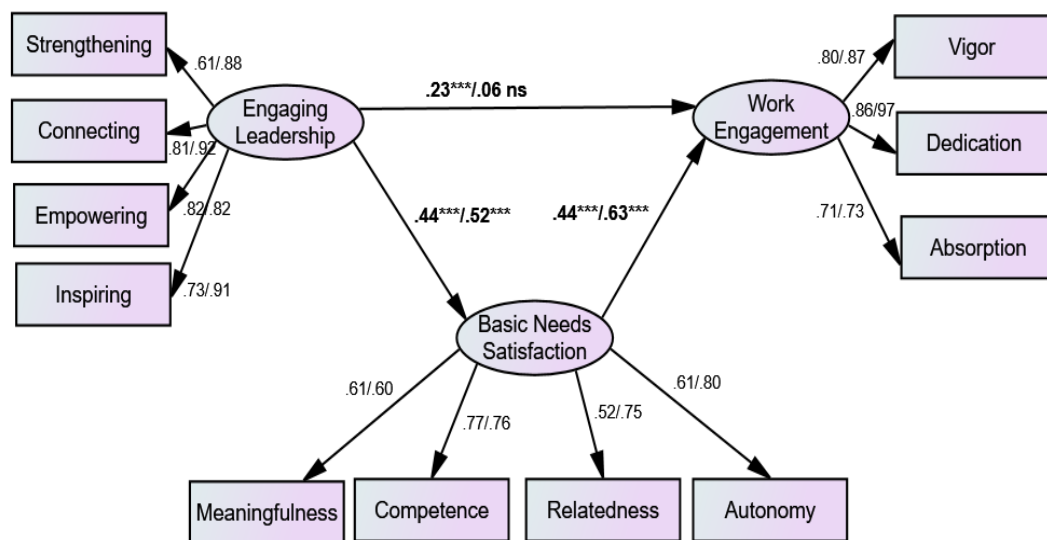
Results of a series of multi-group analyses show that each competing, progressively constrained model fit the data well. Although chi-square difference tests show that constraining structural paths (M2), factor loadings (M3), and both structural paths and factor loadings (M4) to be equal across samples led to statistically significant increases of the chi-square value, the fit of these models remained similar in terms of the other fit indices. Thus, although statistically significant, the differences among the results gathered for the diverse models were actually very small and did not present systematic and meaningful variation.

Furthermore, for research model 1 hypothesis 1a, it was found that there was one insignificant direct path running from engaging leadership to work engagement in the Russian sample ( $\beta = .06$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Additionally, we tested this engaging leadership-work engagement path in both samples using multi-group analysis by constraining this particular path. It was found that the indirect paths connecting engaging leadership and need satisfaction, and need satisfaction and work engagement were significantly stronger in the Russian than in the Indonesian sample ( $\beta = .23/.06$ ,  $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.29$ ,  $p = .038$ ). Although in the Indonesian sample partial mediation was observed, the direct effect of engaging leadership on work engagement was rather weak ( $.23$ ;  $p < .001$ ). Next, constraining the path between engaging leadership and basic need satisfaction yielded a non-significant change in fit for the Indonesian and the Russian sample ( $\beta = .44/.52$ ,  $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.92$ ,  $p = .16$ ). This means this path was similar across countries. Lastly, constraining the path between basic need satisfaction and work engagement yielded a significant change in fit for both samples ( $\beta = .44/.63$ ,  $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.14$ ,  $p = .042$ ). This meant that the path connecting basic need satisfaction and work engagement was stronger in the Russian sample.

The non-equivalent paths between the two countries suggested that other factors might moderate these paths. Hence, the first research model was supported in both countries (see the final model in Figure 1), meaning that basic need satisfaction mediated the engaging leadership and work engagement relationship, even though the strength of the two of these relations were found to slightly differ in magnitude across the countries. Hence, Hypothesis 2a is supported.

The results of testing hypothesis 1b, as depicted in Table 3, show that the alternative research model 2 that distinguishes between the mediation of basic need satisfaction (a latent variable consisting of autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and of the need for meaningfulness also fits the data well. All fit indices meet their respective criteria, and all path coefficients are positive and significant, except the direct path of engaging leadership to work engagement in the Russian sample ( $\beta = .01$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and the path from the need for meaningfulness to work engagement in the Indonesian sample ( $\beta = -.14$ ,  $p > .05$ ). The model that is displayed in figure 2 explains 36 % and 54 % of the variance in work engagement in the Indonesian and Russian sample, respectively.

**Figure 1.**  
**Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement as Mediated by Basic Psychological Need**  
**Satisfaction across Countries**  
**(Indonesia, n= 607 and Russia, n= 384).**



Note: the first coefficient refers to the Indonesian samples and the second to the Russian sample.

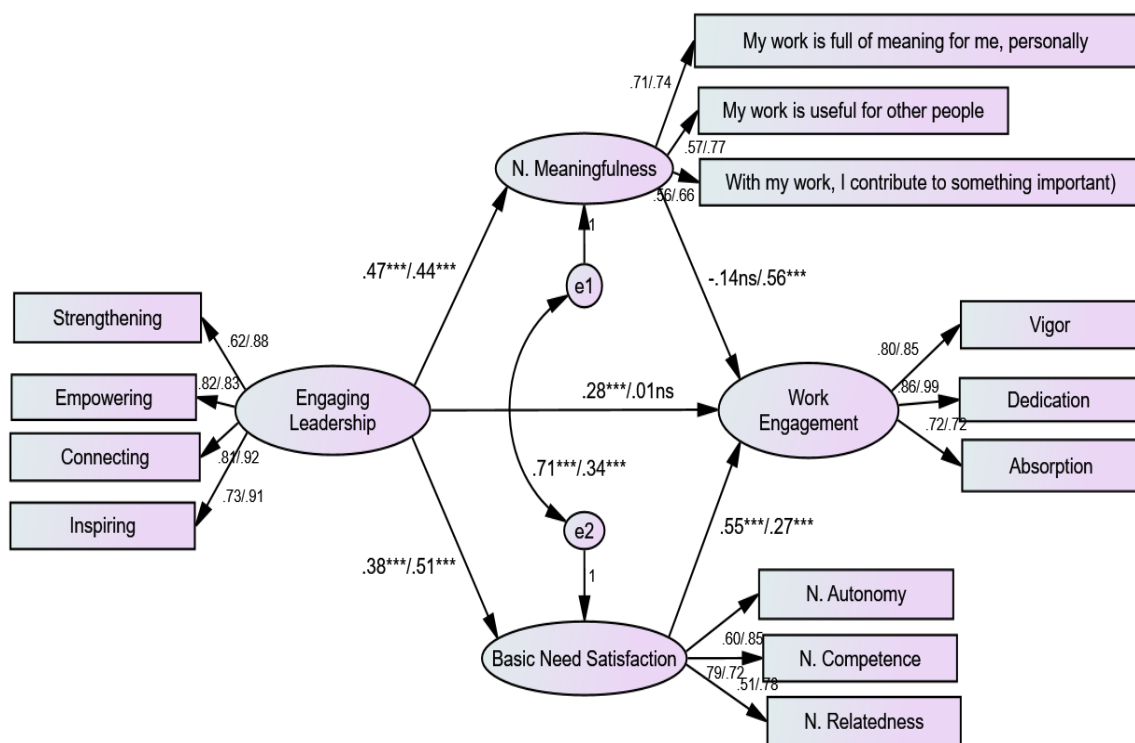
Not surprisingly, basic psychological need satisfaction mediated again the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement in both samples. In the Russian sample, basic psychological need satisfaction fully mediated this relationship, whereas in the Indonesian sample, this relationship was partially mediated as in the previous model. Furthermore, the need for meaningfulness acts as a significant mediator for Russian but not for Indonesian sample. This means that Hypothesis 1b is partially confirmed.

For the alternative research model 2, hypothesis 1b, it was also found that basic need satisfaction mediated the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement, even though, again, the strength of the relations differed slightly in magnitude across both countries. However, interestingly, this model adds new information in that the need for meaningfulness only acts as a mediator in the Russian but not in the Indonesian sample ( $\beta = -.14/.56$ ). Moreover, a high correlation is observed between basic need satisfaction (BNS) and need for meaningfulness in the

Indonesian compared to the Russian sample ( $r = .71$  versus  $r = .34$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 2b is not supported (see figure 2).

To summarize, in both countries the first research model fits the data well, meaning that basic need satisfaction – including the need for meaningfulness – mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement, even though the strength of these relationships slightly differed across both countries. However, when the mediation of the need for meaningfulness was tested separately, different results for both countries were observed; in the Russian sample, this mediation was confirmed, whereas in the Indonesian sample it was not.

**Figure 2.**  
**Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement as Mediated by Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Need for Meaningfulness across Countries (Indonesia,  $n = 607$  and Russia,  $n = 384$ ).**



Note: the first coefficient refers to the Indonesian samples and the second to the Russian sample.

## Discussion

This current study investigated whether the association of engaging leadership with work engagement is mediated by basic psychological need satisfaction. By strengthening, connecting,

empowering, and inspiring, engaging leaders satisfied the needs of their employees namely, the basic psychological need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and another additional need namely need for meaningfulness. Subsequently, basic need satisfaction was, in its turn, positively related to work engagement in terms of vigor, dedication, and absorption. A series of multi-group structural equation modeling analyses provided strong evidence for the validity of the research model that assumed a mediating role of basic need satisfaction in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement.

More specifically, we tested two different models, the first research model includes the need of meaningfulness as a constituting element of basic need satisfaction. The second alternative model assumed that the need for meaningfulness acts as a separate mediator in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement. Across countries, engaging leadership is positively related to work engagement (for model 1;  $\beta = .23/.06$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively, and for model 2;  $\beta = .28/.01$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively), and basic psychological need satisfaction (for model 1;  $\beta = .44/.52$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively and for model 2;  $\beta = .38/.51$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively). Subsequently, basic psychological need satisfaction was positively related to work engagement (for model 1;  $\beta = .44/.63$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively and for model 2;  $\beta = .55/.27$  in Indonesia and Russia, respectively).

These findings are in line with previous studies that investigated the role of basic need satisfaction at work as mediating variable for increasing employee wellbeing, such as work engagement (Deci et al., 2001; Van den Broeck et al., 2008). The fact that the mediation model fits about equally well in two different countries (Indonesia and Russia) with two different occupational samples (blue-collar employees who work in production units in Indonesian state-owned company and white-collar employees who work as civil servants at a Russian government agency) attests its robustness. The cross-national validation of the model strengthens the claim that engaging leadership is associated with basic needs satisfaction, which, in its turn, is related to work engagement.

The invariant structural path connecting engaging leadership with basic need satisfaction confirms the equally important role of engaging leadership for employees' need satisfaction in both countries. Additionally, results of the present study also show some small differences in the magnitude of certain paths, namely the positive relation of engaging leadership and work engagement, and the relation of basic need satisfaction and work engagement. In the Russian sample, work engagement was stronger associated with basic need satisfaction than was the case in the Indonesian sample. In contrast, the association of engaging leadership with work engagement was stronger in the Indonesian than in the Russian sample. These non-equivalent paths suggest that other factors might moderate these paths, such as culture, type of job, or the leader's role.

It seems that basic need satisfaction acts as a mediator variable in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement when the three original SDT needs are involved. However, when treated as an independent mediator, the need for meaningfulness plays a different role in each country. It performs as a mediator in a similar fashion as the other SDT needs in the Russian sample, but not in the Indonesian sample. Instead, the correlation between the latent composite basic need satisfaction factor and the need for meaningfulness is much stronger in the Indonesian than in the Russian sample.

One possible explanation of these differences could be that in the Indonesian sample employees occupy job positions where meaning is inherently linked with the content of the job. In the agricultural industry the meaning and importance of one's work are obvious, namely producing foodstuff; in this case palm oil. In other words, the fulfillment of the need for meaningfulness is more or less taken for granted and therefore it is unlikely to have an effect on work engagement. In contrast, the Russian employees work in an administrative government agency where they complete more abstract tasks, whose meaning might not always be evident for them. In case these employees nevertheless find meaning in their work – and hence satisfy their need for meaningfulness – this is likely to have a positive impact on their level of work engagement. Further research is needed to confirm these speculations about the different role of meaningfulness in different occupational contexts.

To conclude, this study makes two major contributions to the literature. First of all, it confirms Schaufeli's (2015) assumption about the mediating role of basic need satisfaction at work as the underlying mechanism that might explain why engaging leadership might lead to work engagement. Our study shows that this specific leadership style is related to work engagement through the satisfaction of specific psychological needs. Secondly, it appeared that an additional basic need – the need for meaningfulness – plays a similar mediating role, albeit that when this need was studied separately, mediation was only observed in the Russian and not in the Indonesian sample. Perhaps this is due to the differences in occupation rather than the country.

### **Limitations**

This study used a cross-sectional design with self-report questionnaires. This means that no causal inferences can be made. Hence, longitudinal studies should corroborate the cross-sectional results obtained in this study. Furthermore, the use of self-report measures may lead to the occurrence of common method bias such as social desirability. For instance, the measurement of engaging leadership was based on the perception of the followers. In future studies, engaging leadership could be measured inter-subjectively by using 360 degrees assessment. The same applies for work engagement (see Mazetti, Schaufeli, Guglielmi, 2016).

The Indonesian and Russian samples differ in term of participant's gender; all Indonesian participants were males, whereas the majority of Russian participants were females. We used two convenience samples from organizations that operate in different cultures and sectors, which is reflected in their gender composition. It cannot be ruled out that the differences in results between the two samples are due to differences in gender distribution. However, we would like to emphasize that except for the different role of the need for meaningfulness as a separate mediator, results for both samples are rather similar.

The current study investigated engaging leadership, which is a novel construct. However, it cannot be ruled out that existing leadership concepts such as servant leadership or transformational leadership would yield similar results. Hence, in future research, the concurrent validity of engaging leadership vis-à-vis other leadership should be investigated. In fact, this agrees with Bormann and Rowold's (2018) suggestions for the introduction of a new leadership construct, which requires the establishment of its added predictive validity as well as the use of different assessment methods (e.g. self-rated behaviors and peer ratings) in order to avoid the danger of construct proliferation. The current study provides the first step to validate the engaging leadership construct, but it should be followed by future studies on its predictive validity vis-à-vis other leadership constructs as well as multi-method studies.

### **Practical Implications**

This study confirmed that engaging leadership might increase work engagement via basic need satisfaction at work. Leaders, especially supervisors and line managers, need to be aware that employees have such needs that should – at least to some extent – be fulfilled at work, and that they themselves play a role in the fulfillment of those needs. In other words, leaders in organizations need to be aware that they have a crucial role in shaping and nurturing their employees to be engaged and to foster a motivating culture.

As a first step leaders may want to establish and promote an open and trusting team climate in which employees feel free to express their needs and preferences (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007). This would allow leaders to assess to what extent their follower's specific psychological needs are satisfied, and discuss with them in which area this can be improved. Following Fowler's (2018) leadership competencies, which are based on SDT, organizational leaders (and HR professionals) should understand SDT and acknowledge its relevance for leadership, particularly in the one-to-one context. For example, leaders who wish to strengthen their employees have to fulfill their need for competence; hence they should discuss how their knowledge and skills could be increased so that they can master new, challenging tasks. Furthermore, setting employees' learning goals and support pursuing these at work will help them to grow, which will contribute to the

satisfaction of their need for competence, and hence, eventually will boost their work engagement. Thus, it is important for the leaders to continuously check on their employees' level of learning and development, for instance by performing regular developmental feedback.

Human Resources Development (HRD) could assist leaders by initiating programs to train and develop leaders to be engaging leaders that strengthen, connect, inspire and empower their employees. That means that leaders at all levels should focus not only on the achievement of organizational goals but also on the fulfillment of their followers' basic needs. Preparing the skills needed to be engaging leaders is crucial, because leaders may still hesitate to change their old habit in managing employees if they do not have the skill to do so. One of the options to develop engaging leaders by means of leadership coaching (Ely et al., 2010).

However, also, employees should be aware that their well-being at work – at least to some degree – depends on their line manager and supervisor; they should open to the attempts of their leaders to strengthen, connect, empower, and inspire them. For example, by accepting task delegation, learning to use the new technologies, and collaborating with coworkers. In addition, employees might proactively seek satisfaction of their basic needs by, for instance, looking for challenges and opportunities for collaboration with others, and finding meaning at work; in short, by crafting their job in such a way that it matches with their own needs and preferences (Bakker 2010).

In short; it takes two to tango, both leaders and employees should collaborate and jointly build a positive, engaging work environment. This is illustrated by Shuck, Rocco, and Albornoz (2011), who investigated work engagement and its implications for HRD in a large multinational service organization. Based on their empirical work, they formulated two propositions for HRD: (1) environment and person interact to create engagement or disengagement, and (2) an employee's manager plays a critical role in developing engagement. Finally, HR professionals might play a role directly by developing the potential of employees, and hence, by increasing the levels of engagement, as well as indirectly by supporting supervisors to do so.

In this study, we focused on the individual employee's unique experience of work engagement, which can be measured with a short, valid and reliable questionnaire that can be used in the context of HRD to monitor levels of engagement of employees. Similarly, the basic need satisfaction questionnaire can be used to map the level of employees' basic needs satisfaction.



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## CHAPTER 3

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# How Engaging Leaders Foster Employees' Work Engagement<sup>2</sup>

### Introduction

Various leadership styles were found to have a positive relationship with work engagement such as transformational leadership, servant leadership, authentic leadership, ethical leadership (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018), however, none of those leadership styles has been explicitly conceived to increase employees' work engagement. Is there any specific type of leadership that fosters employees' work engagement? In this current study, we answer this question by introducing a novel alternative leadership style, which was developed purposely to stimulate employees to be engaged.

Work engagement, a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002; p.74), is a popular, prominent, and widely recognized positive job-related psychological state, both in business as well as academia. Work engagement has been promoted as a valuable competitive advantage in organizations across multiple levels (Christian, Garza, Slaughter, 2011). The increased number of research and practices on work engagement also boosted the search for its antecedents. Most studies use the Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) to investigate work engagement (Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017) suggesting that the interaction between employees' job demands and resources fosters work engagement. Moreover, in addition to the JD-R model, previous studies emphasized the role of leadership as crucial antecedent for employees' work engagement, such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange (Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011; Vincent-Höper, Muser, & Janneck, 2012; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015).

JD-R model has been criticized for being a descriptive rather than an explanatory framework,

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<sup>2</sup> This chapter has been submitted for publication in *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. Part of this paper has been presented at The 13th European Academy of Occupational Health Psychology Conference, "The role of engaging leadership on work engagement, mediated by job resources and basic psychological need satisfaction", September 6, 2018, ISCTE-IUL Lisbon, Portugal.

meaning that the JD-R model needs other psychological theories to explain and understand the underlying processes involved (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Similarly, previously established broad leadership concepts did not provide a detailed theoretical description of the underlying processes. Meaning that broad leadership concepts cannot sufficiently explain how each of their dimensions for example, is specifically related to work engagement. Regardless of having a specific purpose to foster engagement, the established leadership concepts such as transformational, transactional, and servant leadership also relate to other, broader outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, and so on. Thus, a specific, more narrowly defined leadership style, dubbed as engaging leadership, was introduced (Schaufeli, 2015).

This current study aims to test empirically how engaging leadership, impacts employee's work engagement over time. The JD-R model is used as an overall conceptual framework (Bakker & Demerouti, 2004; 2007; 2017) in which engaging leadership, that is rooted in Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), is integrated. The added value of the current study is that it highlights the validity of the engaging leadership concept as the new, specific, alternative leadership style by showing that it impacts work engagement over time through job resources (as predicted by the JD-R model) and the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (as predicted by SDT).

## **Conceptual Framework**

### **Work Engagement, JD-R, and Leadership**

Work engagement is described as an affective-motivational state where employees feel energetic (vigor), committed and enthusiastic (dedication), and are completely immersed in their work activities (absorption). Nurturing engaged workers is paramount for organizations (Schaufeli, 2012) since engaged workers only the perform well at the individual (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Bakker, 2011) and team level (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012; Salanova, Rodríguez-Sánchez, Schaufeli, & Cifre, 2014), but an engaged workforce also increases business performance (Schneider, Barbera, & Macey, 2009; Schneider, Yost, Kropp, Kind, & Lam, 2018).

The JD-R model, firstly introduced in 2001, is currently the most frequently used conceptual framework in occupational health psychology, particularly for studying work engagement (Bailey, et al, 2017). Essentially, the JD-R model is a heuristic framework that describes how burnout and work engagement may be produced by two specific sets of work characteristics—namely, job demands and job resources (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009). Job demands are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Demerouti

et al., 2001; p. 501). In contrast, job resources are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001; p. 501). Examples of job demands are work overload, emotional job demands, physical demands, work-home conflict, whereas examples of job resources are participation in decision making, social support from colleagues, performance feedback, role clarity, and job control.

According to the JD-R model, work engagement mediates the effects of job resources on positive outcomes (i.e., well-being and performance) as job resources are assumed to have inherent motivational qualities, whereas burn out mediates the effects of job demands (and lacking job resources) on negative outcomes (i.e., health problems) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). The former is called the motivational process, *which is the focus of the current study*, whereas the latter is known as the health impairment process. However, as previously noted, the JD-R model has been criticized for being a descriptive rather than an explanatory framework, meaning that other psychological theories should be used in order to explain and understand the underlying psychological processes (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). For instance, previous studies used Conservation of Resource Theory (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), Social Cognitive Theory (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011), Broaden and Build Theory (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, & Schaufeli, 2011), and Emotional Contagion Theory (Bakker, Westman, & Schaufeli, 2007).

In the current study, we use Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000) for understanding the underlying mechanism that might explain the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement (see below). The first pathway assumes that engaging leadership predicts future work engagement through the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (see below). In addition, we also followed the reasoning of Schaufeli (2015), who integrated leadership into the JD-R model based on the principle that leaders are supposed to provide and allocate job resources of their followers in such a way that they remain healthy, motivated, and productive. Hence the second pathway assumes that engaging leadership predicts future work engagement through increasing follower’s job resources. Thus, taken together, we expect that engaging leaders positively and indirectly influence their employees’ work engagement via job resources and basic need satisfaction.

### **Basic Needs and Engaging Leadership**

The concept of engaging leadership is firmly rooted in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to SDT, basic psychological needs (BNS) are defined as “those nutrimental that must be procured by a living entity to maintain its growth, integrity, and health” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 326). Three



innate psychological needs are postulated in SDT: the need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence; and these needs are considered crucial for the individuals' optimal and healthy functioning (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The need for autonomy is described as the desire to experience a sense of ownership over one's behavior. The need for relatedness is described as the desire to be part of a group and to feel connected with others. And finally, the need for competence is defined as the desire to be effective in dealing with environmental challenges and being capable of achieving desired outcomes. Additionally, a fourth basic need—namely, the need for meaningfulness, is introduced which is described as the desire to perceive one's work as particularly meaningful and significant (Baumeister, 1991; Frankl, 1992). Although the need for meaningfulness has not been identified as a separate basic need by SDT so far, theoretical and empirical arguments have been proposed in its favor (e.g. Andersen, Chen, Carter, 2000; Hadden & Smith, 2019).

Schaufeli (2015) proposed four components of engaging leadership: empowering, connecting, strengthening, and inspiring, which may facilitate the satisfaction of the four employees' basic psychological needs, (i.e., autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaningfulness). It is assumed that by satisfying their basic psychological needs, leaders enhance their employees' levels of engagement. By empowering employees, for instance by giving them the freedom to manage their work and facilitating their voice, engaging leaders satisfy their need for autonomy. By connecting employees, such as by encouraging collaboration and promoting a positive team spirit, engaging leaders satisfy the employees' need for relatedness. By strengthening employees, for example by delegating tasks, engaging leaders satisfy the employees' need for competence. Finally, by inspiring employees, for instance by acknowledging the importance of employees' contribution to the overall goal of the team or organization, engaging leaders satisfy their need for meaningfulness.

By having a sense of autonomy, employees' self-determination is activated because they feel greater freedom to do their work ("I can take my own decisions"), as a consequence, their work goals may be more successfully integrated into the self and thus boost their commitment and enthusiasm of their work (dedication) ("I am proud of my work"). By having the need for competence satisfied, employees experience mastery ("Yes, I can"), which motivates them to invest extra effort in their work and to feel more energetic (vigor) ("I am competent in my work, I cannot wait to start"). By having a sense for relatedness, employees feel comfortable to express themselves in their work team and feel positive towards their social work environment ("I feel at ease in my team"), which make them enjoy their work more (dedication, absorption) ("I am enthusiastic of my job; I am happily engrossed in my work). Finally, by having their need for meaningfulness fulfilled, employees feel that their work is useful and important, not only for themselves but also for their

organization (“I can make a significant contribution”). This fosters a stronger identification with the job, which makes it more difficult to detach from it (dedication, absorption) (“My job inspires me, I am immersed in my work”). Hence, as an overall result, the satisfaction of these basic needs may increase work engagement.

Previous research confirmed – in a cross-cultural setting – the mediating role of basic psychological need satisfaction in the relation between job characteristics and well-being (Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001). It was found that managerial autonomy support was associated with need satisfaction among employees in both the US and Bulgaria and that need satisfaction, in its turn, was associated both task engagement and employee well-being. In a similar vein, research on servant leadership, a concept somewhat similar to engaging leadership, showed that followers’ psychological need satisfaction mediates the influence of this leadership style on work engagement (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). Finally, Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, and Osin (2019) found that indeed, basic psychological need satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement, in both and Indonesian and Russian sample. Although previous research suggests that basic need satisfaction might play as a mediating role, a firm conclusion cannot be drawn yet because all previous studies were cross-sectional in nature.

### **Job Resources and Engaging Leadership**

The more job resources employees can draw upon, the more they are likely to be engaged, as postulated by the motivational process of JD-R model (Halbesleben, 2010). Not only help job resources employees to achieve their work goals, they also stimulate their personal growth and development and boost their wellbeing (Bakker & Demerouti, 2010). Previous – mostly cross-sectional – research found that job resources are positively related to engagement and that these relationships are fairly consistent across various types of resources such as job autonomy, feedback, opportunities for development, rewards and recognition, job variety, and person-role fit (for a meta-analysis see: Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). As far as longitudinal research is concerned, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen (2007) found that baseline levels of job resources (i.e., job control, organization-based self-esteem, management quality) explained between 4% and 10% of additional variance in engagement, after controlling for baseline job demands. (i.e. job insecurity, time demands at work, work-to-family conflict). Furthermore, using a full panel design in a large sample of Finnish dentists, Hakanen, Schaufeli, and Ahola (2008) found that job resources influenced future work engagement which, in turn, predicted organizational commitment. Finally, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen (2008) also found that increases in job resources predict future work engagement, and their results suggested a positive gain spiral in which initial work engagement predicts an

increase in job resources, which, in its turn; increases work engagement, and so on. Thus, it seems that over time, job resources predict work engagement (see also; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; De Lange, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2008, Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou, & Bakker, 2010; Simbula, Guglielmi, & Schaufeli, 2011).

Moreover, leaders play an important role to create a resourceful work environment which indirectly also may influence employees' work engagement and performance (Breevaart et al, 2013; Breevaart, et al, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Leaders provide resources that are instrumental in fulfilling employees' basic needs, which subsequently stimulate their engagement. Van den Broeck et al. (2008) argued and found that the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (partially) mediates the effect of job resources on engagement (vigor). According the Van den Broeck et al. (2008), job resources are inherently motivating because they fulfill basic human needs as stipulated by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Indeed, Van Wingerden, Derks, and Bakker (2018) found that satisfaction of needs plays a crucial role in the relationship between job resources and work engagement. Hence, it can be argued that job resources, which for at least some part depend on the employees' supervisor, and are instrumental in satisfying employees' basic psychological needs (Deci et al., 2001) foster employees' work engagement.

Previous cross-sectional studies found significant relationships between engaging leadership and work engagement through job resources (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova, Schaufeli, & Notelaers, 2019) as well as through basic need satisfaction (Rahmadani et al, 2019). In sum it seems that, engaging leaders also might increase work engagement indirectly through providing job resources as well as fulfilling employees' basic needs. However, the empirical evidence is preliminary as it is based on cross-sectional studies, therefore in this study we use a longitudinal design to test both mediation effects of job resources and basic needs satisfaction, respectively. More particularly, we investigate the role of engaging leadership and job resources in predicting future basic need satisfaction and work engagement.

### **The Current Study**

In this present study, a two-wave longitudinal survey across a one-year time period was conducted among Indonesian employees to investigate the role of engaging leadership, job resources, and basic need satisfaction on work engagement, using a structural equation model. Engaging leadership is included as an extension of the motivational process of the JD-R model, meaning that the synchronous relationship of engaging leadership and job resources at T1 was examined. Moreover, T1-T2 changes in basic need satisfaction and work engagement were

measured as residual scores, which were included in the research model. Building upon the motivational process of JD-R model and SDT, we argue that increasing engaging leadership and increasing job resources may predict employees' future basic need satisfaction, and subsequently, their level of work engagement. More specifically, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1.** T1 Engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement between T1 and T2 via an increase in basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2.

**Hypothesis 2.** T1 Engaging leadership predicts an increase in basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2 via T1 job resources.

**Hypothesis 3.** T1 Job resources predict an increase in work engagement between T1 and T2, via an increase in basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2.

**Hypothesis 4.** T1 Engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement between T1 and T2 via job resources at T1, and via an increase in basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2.

## Method

### Sample and Procedure

This study used a two-wave longitudinal design using data collected in 2017 (T1) and 2018 (T2). 700 employees from several sites of an Indonesian agribusiness holding company were invited to participate in the study. This company is one of the biggest state-owned companies, which operates in the cultivation, production, sale, and export of palm oil and rubber products. The sites are scattered across Sumatra and mostly quite far away from the head office in Medan. All participants were males with 4.6% for the age group less than 30 years old, 20.1% between 31-39 years old, 43.9% between 40-49 years old, and 31.3% aged over 50 years of age. Moreover, 21.6% completed elementary education, 62.9% completed secondary education, 15% had a bachelor's degree, and 0.5% had a master's degree; more than half of the participants (54.4%) had over twenty years of job tenure. It can be concluded that most participants are experienced, blue-collar workers that mostly perform routine tasks on palm oil or rubber plantations.

At T1 and T2, the survey was handed by the distribution officers in a sealed envelope to the respondents of each site during office hours. Participants received a written description of the study along with informed consent in the survey. The surveys were completed in the maximum of two weeks in a sealed envelope and collectively handed to the research assistant in the head office via the distribution officers. Participation was voluntary and the anonymity of the data was guaranteed, by using individually assigned codes for linking data of both waves that were only known to the participants. At T1, 611 employees returned the survey (response rate 87.3%), however, due to incomplete data of 4 employees' 607 cases remained for T1. A one-year time interval was chosen because this was considered long enough for the work environment to change. At T2, 533 out of

607 employees returned the survey in the two-week time survey collection (response rate 87.8%). However, only for 435 participants T2 data could be matched with the previous survey using the assigned code. According to the company records, most drop-out occurred because of turnover, pension, and passing away of respondents. Moreover, due to incomplete data, 23 respondents dropped out, so that finally 412 employees were included for further analysis.

## Measures

Self-reported five-point Likert frequency scales ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) were used except for the basic psychological need satisfaction scale, which ranged from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree). All items were translated from English into Bahasa Indonesia following a double translation procedure (Brislin, 1970).

*Engaging leadership* was measured by means of the 12 items of Engaging Leadership Scale (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani et al., 2019), which assesses four aspects of engaging leadership with three items each; strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring. Sample items are: “My supervisor delegates tasks and responsibilities to team members” (strengthening); “My supervisor encourages collaboration among team members” (connecting); “My supervisor gives team members enough freedom to complete their tasks” (empowering), and; “My supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans” (inspiring). The values of Cronbach’s alpha for engaging leadership at T1 and T2 were .86 and .86 respectively.

*Job Resources* were assessed with eight scales—namely, person-job fit, alignment, value congruence, job control, use of skills, participation in decision making, coworker support and performance feedback (Schaufeli, 2017). Because these scales were used for the first time in Indonesia, an exploratory factor analysis (principal components with varimax rotation) was carried out from which three factors<sup>3</sup> emerged that explained 32, 11, and 8 percent of the variance, respectively.

- a. *Organizational resources*: (1) person-job fit (two items; e.g. “My current job fits well with what I can”), (2) value congruence (one item; “My personal values correspond to those of the organization I work for”), (3) alignment (two items; e.g. “I am familiar with the strategy and policies of my organization”). All five items were included in one scale measuring organizational resources. The values of Cronbach’s alpha for organizational resources at T1 and T2 were .76 and .77, respectively.

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<sup>3</sup> The full factor loading matrix can be obtained upon request by the first author.

- b. *Work-related resources*: (1) use of skills (two items; e.g., “Do you have sufficient opportunities at work to use your skills and abilities?”), (2) participation in decision making (one item: “Can you participate in decision making about work-related issues?”), (3) job control (two items; e.g., “Can you decide when you perform your work?”). All five items were included in one scale measuring work-related resources. The values of Cronbach’s alpha for work-related resources at T1 and T2 were .78 and .78, respectively.
- c. *Social resources*: (1) coworker support (three items; e.g., “My colleagues are open for discussing both personal and business issues?”) and (2) performance feedback (three items; e.g., “Do you hear from others (colleagues, customers) how you do your job?”). All six items were included in one scale measuring social resources. The values of Cronbach’s alpha for social resources at T1 and T2 were .76 and .76, respectively.

*Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction* was assessed regarding the needs for autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaningfulness. The first three psychological needs are based on the adaption of Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (Van den Broeck et. al., 2008). The fourth basic need, meaningfulness, was measured using a self-developed scale (see also Rahmadani et al., 2019). All needs were measured with three items each: autonomy (e.g. “If I could choose, I would do things at work differently”), competence (e.g. “I really master my tasks at my job”), relatedness (e.g. “Some people I work with are close friends of mine”), and meaningfulness (e.g. “My job is meaningful for me, personally”). The values of Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale at T1 and T2 were .79 and .77, respectively.

*Work engagement* was assessed with the 9-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES, Schaufeli et.al, 2006). Previous studies carried out in other (Asian) countries have shown that the UWES has satisfactory psychometric properties (Schaufeli et. al, 2006; Hu et.al, 2014). The UWES assesses three aspects of work engagement; vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items are: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (vigor), “I am proud of the work that I do” (dedication), and, “I get carried away when I’m working” (absorption). The values of Cronbach’s alpha for the UWES at T1 and T2 were .87 and .86, respectively.

## Results

### Preliminary analysis

#### *Drop-out Analysis*

From the 607 respondents who participated at Time 1, 412 completed the survey at T2, hence, 195 respondents dropped out. We tested for selective drop-out regarding age, level of education, and tenure by comparing the scores at T1 of those who filled out the questionnaire twice and those who dropped-out between T1 and T2. No selective drop out was found for age

( $\chi^2(3) = 3.59$ , n.s; level of education ( $\chi^2(3) = 3.59$ , n.s; or tenure ( $\chi^2(3) = 3.59$ , n.s.. But we found that there was a significant difference between the two groups tenure; participants who have been working in the team for less than 5 years and more than 21 years were likely to drop-out (50.3% and 26.7%, respectively).

Moreover, a drop-out analysis was performed using multivariate analysis of variance whether participation at both times versus drop-out was differentiated by study variables (i.e., engaging leadership, organizational-job resources, work-related job resources, social-job resources, basic need satisfaction, and work engagement). The results show there were an overall difference of the mean scores of the study variables between the drop-out group and the non-drop-out group ( $F(6,606) = 8.55$ ,  $p < .05$ , except for organizational job resources ( $F(1,606) = 3.55$ ,  $p > .05$ . Compared to those who dropped out ( $N = 195$ ), those who completed both survey ( $N = 412$ ) had lower scores on engaging leadership ( $M_{\text{dropout}} = 50.94$  versus  $M_{\text{completed}} = 49.95$ ,  $t(605) = -2.32$ ,  $p < .05$ ), work-related job resources ( $M_{\text{dropout}} = 20.34$  versus  $M_{\text{completed}} = 19.05$ ,  $t(605) = -4.48$ ,  $p < .001$ ), basic need satisfaction ( $M_{\text{dropout}} = 23.68$  versus  $M_{\text{completed}} = 22.24$ ,  $t(605) = -2.39$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and work engagement ( $M_{\text{dropout}} = 40.86$  versus  $M_{\text{completed}} = 38.17$ ,  $t(605) = -6.24$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

#### *Change scores*

Next, T1-T2 changes in basic need satisfaction and work engagement were calculated which then, were included in the structural equation model. These change scores were obtained by regressing T2 scores of basic need satisfaction and work engagement on their corresponding T1 scores by using simple regressions. The higher the resulting standardized residual the more work engagement has increased and the more basic needs have been satisfied between T1 and T2.

#### *Measurement model*

Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the measurement model consisting of four correlated latent variables: (1) T1 engaging leadership (a second-order factor represented by its components of strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring which were each represented by their three respective items); (2) T1 job resources (a second-order factor represented by its subscales of organizational, work-related, and social resources which were each represented by their respective items); (3) T1-T2 change in basic need satisfaction (a second-order factor represented by its components of autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaningfulness which were each represented by the standardized residual scores of their three respective items); and (4) T1-T2 change in work engagement at time 2 (a second-order factor represented by its components of vigor, dedication, and absorption, which

were each represented the standardized residual scores of their three respective items). AMOS software (Arbuckle, 1999) with a robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimation was used for all CFA and SEM analyses.

The model fit was examined with the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Furthermore, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Normed Fit Index (NFI); Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) were used. Values of RMSEA close to .06 or below and values of SRMR below .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and values of CFI, NFI, and TLI greater than .90 are considered as indicating good model fit (Hoyle, 1995).

The measurement model fits the data well with all fit indices meeting their respective criteria ( $\chi^2 = 130.82$ ,  $df = 7$ ,  $p = 0.00$ , RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .02, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, NFI = .92, TLI = .95, CFI = .96). Table 1 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and correlations between the study variables.



**Table 1.**  
**Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Correlation Coefficients of the Study Variables.**

No	Variables	Variables										
		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Strengthening T1	3.98	.57									
2	Connecting T1	4.30	.47	.51**								
3	Empowering T1	4.14	.47	.49**	.65**							
4	Inspiring T1	4.24	.47	.43**	.60**	.56**						
5	Organizational-related job resources T1	3.96	.51	.39**	.37**	.34**	.34**					
6	Work-related job resources T1	3.79	.68	.30**	.26**	.28**	.23**	.44**				
7	Social- related job resources T1	3.71	.63	.43**	.35**	.43**	.30**	.42**	.54**			
8	T1-T2 Change in Basic Need Satisfaction	-	.95	.16**	.13**	.18**	.12**	.22**	.14**	.17**		
9	T1-T2 Change in Work Engagement	-	.78	.09*	.14**	.14**	.10*	.04	.09*	.10*	.27**	

Note. The range of scale for all variables are 1-5. \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

## Hypothesis Testing

To test all four mediation hypotheses, the 2000-bootstrapping indirect effect with 95% bias corrected method was performed by using SEM analyses. Bootstrapping is a popular method to test indirect effects (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Moreover, to test the multi mediation of Hypothesis 4, the structural paths were specified ( $\Delta$  EL-JR,  $\Delta$  JR-BNS, and  $\Delta$  BNS-WE) and the estimators were defined. The hypothesized model fits the data well with all fit indices meeting their respective criteria with all path coefficients being positively significant, except the direct path from T1 engaging leadership to the change in work-related basic need satisfaction ( $\beta = .06$ , n.s.), and that of T1 job resources to the change in work engagement ( $\beta = -.09$ , n.s.). The standardized regression coefficients are shown in Figure 1. The model explains 40 % of the variance in job resources, 27% of the variance in the T1-T2 change in basic need satisfaction, and 51 % of the variance in the T1-T2 change in work engagement.

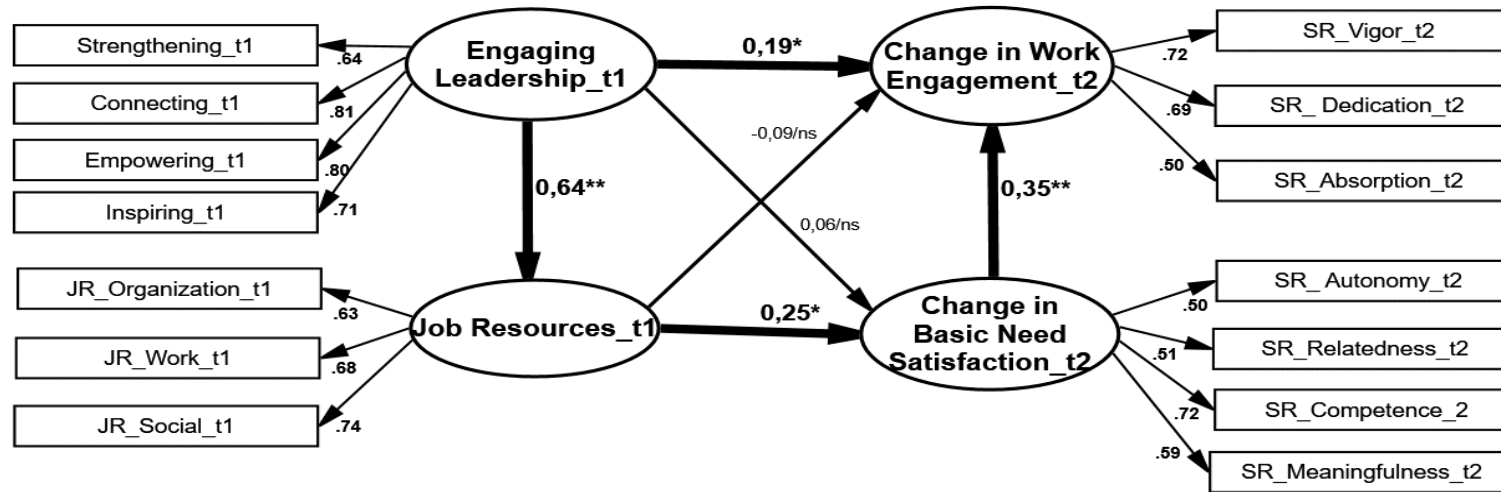
### *Direct and indirect effects of engaging leadership on change in work engagement.*

Engaging leadership predicted an increase in work engagement ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and was positively associated with job resources ( $\beta = .64$ ,  $p < .01$ ). As expected, T1 job resources ( $\beta = .162$ ,  $p < .05$ ) mediated the positive impact of T1 engaging leadership on the increase of basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2 since no significant direct effect was obtained between leadership and basic need satisfaction ( $\beta = .064$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Since EL at T1 does not predict the T1-T2 change in BNS, *Hypothesis 1* (stating that BNS mediates the relationship between EL and WE), *is not confirmed*. However, T1 job resources fully mediate the relationship between T1 EL and the T1-T2 change in BNS, meaning that *Hypothesis 2 is confirmed*.

Furthermore, T1 job resources increase basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2 ( $\beta = .25$ ,  $p < .05$ ), and this change in basic need satisfaction is positively related to- and increase of work engagement between T1 and T2 ( $\beta = .35$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Again, as expected, T1 job resources predict the T1-T2 change in work engagement, as mediated by the T1-T2 change in basic need satisfaction ( $\beta = .087$ ,  $p < .05$ ) as no significant direct effect was obtained between T1 job resources on the T1-T2 change in work engagement ( $\beta = .438$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Hence, the T1-T2 change in basic need satisfaction fully mediates the relationship between T1 job resources and the T1-T2 change in work engagement relationship, meaning that *Hypothesis 3 is confirmed*.

Lastly, T1 engaging leadership increases work engagement between T1 and T2 as mediated by T1 job resources as well as an increase in basic need satisfaction between T1 and T2 ( $\beta = .045$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Since – as noted before – T1 engaging leadership increases work engagement between T1 and T2 ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .05$ ), partial mediation was observed so that *Hypothesis 4 was partly supported*. Comparing the direct and indirect effects of T1 engaging leadership on the T1-T2 change in work engagement, it seems that the direct effect ( $\beta = .19$ ,  $p < .05$ ), has stronger effect than the indirect effect ( $\beta = .045$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Figure 1. The Standardized Path Coefficients of the Mediation Model (N= 412)



## Discussion

The aim of the current study was to illuminate the process by which perceived engaging leadership (EL) results in increased engagement among followers. Based on Self-Determination Theory (SDT), it was hypothesized that BNS mediates the relationship between EL and WE (Hypothesis 1). Moreover, JR mediates the relationship between EL and BNS (Hypothesis 2). Based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model it was hypothesized that BNS mediates the relationship between JR and WE (Hypothesis 3). Most importantly, a sequential mediation was predicted: EL increases WE, via JR and BNS, respectively (Hypothesis 4).

Our results, which are based on a two-wave longitudinal study design, confirm Hypothesis 2 and 3, and partly confirm Hypothesis 4. Taken together these results suggest that engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement across a one-year period both directly as well as indirectly through job resources and subsequent basic needs satisfaction. These results are in line with previous cross-sectional findings that showed that engaging leadership is positively associated with job resources (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova et.al, 2019), that job resources are positively associated with basic needs satisfaction (Van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker, 2018), and that basic needs satisfaction are positively associated with work engagement (Van den Broeck et al, 2008; Rahmadani et al, 2019).

The results are NOT in line with previous findings that indicate that BNS mediates the relationship between EL and WE (Hypothesis 1). The reason is that in this previous study (Rahmadani et al, 2019), JR were not included. In fact, the results of the current study qualify the findings of Rahmadani et al (2019), in the sense that the current study also finds a positive relationship between EL and BNS, albeit that it is mediated by JR. Also, a similar mediated relationship was found between EL and WE, but the mediation was more complex and involved BNS as well as JR. Thus, the current study emphasizes the crucial role of JR, also in relation to BNS.

For the first time, the associations involving basic needs satisfaction have been confirmed using a longitudinal sample. It seems that engaging leaders increase their follower's levels of job resources, which leads to basic needs satisfaction, which, in its turn is associated with an increase in work engagement. Tellingly, the grouping of job resources in three domains – organizational, work, and social – as previously observed by Schaufeli (2017) was replicated in the current study, which adds to its validity.

## Implications

The current study has two theoretical implications. First, building upon the JD-R model and SDT, this research confirms and extends the motivational process of JD-R model in the Indonesian

context by adding engaging leadership as a specific antecedent of work engagement rather than including it as one of the job resources. Previous studies showed that supervisory social support which is included as one of the job resources, is positively related to work engagement (for instance, Seppälä et al. 2015; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). In these studies, employees were asked whether or not their supervisor provide help and support when needed. However, the concept of engaging leadership goes beyond mere social support and also includes other aspects of leadership behavior such as strengthening, empowering and inspiring. We reasoned that one of the leadership roles is to provide and allocate of job resources; in other words, it is the job of the leader to create resourceful jobs for his or her followers (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999).

Our research suggests that such resourceful jobs satisfy the employee's basic needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness and meaningfulness, which, in their turn increase work engagement. Hence, basic needs satisfaction was identified as an underlying mechanism that may explain the positive effect of engaging leadership on work engagement. It seems, however, that the positive impact of engaging leadership on work engagement is not simply mediated by basic needs satisfaction alone but the picture is more complex. Engaged leaders satisfy their follower's basic needs not directly, but indirectly through providing job resources. This result emphasizes the importance of leadership for allocating and increasing job resources.

Second, our research also contributes to our knowledge about leadership and engagement by introducing a specific, narrow leadership concept that is inherently related to work engagement. While the number of studies on engagement is rising, research on leadership and engagement is still relatively scarce, despite the fact that leadership has been identified as a key element in fostering engagement (Shuck & Herd, 2012). In the current study, we showed that engaging leaders who strengthen, empower, connect, and inspire employees have a significant impact on future levels of work engagement of their followers. Previous studies using other positive leadership concepts were also found to be associated with engagement (See DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018), however, virtually no studies investigated the underlying process on the leadership and engagement relationship.

In addition to these theoretical implications, our research also has three practical implications. First, leadership is the key agent for nurturing employees' work engagement. Thus, leaders should be aware of their employees' basic needs, and consider whether employees' can draw upon sufficient job resources in order to satisfy their basic needs, which eventually might increase their engagement. By communication with their followers on a regular basis, leaders should monitor the extent to which their basic needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness and meaningfulness are fulfilled. When this is not the case to a sufficient degree, leaders should supplement the necessary job resources in order to ensure basic needs satisfaction.

Second, leaders, especially direct-supervisors, are well advised to strengthen, empower, connect, and inspire their followers in order to increase their levels of work engagement. These behaviors can be learned through role modeling, coaching, and training. For instance, a recent study found that a leadership development training that was based on the principles of engaging leadership (Van Tuin, Schaufeli, & Van Rhenen, 2019) was successful in reducing the team's sickness absence and increasing objective team performance.

Third, Human Resource Department and leaders may list, map, and monitor various job resources that might help fulfill employees' basic need and provide employees with their desirable job resources (Schaufeli, 2017). Online or offline surveys may be used to identify the stimulating job resources, that might vary from team to team.

### **Limitations**

Some limitations of the current study should be acknowledged. First, all variables were assessed using self-reported questionnaires. Consequently, there is a chance that the responses may suffer from common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, Spector (2006) has argued that the effect of common method variance is often over-estimated in the kind of research we conducted. Besides, we tested if an alternative, one-factor model on which all items were supposed to load would fit the data; the so-called Harman single factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), which is based on confirmatory factor analysis. It appeared that the fit to the data of a single latent factor model was rather poor ( $\chi^2 = 802.45$ ,  $df = 77$ ,  $GFI = .74$ ,  $AGFI = .64$ ,  $CFI = .55$ ,  $TLI = .47$ ,  $RMSEA = .15$ ). Hence, it is unlikely that common method variance might have biased our results. Nevertheless, future research should replicate our findings by using mixed methods and mixed sources of data, for example, using a behavior checklist in determining engaging behaviors by the leaders themselves or using independent raters to observe engaging behaviors shown by the leaders (Robijn, Schaufeli, Deprez, & Euwema, 2019).

Second, selective drop-out is found in this study; those who dropped out scored less favorable on all study variables except organizational job resources, compared to those who did not drop out. Based on company records, most drop-outs either changed their jobs or retired. Closer inspection of the data revealed that most participants who drop-out worked less than 5 years or more than 21 years for the company. It can be speculated that especially those with the less resourceful jobs, who do not have an engaging leader, whose basic needs are not met, and who feel disengaged might have quit their job. This is perhaps more likely among less experienced employees who recently joined the company and felt that their job did not live up to their expectations; or among the older, more experienced workers who felt trapped in a dead-end street.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

According to Carasco-Saul, Kim, and Kim (2015), positive leadership styles may positively affect employee work engagement in the short term, however, the opposite effect may occur in the long run, for instance, because the employees may feel exhausted by having to face challenges continuously. We found a positive effect of engaging leadership across the period of one year, but it cannot be excluded that a longer time-lag might have produced another outcome (i.e., decrease in work engagement). Future research may specifically test the long-term effect of engaging leadership on work engagement.

Moreover, future studies may explore alternative explanations for the positive relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement. DeCuypere and Schaufeli (2018) argued that positive leaders directly influence employee engagement through three pathways: emotional contagion (affective interpersonal pathway), social exchange (cognitive interpersonal pathway), and role modeling (behavioral interpersonal pathway). So, it seems that with our indirect effect (through job resources and basic need satisfaction) we only explained a (small) part of the effect of engaging leadership on work engagement. Hence more research is needed (e.g., on emotional contagion and social exchange).

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## CHAPTER 4

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# Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement as Moderated by “*Diuwongke*”: An Indonesian Study<sup>4</sup>

### Introduction

Work engagement should be one of the organizational leaders' main priorities as it is critical for organizational effectiveness, innovation, and competitiveness, also in Indonesia (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014). One of the antecedents that plays as a key role in increasing employees work engagement is leadership. Whereas transformational leadership might be the most appropriate leadership framework for understanding work engagement (Shuck & Herd, 2012), transformational leadership was heavily criticized because of its lacking theoretical foundation (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Hence, it seems important to develop an alternative, theory-based leadership framework for understanding work engagement. Schaufeli (2015) introduced a specific style of leadership to explain work engagement that is firmly rooted in Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which he dubbed engaging leadership.

The current research investigates engaging leadership and work engagement among employees in Indonesia and demonstrates its concurrent validity vis-à-vis transformational leadership. JD-R model is used as the theoretical framework, and Self-Determination Theory is used as the explanatory theory. Furthermore, a typical, local, Indonesian psychological phenomenon is included to qualify the relationship between leadership and work engagement: *diuwongke*. As will be explained in greater detail below, this is a Javanese-Indonesian concept that refers to treating people with dignity and respect. In sum, the added value of this study is: (1) to illuminate the concurrent validity of engaging leadership and transformational leadership with regard to work engagement; (2) to introduce the indigenous concept of *diuwongke*, which is assumed to play a role in explaining the relationship between leadership and work engagement in Indonesia. Taken together, the study will advance our knowledge of leadership

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<sup>4</sup> This chapter has been submitted for publication to The International Journal of Human Resource Management and is currently under second round review.

and work engagement in a non-western, Indonesian context.

### **Work Engagement**

Work engagement, which is used interchangeably with employee engagement, has become a popular topic in both business and academia because of its positive impact on employees as well as the organization they work for. It was first introduced in the 1980s by the management consulting firm Gallup (Wah, 1999). Later, (Kahn, 1990) introduced the concept in academia and described engaged employees as those who express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally, and mentally during role performance. Thus, when employees are engaged they bring all aspects of themselves—cognitive, emotional, and physical—to their performance. In their seminal, synthetic paper, Macey and Schneider (2008) define engagement as “... a desirable condition [that] has an organizational purpose and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy” (p. 4). However, this definition was criticized for being too broad and acting as an umbrella term for other, similar concepts (Saks, 2008). Similarly, Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) described engagement as a broad construct that “involves a holistic investment of the entire self in terms of cognitive, emotional, and physical energies” (p. 97).

In contrast, Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) described engagement more specifically as “...a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p.74). Here, work engagement is defined as a concept in its own right (Schaufeli, 2013). Vigor refers to high levels of energy and perseverance, dedication to a sense of significance, inspiration, and involvement and absorption to being focused, fully concentrated and engrossed in one’s work. Compared with the previous broad definitions of employee engagement, Schaufeli (2013) argued that work engagement refers to the relationship of the employees with their work, whereas employee engagement may also include the relationship of the employees with their organization. As the consequence, by including the relationship with the organization, the distinction between engagement and traditional concepts such as organizational commitment and extra-role behavior becomes blurred. A recent review (Baily, Madden, Alfes & Fletcher, 2017) estimated that about 88% of all academic research on engagement uses the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), a brief, valid and reliable questionnaire that is based on the definition of work engagement as a combination of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, 2012; Schaufeli, 2013).

By employing engaged workers, organizations may increase not only the performance at the individual and team level, but also at the organization and business unit level (Salanova,

Rodríguez-Sánchez, Schaufeli, & Cifre, 2014; Schaufeli, 2012; Schneider, Barbera, & Macey, 2009; Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012). Employees who feel engaged will fully dedicate themselves to the organization and do their job with great enthusiasm (Markos & Sridevi, 2010); they are intrinsically motivated (Schaufeli, 2012), proactive (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008), and creative (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007), and also healthier and more committed to the organization (Halbesleben, 2010). Work engagement is critically important for organizations' competitive advantage in terms of labor productivity, job satisfaction, low turnover rates, customer satisfaction, loyalty, and profitability (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). In addition to that, research also found that engaged employees display innovative behaviors at work (Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and are more creative (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015).

Furthermore, work engagement is positively related to high financial returns (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), good service quality (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), superior business-unit performance (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002), workplace safety (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011), and business growth (Gorgievski, Moriono, & Bakker, 2012). Moreover, based on a meta-analysis that included over two-hundred studies, work engagement was shown to be related to performance outcomes over and above job attitudes such as job involvement and job satisfaction (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011). Thus, taken together, work engagement is beneficial to employees as well as for the organizations they work for.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) integrated work engagement in the so-called Job Demands-Resources model that assumes that work engagement mediates the impact of job resources and personal resources on personal and organizational outcomes. According to JD-R model, job resources that are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job resources are assumed to have inherent motivational qualities (cf. Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and as such act as antecedents of work engagement. In its turn, as we have seen above, work engagement is associated with a myriad of positive individual and organizational outcomes. In other words, according to the JD-R model, work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between job resources and positive outcomes. This is called the motivational process that will be the focus of the current research. In a similar vein, burnout is mediating the relationship between job demands and negative outcomes, whereby job demands are defined as “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore

associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501).

A resource that is studied in its own right as an antecedent of work engagement is leadership (Schaufeli, 2015). The reason for doing so is that leadership has an impact on other job resources, which, in their turn, drive work engagement. Hence, leaders may positively influence their employees’ work engagement, both directly through the relationship with their followers and indirectly through managing and allocating job resources (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2017).

## Conceptual Framework

### Engaging Leadership

A recent, meta-analysis (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018) shows that various leadership styles are positively related to work engagement, such as ethical leadership ( $k = 9$ ;  $\rho = .58$ ), transformational leadership ( $k = 36$ ;  $\rho = .46$ ), servant leadership ( $k=3$ ;  $\rho = .43$ ), authentic leadership ( $k = 17$ ;  $\rho = .38$ ), and empowering leadership ( $k = 4$ ;  $\rho = .35$ ). Notably, ethical leadership and transformational leadership have the highest correlations with work engagement. In addition, transformational leadership also appears to be the most often investigated leadership style; in fact, transformational leadership was used in over half of the studies that were included in the meta-analysis. This is not surprising since transformational leadership is arguably the most popular leadership concept of the last decades (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational leaders provide a favorable work environment to their followers (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006) by communicating meaning and vision which guides and motivates their followers (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000). Furthermore, transformational leaders also support and empower followers and provide them with positive feedback and recognition (Carless et al., 2000), thereby initiating a motivational process that leads to work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014). Finally, transformational leaders lead by example, presenting themselves as the role model to their followers, and inspire them with their charisma, and hence increase their motivation (Carless et al., 2000). Given the supportive work environment aforementioned before, it is likely that followers of these leaders feel invigorated and dedicated, and are immersed in their work; in short, that they are engaged.

However, the concept of transformational leadership has been heavily criticized, amongst others because it lacks theoretical underpinnings (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Because of the problems that surround the transformational leadership concept, some authors applied a similar, alternative leadership concept to work engagement and labeled it engaging (transformational) leadership (Breevaart et al., 2015; Beverly Alimo-Metcalfe, et.al, 2008).



However, the theoretical basis of the underlying mechanism on how this leadership style affects work engagement remains unclear. Triggered by this unsatisfactory theoretical foundation of transformational leadership and by the view – particularly in business – that ‘leadership’ is crucial for work engagement, Schaufeli (2015) developed the concept of engaging leadership that is rooted in Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The basic tenet of engaging leadership is that engaging leaders fulfill employees’ basic psychological needs, which, in their turn, foster work engagement. According to SDT basic psychological needs are defined as “those nutriments that must be procured by a living entity to maintain its growth, integrity, and health” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 326). Three basic psychological needs are distinguished; the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The need for autonomy is defined as the individuals’ desire to experience a sense of ownership over his or her own behavior. The need for relatedness is defined as the individuals’ desire to be member and part of a group and to feel connected with others. Finally, the need for competence is defined as the individuals’ inherent desire to be effective in dealing with environmental challenges and being capable of achieving desired outcomes. In addition, a fourth basic psychological need was added—namely, the need for meaningfulness (Baumeister, 1991; Frankl, 1992), which is defined as the individuals’ inherent desire to be engaged in activities that are useful, important, significant, and are in line with his or her personal values (Schaufeli, 2015).

As indicated above, the concept of engaging leadership is ingrained in SDT and supports that employees will thrive when their basic psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaningfulness are satisfied. Engaging leaders fulfill the basic psychological needs of their employees by performing certain leadership behaviors: strengthening, empowering, connecting, and inspiring (Schaufeli, 2015). By empowering employees, for instance by giving them voice, they will feel autonomous (I can make my own decisions). Thus, engaging leaders satisfy their follower’s need for autonomy. By strengthening employees, for instance through delegating tasks and responsibilities and providing challenging jobs, they will feel more competent after fulfilling their tasks (I can do it). Thus, engaging leaders satisfy their follower’s need for competence. By connecting employees with others in their team to encourage collaboration and interpersonal bonding, they will feel a strong sense of togetherness (I am part of this team and feel comfortable in this team). Thus, engaging leaders satisfy their follower’s need for relatedness. And finally, by inspiring employees, engaging leaders acknowledge their personal contribution to the significant overall goal of the team or organization, they will feel that what they are doing is meaningful and important (I

contribute to something important in this team). Hence, engaging leaders satisfy their follower's need for meaningfulness.

In sum, the key to moving employees towards full engagement is the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs by creating opportunities for need satisfaction (Meyer, Gagné, & Parfyonova, 2012). Preliminary evidence from a study among 361 South African miners suggests that, indeed, the satisfaction of basic psychological needs mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement (De Beer & Schaufeli, 2018). In addition, the study of Schaufeli (2015) suggests that engaging leaders increase levels of job resources which, in their turn, are positively associated with work engagement.

To conclude this argument, the first objective of the present study is to relate the novel concept of engaging leadership to work engagement in an Indonesian sample and demonstrate its concurrent validity vis-à-vis the established notion of transformational leadership. Since engaging leadership is at the conceptually more intimately linked to work engagement than transformational leadership, we expect that the association with work engagement is stronger for the former type of leadership as compared to the latter. Hence, we formulate:

**Hypothesis 1a:** Transformational leadership and engaging leadership are both positively related to work engagement.

**Hypothesis 1b:** Engaging leadership is stronger related to work engagement than transformational leadership.

### *Diuwongke*

Since the current study has been carried out in Indonesia, the moderating effect of *diuwongke* is investigated, a specific, indigenous interpersonal Javanese-Indonesian concept. This refers to being treated kind and humanly, meaning that the person feels respected, that his or her presence is recognized, opinion heard and contribution considered. In essence, it signifies that the person is allowed to participate in decision making even though (s)he has less power in the social interaction. The meaning of *diuwongke* can also be inferred linguistically. *Uwong* in Javanese language or *orang* in Bahasa Indonesia literally means *man/human*. Combined with passive voice *di-kan/ke* (Javanese/Bahasa Indonesia), *di-uwong-ke* literally means 'to be treated as human'. In Javanese-Indonesian culture, people feel safe and happy when they experience a sense of humanness, that is, when they feel treated as human in society (*diuwongke*), as shown empirically by Prasetyo (2016).

Indonesian people want to be treated humanely (*diuwongke*), otherwise they lose their dignity and do not consider themselves a respectable person (Prasetyo, 2016). However, not all

people receive appropriate respect and recognition, especially when they have low social status or lack power. Social status is important in the cultural context of Indonesia, which is characterized by high power-distance, where people accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1984). In the traditional, feudalistic and hierarchical social structure of Indonesia, people with low status and power (who are mostly poor) have to ask for approval from the authorities for any actions they want to initiate; for example, to solve work problems on their own or to change the way they of working. When authorities provide support to low-status persons, they feel *diuwongke* (treated as a human), as illustrated by Setiawan (1998). Moreover, such persons need a patron to provide security and support (Setiawan, 1998). A newspaper report might illustrate this point: a woman-farmer stated that when society or people with higher status and power make farmers feel *diuwongke*, they will be more daring to give their opinion, feel more confident, and it would increase their dignity (Gultom, 2015).

Tellingly, according to the website of one of Indonesia's leading companies, PT Astra International Tbk., *diuwongke* is considered as one of the core organizational values which translates into respect for employees and the promotion of teamwork (see: [www.astra.co.id](http://www.astra.co.id)). Furthermore, Jacob Oetama, awarded the best Indonesian CEO of 2003, led his company by promoting *diuwongke* (Soelaeman, 2017). In interviews, his employees describe him as a leader who always gives them attention and takes care of them. For instance, when one of his employees' family members was very sick, he paid the family a visit. He also greets all employees and interacts with them, no matter their position in the organization. Another famous Indonesian leader who practices *diuwongke* is Jokowi, the current president of Indonesia. When leading the city of Solo as a mayor in his former job, he reached out to speak with his citizens, listen to their problems and discussed with them how the public services operated. He even invited street vendors for lunch at his house to talk with them, which made these people feel *diuwongke* (Yudha, 2014). It is said that Jokowi's leadership style is a breakthrough in public policy implementation by considering the essential aspects of humanity, or *diuwongke* (Sanusi, 2017).

Although clearly unique and embedded in Indonesian culture the concept of *diuwongke* shows some overlap with western concepts such as psychological safety, distributive justice and trust. For instance, psychological safety is defined as the shared belief that the team is safe for interpersonal risk-taking (Edmondson, 2002). In psychologically safe teams, team members feel accepted and respected because they feel free to speak up and act without being judged by their team. In a similar vein, *diuwongke* refers to feeling accepted and respected as a result of being treated humanely and with courtesy. However, in *diuwongke* this is particularly linked

with those higher in power and social status, whereas in psychological safety this status aspect does not play a significant role.

Distributive justice is defined as the perception of being accepted and fairly treated when it comes to the distribution of resources among group members (Tyler, 1994). The *diuwongke* concept seems more general and fundamental, as it goes beyond the mere distribution of resources and entails a more basic feeling of being treated according to deeply rooted values of humanness.

Another concept that seems closely related to, and yet distinct from, *diuwongke* is trust. This is defined as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust only exists if leadership is aligned with organizational values, treats employees fairly, and does not exploit them (Mayer, et al., 1995). Based on this description, it seems that both in *diuwongke* and trust values lie at the core of employee-leaders interaction. However, trust is a more complex concept, which includes several dimensions, such as competence, ability, and character (benevolence, integrity). In order to be trusted leaders must be able to demonstrate their ability and competence to lead, and show integrity and benevolence toward employees (Bligh & Emerson, 2017; Mayer et al., 1995).

In contrast, *diuwongke* is more straightforward as it refers to leaders who act according to the basic values of humanness. It is perhaps more similar to what scholars in social psychology mean by affective trust rather than cognitive or behavioral trust (Johnson & Grayson, 2005; Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Furthermore, it seems that in contrast to *diuwongke* trust implies reciprocity. Employees will experience affective trust in their leaders based on reciprocity or a mutual relationship (past and present time) and judge whether the superiors' behaviors can be trusted (in the future). In contrast, employees may feel *diuwongke* whenever leaders treat them humanely, irrespective of the presence of absence or a reciprocal relationship.

Taken together, psychological safety, distributive justice and trust, are psychological indicators of the quality of the relation of employees with their supervisor and the others in the organization. All these concepts are based on the employees' evaluation their leaders' and team members' behaviors. In contrast, *diuwongke* is more a basic indicator of relationship quality that is based on fundamental values of humanness. Hence, *diuwongke* is expected to play a key role in creating and maintaining positive relationships between employees and leaders in the Indonesian work context.

***Diuwongke* as Moderator of Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement.**

In the current study, we expect that the relation between engaging leadership and work engagement will differ with different levels of *diuwongke*, as experienced by employees. To the best of our knowledge, no studies exist on the role that leadership and *diuwongke* play in employee well-being. However, some studies show the importance of followers' feeling valued by their leader (Hamstra, Sassenberg, Van Yperen, & Wisse, 2014). Akin to *diuwongke* this is can be seen as an indicator of a good quality relationship with the leader and is likely enhance employees' well-being and prevent stress.

When employees are treated with dignity and respect, and feel valued for their contributions, instead of merely being treated as a job holder, they are likely to feel a sense of self-worth and shall be more willing to put an effort in their job and contribute to their organization. In combination with leaders' behaviors that are strengthening, connecting, empowering and inspiring, higher levels of *diuwongke* are likely to increase work engagement. Employees will feel energized and are willing to invest extra energy, attention, and time in their work when their supervisors fulfill their basic needs, and when they *simultaneously* treat them kind and humanely. Employee's levels of work engagement are boosted when their basic needs are fulfilled *and* when they feel valued as humans by their leaders. In contrast, when supervisors only focus on basic need satisfaction in an attempt to merely 'motivate' their employees but fail to treat them with a deeper sense of kindness and humanity, their impact on work engagement is likely be less strong.

A similar moderating effect as we expect for *diuwongke*, was found for psychological safety (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2016), trust in the supervisor (Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015), and distributive justice (Rice, Fieger, Rice, Martin, & Knox, 2017). That is, leadership had a stronger effect on employee well-being when employees experienced safety, trust, and justice as compared to the situation where this was less or absent. In sum, the positive and secure relationship that the employees have with their leader (*diuwongke*) reinforces the effect of engaging leadership on work engagement. In contrast, the association between engaging leadership and work engagement will be less strong when a lower level of *diuwongke* is experienced. Hence, we formulate:

**Hypothesis 2a:** *Diuwongke* moderates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement in the sense that higher levels of *diuwongke* strengthen this relationship.

Following the same reasoning as above, it is also expected that *diuwongke* moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. However, since it

is assumed (Hypotheses 1b) that the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement is less strong than it is for engaging leadership, the moderator effect of *diuwongke* is also less likely to occur. As noted before, the rationale behind the weaker relationship of transformational leadership with work engagement is that at conceptual level engaging leadership is more intimately and inherently linked to work engagement than transformational leadership. So finally, we formulate:

**Hypothesis 2b:** *Diuwongke* moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement in the sense that higher levels of *diuwongke* strengthen this relationship, albeit that this effect will be less strong than in case of engaging leadership (Hypothesis 2a).

## Method

### Procedure

Permission was officially granted by the company and 700 participants who worked at plantation sites in North Sumatra were joined the research based on their convenient accessibility. The surveys were handed in sealed envelopes and distributed to the participants. Participants received a written description of the study along with an informed consent of the survey. The surveys were completed during the working hours of the participants and they, then, gave the completed survey back in a sealed envelope to the HR Department collectively per unit, within maximum of two weeks. Participation in the study was voluntary, and the participants' responses were confidential. The whole data collection process took three months, from April to June 2017.

### Participants

Participants in this study were 607 employees from a state-owned agribusiness company in Indonesia, which operates in the cultivation of palm oil and rubber, and the production, sale, and export of palm oil and rubber products. From 700 selected employees, 611 returned the survey (response rate 87.3 percent); four surveys could not be used for further analyses because they were not filled-out completely. All participants were men; their mean age was 44.6 years ( $SD=7.7$ ); 23.2 percent completed elementary education, 59.6 percent completed secondary education, .2 percent completed professional higher education, 16.5 percent completed a bachelor degree, and .5 percent completed a master degree; more than half of the participants (56.5 percent) had over twenty years of job tenure.

## Measurements

Four self-reported scales were used to measure work engagement, engaging leadership, transformational leadership, and *diuwongke*, respectively. All items were translated from English into Bahasa Indonesia following the double translation procedure as recommended by Brislin (1970).

### *Work engagement*

Work engagement was assessed with the 9-item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES, Schaufeli et.al, 2006). Previous studies carried out in other countries have shown that the UWES has satisfactory psychometric properties (Schaufeli, 2012). The UWES assesses the three core dimensions of work engagement—namely, vigor, dedication, and absorption. Each item of vigor (e.g. “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”), dedication (e.g. “I am proud of the work that I do”), and absorption (e.g. “I get carried away when I’m working”) is rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with higher scores indicating higher levels of employees’ work engagement.

A confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on the data of the current study revealed a good fit of the hypothesized three-factor structure (vigor, dedication, and absorption);  $\chi^2 = 84.58$ ,  $df = 21$ ,  $p < .01$ ; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .96, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .95, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .97, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .07. However, the three factors correlated highly ( $.85 < r < .99$ ), and therefore, and following the recommendation of Schaufeli et al. (2006), a single composite work engagement score was used in the present study. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale was .87.

### *Engaging leadership*

The 12-item Engaging Leadership scale assesses the four core dimensions of engaging leadership—namely, strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring with 3 items each. Each item of strengthening (e.g. “My supervisor delegates tasks and responsibilities to team members”), connecting (e.g. “My supervisor encourages collaboration among team members”), empowering (e.g. “My supervisor gives team members enough freedom and responsibility to complete their tasks”), and inspiring (e.g. “My supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans”) is rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with higher scores indicating higher levels of supervisor’s engaging leadership as perceived by their followers.

A confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on the data of the current study revealed a good

fit of the hypothesized four-factor structure;  $\chi^2 = 222.99$ ,  $df = 47$ ,  $p < .01$ ; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .92, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .91, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .94, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .08. However, the four factors were correlated highly ( $.63 < r < .83$ ), and therefore, and following the recommendation of Schaufeli (2015), a single composite engaging leadership score was used in the present study. The value of Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .86.

### *Transformational leadership*

Transformational leadership was assessed with the 7-item Global Transformational Leadership (GTL) scale (Carless et al., 2000). Each item of the Global TFL scale (e.g. "My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future") is rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with higher scores indicating higher levels of supervisor's transformational leadership perceived by the employees. A confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on the data of the current study revealed a good fit of the single factor model;  $\chi^2 = 40.79$ ,  $df = 13$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.98, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .98, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .99, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .05. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was .89.

### *Diuwongke*

Since the *diuwongke* scale was self-constructed and first tested in this study, an exploratory factor analysis was performed on the construct of *diuwongke* (maximum likelihood analysis, varimax rotation with extraction of factors with an eigenvalue higher than 1.00 and a cut-off criterion for factor loadings of .40) and showed one underlying component. Based upon the scree plot and communalities, it was chosen to retain one factor. The 10 items assessed a wide range of employee's perceptions of being treated 'as a human' by his leader (for the 10 item details see table 1 below). Each item of *diuwongke*, is rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree), with higher scores indicating higher levels of employees' *diuwongke*.

A confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on the data of the current study revealed a good fit ( $\chi^2 = 152.76$ ,  $df = 33$ ,  $p < .01$ ; SRMR= .018, NFI= .93, TLI= .93, CFI= .95, RMSEA= .07) by allowing two errors for the items "My supervisor treats me with respect" and "I feel my presence is recognized", "I feel my presence is recognized" and "My opinions are being heard by my supervisor" to correlate because of their overlapping item content. All of the 10 items had high factor loadings between .53 and .70. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was .87.



**Table 1.**  
**The Development of “*Diuwongke*” Scale.**

Item	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	KMO MSA	Eigen values	PCA/ Varimax	CFA SFL > 0.5	Result
My supervisor treats me with respect.	4,24	.585	.858	.913 <sup>a</sup>	4.759	.638	.69	Valid
I feel included and involved by my supervisor.	4,21	.602	.857	.923 <sup>a</sup>	.896	.711	.70	Valid
I feel my presence is recognized and appreciated by my supervisor.	4,21	.637	.857	.922 <sup>a</sup>	.846	.693	.53	Valid
I feel I am being valued as a human being by my supervisor.	4,31	.634	.854	.907 <sup>a</sup>	.634	.745	.65	Valid
My supervisor cares about me as a person.	3,99	.831	.860	.905 <sup>a</sup>	.605	.752	.63	Valid
My opinions are being heard by my supervisor.	4,02	.608	.857	.932 <sup>a</sup>	.506	.492	.58	Valid
I like the way my supervisor greets me even though I am his/her subordinate	4,32	.620	.857	.925 <sup>a</sup>	.498	.795	.69	Valid
I can talk about my personal problem to my supervisor	3,78	.910	.867	.894 <sup>a</sup>	.452	.777	.64	Valid
My supervisor tends to ignore me (R)	4,31	.564	.855	.908 <sup>a</sup>	.410	.759	.68	Valid
When I made a mistake, my supervisor makes me feel stupid and useless (R)	4,16	.718	.852	.907 <sup>a</sup>	.393	.708	.66	Valid

## Results

### Preliminary analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the measurement model consisting of four correlated latent variables: engaging leadership (a second-order factor represented by its components of strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring, which were each represented by their three corresponding items), transformational leadership (a first order factor represented by its seven corresponding items), work engagement (a second order factor represented by its components of vigor, dedication, and absorption, which were each represented by their three corresponding items). The measurement model showed a good fit with the data ( $\chi^2 = 793.62$ ,  $df = 246$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $RMSEA = .06$ ;  $SRMR = .02$ ,  $CFI = .92$ ;  $TLI = .91$ ).

### Descriptive Statistics

Data was analyzed using SPSS version 21. Table 1 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, and correlations between the study variables. As expected, all the variables were positively correlated with one another.

**Table 2.**  
**Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Correlation Coefficients and Cronbach's  $\alpha$**   
**(diagonal) of the Study Variables (N=607).**

Variables	M	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.
1. Engaging Leadership	4.19	.41	.86			
2. Transformational Leadership	4.35	.58	.64**	.89		
3. <i>Diuwongke</i>	4.19	.46	.71**	.49**	.87	
4. Work Engagement	4.34	.57	.39**	.38**	.46**	.87

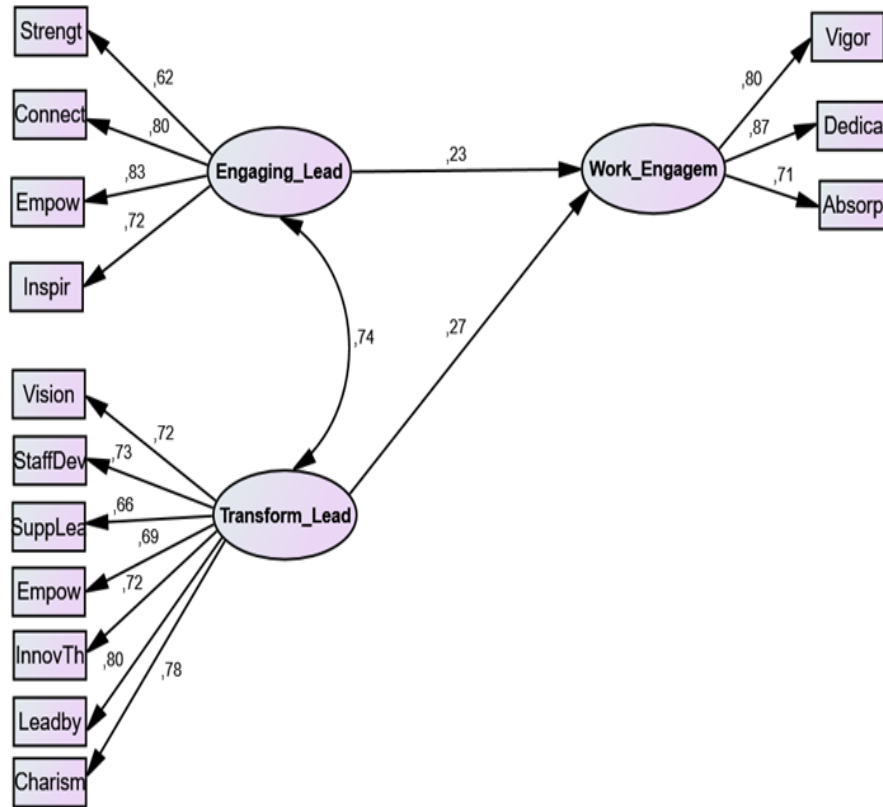
\*\*p < .01 (1-tailed).

As shown above, engaging leadership and transformational leadership were similarly positively correlated with work engagement. Moreover, *diuwongke* is higher correlated with engaging leadership than with transformational leadership.

### Testing of Hypotheses

Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS was conducted in order to simultaneously investigate the associations of engaging and transformational leadership with work engagement (Hypothesis 1a & 1b). Furthermore, Model 1 of the SPSS PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2017) was used to test the moderation effect of *diuwongke* in the relationship between engaging/transformational leadership and work engagement (Hypothesis 2a and 2b). A structural equation model was fitted to the data that assumed that a latent engaging leadership factor (with four indicators: strengthening, connecting, empowering and inspiring leadership) and a latent transformational leadership factor (with all items scale items as indicators) are simultaneously correlated with a latent work engagement factor (with three indicators: vigor, dedication, and absorption). This model showed a good fit with the data ( $\chi^2 = 244,1$ ,  $df = 74$ ,  $p < .001$ ; NFI = .94, TLI = .95, CFI = .96; RMSEA = .06). All three relative fit indices (NFI, TLI, and CFI) exceed their criterion of .90 (.94, .95, .96 respectively) and the value of RMSEA is 0.06, which is lower than the criterion .08. As can be seen from Figure 1, both engaging leadership and transformational leadership are positively and significantly correlated with work engagement (Hypothesis 1a confirmed). However, contrary to expectations engaging leadership ( $\gamma = .23$ ) is *not* stronger associated with work engagement than transformational leadership ( $\gamma = .27$ ). In fact, both leadership styles are similarly associated with work engagement, so that Hypotheses 1b is not confirmed. Furthermore, engaging leadership and transformational leadership show considerable overlap ( $r = .74$ ).

**Figure 1.**  
**Structural Equation Model of The Associations of Engaging and Transformational Leadership with Work Engagement.**



#### *Diuwongke as Moderator*

As shown in Table 2, two significant main effects of *diuwongke* and engaging leadership on work engagement were observed. A regression coefficient of .44 for *diuwongke*, means that for every 1 unit increase in *diuwongke*, there will be .44 unit increase in work engagement. Similarly, for every 1 unit increase in engaging leadership there will be .18 unit increase in work engagement. But more importantly, and as expected, *diuwongke* moderates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement, as indicated by the significant interaction term. Hence Hypothesis 2a is confirmed.

**Table 3.**  
**Moderation of *Diuwongke* of the Relationship between Engaging Leadership and Work Engagement (N=607).**

Variables	B	SE	T	p
Constant	4.34	.02	189.82	.00***
<i>Diuwongke</i>	.44	.08	5.47	.00***
Engaging Leadership	.18	.08	2.19	.03*
<i>Diuwongke</i> * Engaging Leadership	-.25	.09	-2.83	.00**

$R^2 = .23$

$F(3,603) = 47.33, p < 0.01***, p < .01**, p < .05*$

We then computed separate regression lines for employees with high *diuwongke* (1 SD above the mean), average *diuwongke*, and low *diuwongke* (1 SD below the mean) and plotted these (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2.**  
**Interaction Plot of Work Engagement as a Function of Engaging Leadership for Low (-1SD), Average, and High (+1SD) Levels of *Diuwongke*.**

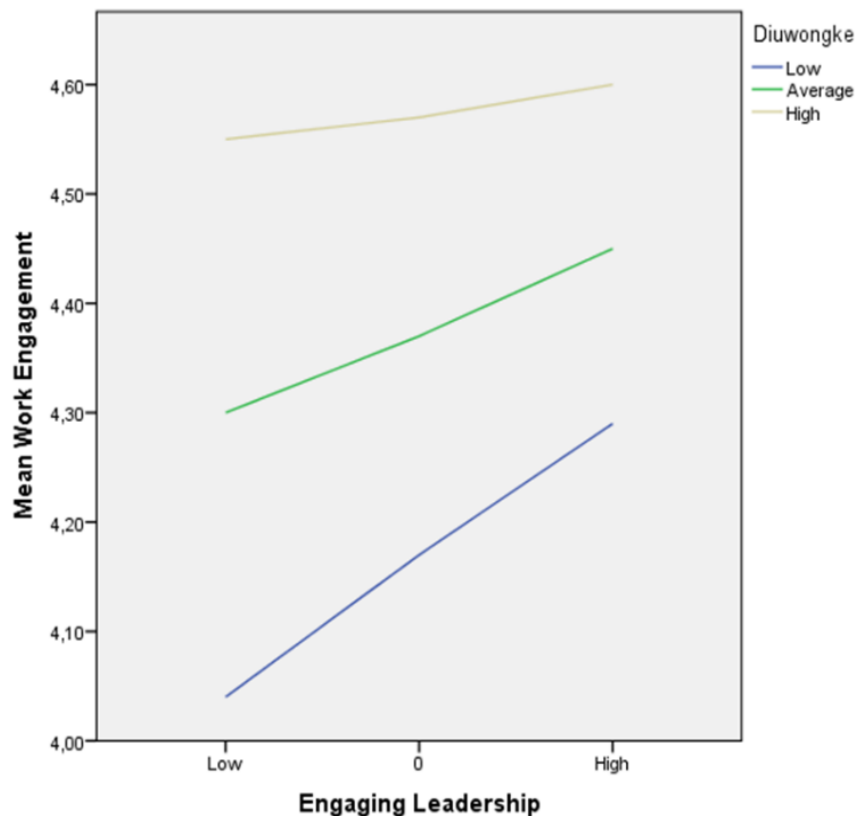


Figure 2 displays the interaction between engaging leadership in the prediction of work engagement. The figure illustrates that *diuwongke* moderates the association between engaging leadership and work engagement in such a way that engaging leadership is positively associated with work engagement for low and average levels of *diuwongke*, and it is not associated with engagement for a high level of *diuwongke*. This finding partly supports Hypothesis 2a. A similar moderation analyses was carried out for transformational leadership. However, the result of this analysis did not show a significant moderation effect of *diuwongke* (see Table 3);  $b = -.07$ ,  $t(603) = -.98$ ,  $p = .33$ . Hence it is concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement is *not* moderated by *diuwongke* (Hypothesis 2b not supported).

**Table 4.**  
**Moderation of *Diuwongke* of the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Work Engagement ( $N=607$ ).**

Variables	B	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	4.35	.02	180.66	.00***
<i>Diuwongke</i>	.45	.07	6.55	.00***
Transformational Leadership	.19	.05	4.35	.00***
<i>Diuwongke</i> * Transformational Leadership	-.07	.07	-.98	.33
$R^2 = .25$				
$F(3,603) = 65.29$ , $p < .001$				

### Discussion

This study investigated the association, among Indonesian employees, between engaging and transformational leadership on the one hand, and work engagement on the other hand. Furthermore, the moderating effect of a specific indigenous Indonesian concept, called *diuwongke*, was examined. A structural equation modeling revealed that both engaging leadership and transformational leadership are positively and similarly correlated with work engagement with  $\gamma$ 's of .23 and .27, respectively, thereby confirming Hypothesis 1a. However, against expectations, engaging leadership is not stronger associated with work engagement than transformational leadership, so that Hypothesis 1b was not confirmed. Tellingly, both leadership styles were highly correlated, sharing 55% of their variance. Taken together, it seems

that transformational and engaging leadership show considerable overlap and each of them explains a roughly similar sized, unique proportion of variance in work engagement.

Our results are in line with previous research, that showed that both transformational and engaging leadership have a positive correlation with work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014; De Beer & Schaufeli, 2018; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Both types of leadership promote a positive work environment by giving support and feedback, and by empowering and inspiring with a clear vision. This increases employee motivation and spurs work engagement. Also, a recent meta-analysis (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018) shows that various positive leadership styles are positively related to work engagement, not only transformational leadership but also authentic, servant, ethical and empowering leadership.

However, our study was the first to include two different positive leadership styles *simultaneously*. Our results indicate that considerable overlap exists, but also that to some extent engaging and transformational leadership are complementary. Inspirational motivation and individualized consideration as elements of transformational leadership increase engagement in ways that are similar to inspiring and strengthening as elements of engaging leadership (Soane, 2014). Seen from this perspective it is not surprising that we observed considerable overlap between transformational and engaging leadership; they include partly the same elements. However, both leadership styles also differ in the sense that transformational leadership does not include connecting employees, whereas engaging leadership does not include idealized influence (Schaufeli, 2015). Hence, each leadership style also includes a unique element, which explains that both styles contribute independently to explaining variance in work engagement.

Future studies could explore the unique contributions of other positive leadership styles such as *ethical* leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005, which focuses on normative behavior, *servant* leadership (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014), which focuses on being altruistic as a leader and attuned to the needs and development of employees, *authentic* leadership (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010), which focuses on being self-aware and authentic, and *empowering* leadership (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), which focuses on empowering employees. Relating each of these leadership styles simultaneously with engaging leadership to work engagement would identify their unique contribution. Based on this information it can be concluded whether or not the novel concept of engaging leadership is worthwhile pursuing. For the time being it seems that engaging leadership matters for work engagement, over and above transformational leadership, and vice versa.

The second hypothesis of our study specifies under which circumstances leadership is associated with work engagement. In that context a specific, indigenous Javanese-Indonesian moderating variable is introduced—namely, *diuwongke*. The hypothesized moderating role of *diuwongke* in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement (H2a) was partly supported. Against our expectations, only employees with average and low levels of *diuwongke* seem to benefit from engaging leadership in the sense that for them this is associated with higher levels of work engagement. In contrast, employees with high levels of *diuwongke* do not benefit from engaging leadership, their levels of engagement do not increase. Obviously, for employees low in *diuwongke*, who feel less valued and recognized by their supervisor, the leader's strengthening, inspiring, connecting and empowering behaviors are particularly important to enhance work engagement. It can be speculated that low *diuwongke* is 'compensated' by engaging leadership and vice versa. They might be a considerable overlap between engaging leadership and *diuwongke*.

On the other hand, for employees who experience high levels of *diuwongke*, engaging leadership is not associated with levels of work engagement. In this case, compensation is not necessary since a good relationship with one's supervisors enhances employees' motivation and work engagement, independently from the presence or absence of engaging leadership. It can be speculated that this might be explained by the specific nature of our sample. Namely, our sample includes predominantly older employees (Mean age 44.6 years, SD=7.7) with long tenure (56.5 percent had over twenty years of job tenure), who perform operational, routine tasks. They can be considered resourceful employees who – over the years – accumulated job resources (Tims et al., 2011) and personal resources (Kim & Kang, 2016); they are skilled and know exactly how to perform the job. Thus, it can be speculated that most of them are in low need of leadership (Breevaart et al., 2014) as the leadership role is substituted by their long-standing experience on the job (Lajoie, Boudrias, Rousseau, & Brunelle, 2017). Hence, it seems that *diuwongke* plays a more fundamental role, presumably because it refers to basic human values – being treated with dignity and respect – rather than to particular, more 'superficial' engaging leadership behaviors. When employees feel valued by their supervisor (high *diuwongke*), their work engagement does not depend on their supervisor's engaging leadership. When *diuwongke* is average or low, strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring increases employee engagement.

Another possible explanation for the lack of interaction between engaging leadership and employee's high levels of *diuwongke* is that it does not match the employees' cultural value orientation. Cultural value orientation serves as a powerful facilitator or barrier to the effect of

leadership behaviors (Kirkman et al., 2009). This present research was carried out in a typical long-established Indonesian company, in which the employees are socialized during a long period. Moreover, Indonesia has a high-power distance national culture (Hofstede et al., 2010) where leaders are expected to act as a patron. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), power distance orientation refers to the extent to which an individual accepts the unequal distribution of power in an organization (Kirkman et al., 2009). Leaders are seen as the authority at a higher level that are entitled to control their employees. It is assumed that the participants of this present study reflect a high-power distance cultural value orientation. When the quality of the relationship between leaders and employees is poor (low *diuwongke*), engaging leaders are perceived as patronizing leaders (that match with the employees' high-power distance cultural value orientation), so that leaders have a positive effect on employees' work engagement. However, when *diuwongke* is high, employees will feel that they are more equal to their leaders. It can be speculated that in that case, engaging leaders are not perceived as a patronizing leader (that do not match with the employees' high-power distance cultural value orientation). Hence, leader's behaviors do not increase employees' level of work engagement. However, this conclusion is rather tentative and further research on the match of employees' cultural orientation with engaging leadership is needed.

Another alternative explanation may be found in Uncertainty Management Theory. According to this theory, the relationship between context perceptions and performance will be stronger for low-quality supervisors-employees exchange relationships in which high levels of uncertainty are experienced (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2011), as this low-quality relationship is comparable with low *diuwongke*. Employees with high *diuwongke* receive more support, information and rewards from their supervisors, thus, their feeling of uncertainty is lower, and they are therefore more certain about their current performance. In contrast, employees with low *diuwongke* receive less information from their supervisors that allow them to know how well they are performing. Because of their insecure relationship, and high uncertainty, employees will increase their efforts to meet the performance standards based on their past experiences. This implies that context perceptions (comparable to engaging leader behaviors) and performance (comparable to work engagement) are stronger for low-quality supervisor-employee exchange relationship (comparable to low *diuwongke*). However, again, it still needs further research and conclusion should be considered with caution.

Tellingly, while the combination of engaging leadership and average/low levels of *diuwongke* contributed to employees' work engagement, this interaction was not observed for



transformational leadership (H2b not supported). It can be speculated that particularly the unique element of engaging leadership that is missing in transformational leadership (i.e. connecting) is responsible for producing the significant interaction effect. *Diuwongke* and engaging leadership both stress the benefit of building and maintaining good relationships (connecting), also between leaders and their followers. In contrast, the transformational leadership scale that we used in this study focuses on the promotion of employee's own and organization's goals. As a result, the interaction effect of *diuwongke* and transformational leadership on work engagement is less likely to occur.

### Strengths and limitations

We believe that this study increases our knowledge on the role of leaders in enhancing employees' work engagement, and more specifically on the role of a specific type of leadership—namely, engaging leadership. Even though the result is not fully supported that engaging leadership is stronger related to work engagement than transformational leadership, the former type of leadership has a stronger theoretical foundation than the later. Our research opens new perspectives for research regarding the conditions influencing the impact of engaging leadership (and transformational) leadership on work engagement.

This study answers the call from cross-cultural organizational behavior and psychology research for assessing the impact of cultural values on individual employees (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). In order to do so, this study included a local value-based phenomenon in Javanese- Indonesian culture, which adds to our limited knowledge on work engagement in non-western countries. The variable that is used in this study may be somewhat unique to the local Indonesian culture, however, the results might also be generalized to other countries with similar cultures. For instance, other countries with high power distance where leaders are perceived as patrons, such as Malaysia, Philippines, and China. Furthermore, it is might be interesting to investigate the relevance of *diuwongke* in a cross- cultural context or to test the impact of *diuwongke* in other (western) cultures.

However, several limitations with regard to the study should also be considered. First, this present study is cross-sectional in nature, so that conclusions regarding the directions of causality among variables cannot be drawn. For instance, it cannot be concluded that engaged employees perceive their leaders as being more engaged or transformational. Second, our results may be influenced by common method variance (CMV) because self-report scales were used to measure the variables. Like most studies in the field, our study also relies on self-reports

to assess subjective perceptions of employees. In order to assess the presence of possible CMV, we used Harman's Single Factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) which is based on confirmatory factor analysis. It appeared that the fit to the data of a single latent factor model was rather poor ( $\chi^2=3459.11$ ,  $df = 434$ ,  $GFI = .64$ ,  $AGFI = .58$ ,  $CFI = .64$ ,  $TLI = .61$ ,  $RMSEA = .11$ ). This suggests that it is unlikely that CMV might have biased the results. Nevertheless, in future research, leader behaviors might also be assessed by expert ratings and *diuwongke* might be assessed by interviews.

Third, even though we have examined the measurement model consisting of four correlated latent variables which yielded a good fit with the data, some caution is warranted since possible multicollinearity issues might exist considering the high observed correlations among the study variables. Fourth, another caution is warranted concerning a possible response style bias, as high mean scores of all scales were observed. Although cultural characteristics were not measured in the current study, it can be speculated that a particular response style (i.e., positivity bias) might have been used by the study participants. They live in an Indonesian culture that is high in collectivism and power distance (Hofstede et al., 2010), that is therefore likely to foster agreeableness, submissiveness and defensiveness. Furthermore, Indonesian respondents are likely to avoid confrontation and maintain harmony, thus, they tend to respond to survey questions mildly and positively (Harzing, Brown, Köster, & Zhao, 2012; Smith, 2004). Fifth limitation is that the measure of *diuwongke* was self-constructed and used for the first time in this study. Although the internal consistency of the measure was sufficient and it played the expected moderating role; its validity should be further examined in future research.

### **Practical Implication and Conclusion.**

The key role of engaging leadership in increasing work engagement is supported by this study. Hence, organizations may promote this specific type of leadership through coaching or training programs. This study also emphasizes the role of *diuwongke* for work engagement. Treating employees with dignity and respect is associated with work engagement, thus, organizations may build a culture of respect among their employees. It is important to consider cultural aspects in leading employees, in our case, making the followers feel valued. Leaders who wish to foster work engagement should focus more on employees who feel less valued/*diuwongke*. On the other hand, they could focus less on employees who highly feel valued as this seems to substitute engaging leadership.

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## CHAPTER 5

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# Engaging Leadership and Its Implication for Work Engagement and Job Outcomes at Individual and Team Level: A Multilevel Longitudinal Study<sup>5</sup>

### Introduction

To achieve the critical goals of viability and sustained competitive advantage, organizations currently face global challenges (Boxall & Purcell, 2003) that require them to continuously perform, adapt, learn, and innovate to a rapidly changing environment (Kontoghiorghes, Awbrey, Feurig, 2005). To do so, the contributions of employees to organizational goals are increasingly important, especially in teams as these are the building blocks for organizations (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003) to address complex tasks by providing collaborative effort (Montoya-Weiss, Massey, Song, 2001).

To ensure the teams to be effective, they need support from the leaders. Leadership is a prominent antecedent in organizations that facilitates individual and collective (team) efforts to accomplish shared objectives and improve the performance by influencing the processes involved (Yukl, 2012), as well as to adapt and innovate (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2006). What is currently still missing is in-depth knowledge of intermediate processes to explain how leadership influences individuals, group processes and organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 2013), including performance, learning, and innovation at the team level and individual level. The current study focuses on such mediating motivational processes in which work engagement is assumed to play a key role.

Work engagement (WE) refers to "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker (2002; p.74)". Employees with a high level of work engagement display innovative behaviors at

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<sup>5</sup> This chapter was published as Rahmadani, V.G.; Schaufeli, W.B.; Stouten, J.; Zhang, Z.; Zulkarnain, Z. Engaging Leadership and Its Implication for Work Engagement and Job Outcomes at the Individual and Team Level: A Multi-Level Longitudinal Study. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* 2020, 17, 776. Part of this paper has been presented at The 29th International Congress of Applied Psychology (ICAP), 'The Role of Engaging Leadership on Job Performance, Mediated By Work Engagement', June 26- July 3, 2018, Montreal, Canada. Part of this paper has also been presented at Work and Organisational Psychology-WAOP conference, 'The role of engaging leadership on team work engagement, mediated by team resources', November 21, 2018, Leuven, Belgium.

work (Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and are more creative (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015). Moreover, work engagement is positively related to superior business-unit performance (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). In sum, work engagement benefits organizations at all levels, not only at individual employee level but also the team and business unit level (Salanova, Rodríguez-Sánchez, Schaufeli, & Cifre, 2014; Schaufeli, 2012; Schneider, Barbera, & Macey, 2009; Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012).

Whereas previous research mostly focused on individual work engagement, less is known about WE at the team level that also exists as a collective psychosocial phenomenon (Richardson & West, 2010). This team work engagement (TWE) is defined as a positive, fulfilling, and shared motivational emergent state that is characterized by team vigor, team dedication, and team absorption, which emerges from the interaction and shared experiences of members of a workgroup (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014; Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martínez, & Schaufeli, 2003). WE and TWE are related but distinct. TWE is experienced only when team members' affective-motivational states converge, which is not necessarily always the case.

Based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), leaders manage and allocate job demands and resources in ways as to increase employees' levels of (team) work engagement. Hence, generally speaking, leaders will facilitate the motivational process that is postulated by the JD-R model. This process assumes that job resources and challenging job demands are inherently motivating and both will lead to a positive, affective-motivational state of fulfilment in employees that is known as (team) work engagement.

In the current research, we propose a specific kind of leadership that fosters (team) work engagement as a key (mediating) variable in the motivational process. Recent research has focussed on leadership that specifically aims at increasing work engagement, that is, engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova, Schaufeli, Notelaers, 2019; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, Osin, 2019). Engaging leadership (EL; Schaufeli, 2015) refers to a positive leadership style that fosters employees' work engagement through a specific psychological mechanism that can be described using the Self-Determination Theory (SDT). As Schaufeli and Taris (2014) suggested that JD-R model is a descriptive model, hence, incorporating particular resources and outcomes to this model need additional explanatory psychological theories, in this case, SDT. Engaging leaders promote the fulfilment of employees' basic needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy by strengthening, connecting, empowering and inspiring employees and hence increase their follower's levels of work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015), even across different nations (Rahmadani et al., 2019).

Scholars stressed that the study of leadership is inherently multilevel in nature (Bliese, Halverson, & Schiesheim, 2002, p. 4). Furthermore, team member's perceptions of engaged leadership converge, meaning that team members generally agree about the level of engaging leadership of their supervisor (Essoussi, 2016; Robijn, Schaufeli, Deprez, & Euwema, 2019). Thus, in the present research, the impact of team-level EL will be examined on job outcomes, as mediated by (team) work engagement. At the team level, the Input-Mediator-Output-Input (IMOI) team effectiveness framework (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005) will be used, particularly for introducing team work engagement as a mediator. More specifically, we propose that leaders who display an engaging leadership style, collectively regarding their entire team as well individually regarding each of the team members, may effectively foster team work engagement and individual work engagement. This, in turn, fosters positive outcomes at the team and individual level.

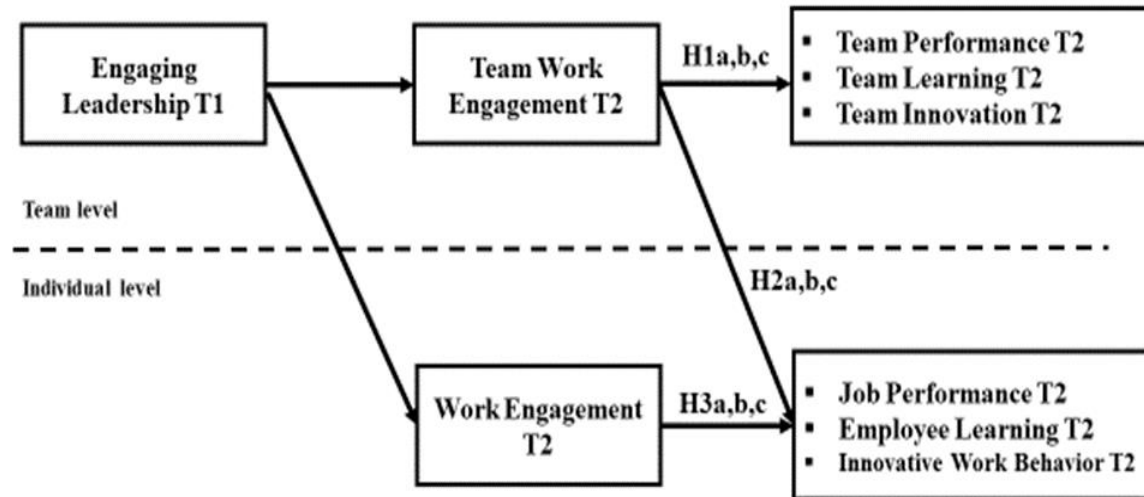
Three crucial job outcomes for organizational to survive and be competitive are measured, namely performance, learning, and innovation both at the team and individual levels. Organizational studies show that these three outcomes are positively interrelated (see Montes, Moreno, & Morales, 2005; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). To test our model of how team-level engaging leadership is beneficial for job outcomes both at the individual and team levels via TWE and WE (see Figure 1), we conducted a two-wave multilevel study.

In sum, our study offers three contributions to the literature. First, by testing the cross-level effects of team-level leadership on individual job performance. By uncovering the intermediate mediating role of TWE and WE, this study gives insight on how team-level EL impacts team and individual job outcomes, hence, features JD-R model at the team level. Research to date has mainly focused on engagement at the individual level, whereas at the role of team-level TWE has not been examined much.

Second, the novel concept of engaging leadership that explicitly focuses on increasing WE is introduced as an antecedent, which, via WE and TWE, impacts job outcomes at individual level and team level. Contributing to leadership literature, the basic tenet of EL is that engaging leaders behave in such a way that they fulfill employees' work-related basic needs, which, in its turn fosters work engagement among their employees. Moreover, we examine EL in the team-level analysis since the engaging leadership's study at the team level is still limited while leadership is multilevel in nature.

Third, this study proposes a mediation model that explores the relationships between team-level EL, engagement and job outcomes at the individual and team level, as they evolve for a one year. Hence, we consider the complex and dynamic relationship between leaders-employees, and relationships are developed across time, that is, to confirm the mediation effect of (team) work engagement using a longitudinal design.

**Figure 1. Research Model of Engaging Leadership, Work Engagement, and Job Performance Relationship at the Individual Level and Team Level.**



### Conceptual Framework

#### The Concept of Engaging Leadership

The concept of engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2015) assumes that engaging leaders behave in such a way that they fulfill their followers' work-related basic needs. Particularly, SDT postulates that employees are likely to show high levels of energy, concentration, and persistence to the degree that their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2012). In other words, when the follower's basic needs are satisfied, they are likely to feel more engaged in terms of vigor, dedication, and absorption.

Schaufeli (2015) argued that engaging leaders fulfill the basic psychological needs of their employees by performing certain leadership behaviors, namely strengthening, empowering, connecting, and inspiring. When employees are strengthened because their supervisor delegates responsible and challenging tasks, they will feel more competent after task completion ("*Yes, I can*"). When employees relate to others in their team since their supervisor encourages close collaboration and interpersonal bonding, they will feel a strong sense of belongingness ("*I feel at ease in my team*"). When employees are empowered as their supervisor encourages their voice and recognizes their ownership, they will feel autonomous ("*I can make my own decisions*"). Finally, when employees are inspired by their supervisor

to contribute personally to an important overall goal this will increase their meaningfulness (“*I can make a significant contribution*”).

Although the need for meaningfulness has not been identified as a separate basic need by SDT, theoretical and empirical arguments have been proposed in favor it (e.g. Andersen, Chen, Carter, 2000; Hadden & Smith, 2019). In contrast, SDT views meaningfulness as an outcome of basic psychological need satisfaction rather than as a specific need (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 252 - 254). However, following Baumeister (1991) and Frankl (1992), we believe that the need for meaningfulness, which is defined as the desire to be engaged in activities that are useful, important, significant, and is in line with one’s personal values, plays a fundamental role in human motivation. Furthermore, meaningfulness has a strong positive association with work engagement (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). A recent cross-national study that included samples from Indonesia and Russia found that the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (including the need for meaningfulness) mediated the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement in both countries (Rahmadani et al., 2019). This result supports the assumption that engaging leaders foster their employee’s work engagement through satisfying their basic needs for competence, belongingness, autonomy, and meaning.

The current study assumes relationships among team-level EL, (team) work engagement, and job outcomes by drawing on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), and the IMOI (Input-Mediator-Output-Input) team effectiveness framework (Ilgen, et al, 2005). We concur with Bliese, Halverson, and Schriesheim (2002) who argue that leadership should be studied as a multilevel phenomenon, which means to investigate its consequences at the team as well as at the individual level. To date, research on engaging leadership and work engagement has been carried out exclusively at the individual level. The current study focuses on team-level EL, meaning that we aggregate the individual perceptions team-members have about their supervisor.

#### *The Team-Level Effect of Engaging Leadership at the Team Level on Team Outcomes as Mediated by Team Work Engagement.*

We set out this study to provide empirical evidence for the mediation of TWE that may explain the relationship between the team-level engaging leadership and team outcomes. Three indicators of team outcomes are included: (1) *team performance*, which refers to that formal team job behaviors (team in-role behavior) as well as to behaviors that exceed what the team expected to do (team extra-role behavior) (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999); (2) *team learning*, which refers to the ongoing team process of reflection and action, characterized by team members asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions (Edmonson, 1999); (3) and team innovation, which refers to the intentional

introduction and application within teams of ideas, processes, products or procedures which are new and benefiting to the team (West & Farr, 1990, p. 9).

Based on the motivational process of Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, the more employees can draw upon job resources the more engaged they feel (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Furthermore, leaders manage and allocate job demands and resources in such a way as to increase their follower's levels of (team) work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Seen from this perspective, team-level EL may in and of itself act as a resource for teams that would help them increase their team work engagement. For instance, team-level EL may stimulate a supportive team climate, which, subsequently, over time, may increase team work engagement. A recent study that included 62 teams from 13 organizations confirmed this reasoning by showing that the relationship between team social resources (e.g., a supportive team climate and proper coordination of tasks) and team performance was mediated by TWE (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012).

Similarly, engaging leaders empower and connect their team members so that it makes them feel at ease in the team and they feel safe to express and sharing their ideas, which will stimulate their positive experiences and hence increase TWE. Engaging leaders who connect their team members build a pleasant and trusting atmosphere between team members, which make it easier to communicate ideas about new ways of working and to reduce job demands as the need arises (Mäkikangas, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2017). As a consequence, the possibility to learn among team members and to be innovative as a team may increase as well.

Drawing from the Input-Mediator-Output-Input (IMOI) team effectiveness framework by Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, and Jundt (2005), it is assumed that to be effective and perform, teams need to be well-functioning. In the current research, the positive affective-motivational state of team work engagement plays a crucial role as a mediator, which enable teams to function well. Previous research supported the positive relationship between collective engagement or TWE and positive job outcomes such as team performance (Torrente et al., 2012; Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013), team satisfaction (Guchait, 2013), and perceived collective efficacy and subjective wellbeing (Salanova, Llorens, Cifre, Martinez, & Schaufeli, 2003).

In the current study, team-level EL acts as team-level input, and team performance, team learning, and team innovation as outputs. Meaning that engaging leaders provide team resources, including a positive team spirit and supportive team climate, and collective enthusiasm, and team efficacy (input). As a result, the team feels energetic, dedicated and is focused – i.e., collectively engaged (mediator), which, in its turn leads to a greater discretionary team effort in terms of team performance, team learning, and team innovation (output). Hence, we formulate:

**Hypothesis 1:** *Team work engagement at T2 mediates the relationship between engaging leadership at the team level at T1 and T2 team performance (H1a), team learning behavior (H1b), and team innovation (H1c).*

*The Cross-Level Effect of Engaging Leadership at the Team Level on Job Outcomes, as Mediated by Team Work Engagement.*

The current study assumes cross-level relationships between team-level engaging leadership, team work engagement, and individual job outcomes (i.e., job performance, employee learning, and innovative work behavior). Job performance refers to activities that are related to the formal job (in-role behavior) as well as to activities that go beyond the formal job description (extra-role behavior), while team performance refers to team-in-role and extra-role behaviors (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Employee learning is seen as an ongoing process of reflection and action, characterized by asking questions, seeking feedback, experimenting, reflecting on results, and discussing errors or unexpected outcomes of actions). Innovative work behavior refers to complex work behaviors that to idea generation, idea promotion, and idea realization (Janssen, 2000).

We argue that team-level EL and TWE may increase individual job outcomes by drawing on JD-R model and an emotional contagion mechanism. Later, in the measurement section, we mentioned that in this research we aggregate the individually perceived TWE to the team level. The underlying process that is involved is known as emotional contagion. Bakker, van Emmerik and Euwema (2006) identified emotional contagion as a crucial crossover mechanism that leads to the emergence of a shared psychological state such as team work engagement. Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson (1994) define emotional contagion as; “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person's and, consequently, to converge emotionally” (p. 5). Emotions can spread among individuals; thus, different people can share and express the same emotional state (Hatfield, Rapson, Le, 2009), which can either be positive such as engagement, or negative such as burnout (Bakker et al., 2006).

When engaging leaders inspire their team, by installing high expectations, connecting the team goal with more overall meaningful (organizations) goals, thereby conveying an optimistic vision for the future, this might induce positive affect and increase motivation in the team in terms of TWE. Furthermore, this collective work engagement increases collective efficacy beliefs (Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011) as well as individual-level work engagement (Bakker et al., 2006). That is, when employees experience that they are part of an engaged team (which is vigorous, dedicated and absorbed), they are more likely to feel engaged at the individual level (and vice versa). As a result, they will increase their willingness to put more efforts into their job. In the context of



the present study, emotional contagion means that team members synchronize their facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, movements, and so on with others in the team who feel engaged so that – as a result – they also feel engaged themselves. In line with this reasoning Bakker, Albrecht, and Leiter, (2011) showed that team engagement influences individual employee performance through individual-level engagement.

As leaders have a special role in fostering work engagement among their followers (Salanova, Schaufeli, Xanthopoulou, & Bakker, 2010), team-level EL fosters a shared feeling of engagement to the entire team and causes a positive psychological climate that eventually motivates individual team members to perform, learn and innovate. For instance, it has been found among students that team-based learning (Jeno, et al., 2017) increased when they receive more feedback (competence support), collaborate more closely (relatedness support), and have greater responsibility (autonomy support) (Kusurkar, Croiset, Olle, & Cate, 2011).

Unsworth and Clegg (2010) suggested that besides motivation and autonomy, the positive climate will help team members to feel free to voice new ideas and they have confidence that the group will support these. In other words, team members are more likely to make efforts to innovate when they hold expectancies of positive responses by other team members. Team-level EL promotes TWE of the entire team that results in positive, supportive climate, which stimulates individual team members to voice their innovative ideas. Indeed, Scott and Bruce (1994) found that a supportive climate led to more innovation outcomes. Hence, we formulate:

**Hypothesis 2:** *Team work engagement T2 mediates the relationship between engaging leadership at the team level at T1 and T2 job performance (H2a), employee learning (H2b), and innovative work behavior (H2c).*

*The Cross-Level Effect of Engaging Leadership at the Team Level on Job Outcomes, as Mediated by Work Engagement.*

Work engagement has a positive impact on positive job-related attitudes, health and well being, extra-role behavior and job performance (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Christian, Graza, & Slaughter, 2011). Moreover, engaged employees exhibit personal initiative and have a strong motivation to learn (Schaufeli, 2012). Employees who feel engaged are intrinsically motivated (Schaufeli, 2012), proactive (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008), and creative (Huhtala & Parzefall, 2007), display innovative behaviors at work (Chang, Hsu, Liou, &

Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and are more creative at work (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015).

Drawing from the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), engaging leadership was found to be a specific leadership behavior that increased work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova et al., 2019) by providing more job resources. Engaging leaders who inspire, strengthen and connect employees enable them to perceive and use more resources in their environment such as social support from colleagues and job autonomy (Nikolova et al., 2019). A recent study found that engaging leadership increases work engagement by fulfilling employees' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness, and meaningfulness (Rahmadani et al., 2019).

Team-level EL that increases employees' feeling of being competent, autonomous, empowered and inspired enables employees to improve their works and proactively find new ways to make their work even more appealing for them. When employees perceive their works as valuable, meaningful and motivating, they tend to show more interests in their daily work, which motivates them to explore better ways of doing their jobs (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003). Letting their employees use their own strengths, practicing their competences, and exercising their self-initiative will fosters to employees' work motivation. While working on complex tasks, highly motivated employees showed more innovative work behaviors than less motivated employees (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Previous research supported the idea that intrinsic motivation, such as engagement is a mediating variable for psychological contract and innovative work behavior (Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013), and for learning organization and innovative work behavior (Park, Song, Yoon, & Kim, 2014).

When the perceptions of engaging leadership are shared in the team, engaging leaders may successfully stimulate a positive and supportive team climate that foster employees' WE because they can draw upon more resources and their basic needs are satisfied. In its turn, engaged employees may produce positive job outcomes by putting greater efforts into accomplishing, learning and exploring their works. Hence, we hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 3:** *Work engagement at T2 mediates the relationship between engaging leadership at the team level at T1 and T2 job performance (H3a), employee learning (H3b), and innovative work behavior (H3c).*

## Method

### Sample

The current research was conducted in an Indonesian agriculture state-owned company, which mainly produces crude palm oil and other agricultural commodities, such as tea, cacao, rubber, and vegetables. The company includes over 26,000 employees working at various regions on the island of Northern Sumatra. We included all 8 districts of 9 districts (39 out of 41 total plantations), except one district with 2 plantations in another province. Each district consists of several plantations, and each plantation consists of several units depending on the size of the district and the plantation. Employees working in the same unit under the same supervisor were considered a team. Conveniently selected, mostly because of the closer location to the head office in the capital of North Sumatra province, we included 100 units of 8 districts and each unit consist of at least 7 team members. In total, 700 paper-and-pencil surveys contained 9 study variables bundled in a book format were prepared and handed out to about 700 employees.

The data used were collected in two waves: in March–June 2017 and one year later in March–July 2018. In total, 607 employees participated (response rate 87.3 percent), nested in 94 teams, with team sizes ranging from 6 to 10 employees. In the second wave, 435 employees participated (response rate 71 percent), nested in 75 teams, with team sizes ranging from 6 to 8 employees. From these 435 employees, 27 participants were excluded due to incomplete data, 84 participants dropped out because they had their supervisor changed, 34 participants were dropped as they moved to another team, and 66 participants were the supervisors and, thus, they were excluded as well. Hence, the final longitudinal sample consisted of 224 employees, nested in 54 teams. All participants were males, working as blue-collar workers, which means they do different jobs on the plantations, such as land preparing, planting, harvesting, transporting, processing, and marketing. Some characteristics of the sample are presented in Table 1.

### Procedure

We collected the data with the official agreement from the company. Research assistants handed the surveys in sealed envelopes to each of the participants individually. The surveys were completed during working hours and the completed surveys were sent back within two weeks in a sealed envelope to the research assistants collectively per team via a distribution officer. Participants received a written description of the study along with an informed consent together with the survey. In this description, it was announced that the same data will be collected in the next year. The anonymity of the data was emphasized, and we used individually assigned codes to link the data of

both waves. For the second wave, surveys were handed out using a similar procedure collected the same data of 9 study variables.

**Table 1. Sample Characteristics (Individual level, N= 224, Team level, N= 54).**

Individual's Characteristics		N	Percent
Educational Level	Elementary Education	57	25.4
	Secondary Education	126	56.3
	Bachelor	39	17.4
	Master	2	.9
Tenure (year)	0-5	24	10.7
	6-10	12	5.4
	11-15	15	6.7
	16-20	42	18.8
	21 and more	131	58.5
Working in current team (year)	0-5	98	43.8
	6-10	35	15.6
	11-15	14	6.3
	16-20	27	12.1
	21 and more	50	22.3
Working with current Supervisor (year)	Less than a year	72	32.1
	1-5	146	65.2
	5-10	6	2.7

## Measurements

Self-reported five-point Likert frequency scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always) were used except for job performance and team performance scales, ranged from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree). All items were translated from English into Bahasa Indonesia following the double translation procedure (Brislin, 1970).

Engaging leadership was measured by the 12 items of *Engaging Leadership Scale* (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani et al., 2019), which assesses four aspects of engaging leadership with three items each; strengthening, connecting, empowering, and inspiring. Sample items are: “My supervisor delegates tasks and responsibilities to team members” (strengthening); “My supervisor encourages collaboration among team members” (connecting); “My supervisor gives team members enough freedom to complete their tasks” (empowering), and; “My supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans” (inspiring). The value of Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale at T1 and T2 were .86 and .86 respectively.

Work engagement was assessed with the 9-item version of the *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES, Schaufeli et.al, 2006). Previous studies carried out in other countries have shown that the UWES has satisfactory psychometric properties (Schaufeli et. al, 2006; Hu et.al, 2014). The UWES assesses three aspects of work engagement, namely vigor, dedication, and absorption. Sample items are: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (vigor), “I am proud of the work that I do” (dedication), and, “I get carried away when I’m working” (absorption). The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .87, .86 respectively

Team work engagement was assessed with the 9-item version of *Team Work Engagement Scale* by Costa, Passos, and Bakker (2014). Following Costa, Passos, and Bakker (2014), in the current study, we also used a reference shift from “I/me” to “we/our” in questionnaire items to assess TWE. Like the UWES, the TWE scale consists of three aspects: team vigor, team dedication, and team absorption. Sample items are: “At our job, we feel strong and vigorous” (vigor), “We are proud of the work that we do” (dedication), and “We are immersed in our work” (absorption). The value of Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale at T1 and T2 were .87 and .87 respectively.

Team performance was measured by *Team Performance Scale* (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, Schaufeli, 2012; adapted from Goodman & Svyantek, 1999), which assesses team in-role behavior and extra-role behavior with three items. Sample items are: “My team achieves its work goals” (in-role behavior), “We perform roles that are not formally required but which improve the organization’s reputation” (extra-role behavior). The value of Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale at T1 and T2 were .82 and .79 respectively.

Team learning behavior was measured by the 7-item *Team Learning Behavior Scale* by Edmonson (1999). A sample item of team learning behavior is “My team frequently seeks new information that leads us to make important changes”. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .76 and .80 respectively.

Team innovation was examined with the 4-item *Team Innovation Scale* by Drach-Zahavy and Someh (2001), adapted from West and Wallace (1991). A sample item of team innovation is “The team initiated new procedures and methods”. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .87 and .84 respectively. Individual job performance was measured by 8 items of *Job Performance Scale* including four items of in-role behavior and four items of extra-role behavior component (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Sample items are: “I fulfill all the requirement of my job” (in-role behavior), and, “I volunteer to do things that are not formally required by my job” (extra-role behavior). The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .80 and .79 respectively.

Employee learning was measured by *Employee Learning Scale* with 6 items from the 7-item learning behavior (Edmonson, 1999). Consistent with the level of analysis, which was at the individual level, the referent was changed from “My team” to “I”. Based on our CFA, item number 2 (“I tend to handle differences of opinion privately or off-line, rather than addressing them directly as a group”) has a very low factor loading, and we decided to remove it due to the cultural reasons. To maintain the harmony living in the group, Indonesians avoided direct communication in handling conflict which made them uncomfortable. A sample item of the employee learning was “I frequently seek new information that leads me to make important changes”. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .77 and .77 respectively.

Innovative work behavior was examined with the 4-item *Innovative Work Behavior Scale* (Janssen, 2000). It consists of 3 aspects namely, generating ideas, promoting ideas, and applying ideas with items like “I generate original solutions for problems”, “I acquire approval for innovative ideas”, and “I transform innovative ideas into useful applications” respectively. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for this scale at T1 and T2 were .92 and .92 respectively.

## Preliminary Analysis

### *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

To test the validity of the nine-factor measurement model a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) was conducted, a technique that may also be used to account for group-level influences when verifying individual level (Dyer, Hanges, & Hall, 2005). The measurement model consisting of nine correlated latent variables, 6 variables namely engaging leadership, team work engagement, team performance, job performance, work engagement, innovative work behavior were tested with the second-order factor represented by their components, which were each component represented by their corresponding items; 3 variables namely team learning, team innovation, and employee learning were measured with the first-order factor with each of them including their corresponding items. The result showed the hypothesized nine-factor model had a good fit to the data compared with other models ( $\chi^2$  (231) = 367.748,  $p < .001$ , Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .051, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)<sub>within</sub> = .045, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .942, Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) = .930.

### *Data Aggregation*

Although some of the variables will be employed for the team-level analysis and we used the collective referents such as ‘My team’ and “We”, we measured these at the individual level. Thus, before continuing our analyses it should be checked whether aggregation at the team level, by

averaging individual scores to a mean score for each team, is feasible (Van Mierlo et al., 2009). To justify aggregation, the within-group agreement (Rwg; James et al., 1984), the reliability of a single assessment of the group mean or Intraclass Correlation (ICC1; Bliese, 2000), and the F-test (indication whether average scores differed significantly across teams) were calculated. The aggregation statistics for individual-level variables are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2. Aggregation Statistics for Individual-level Variables  
(Individual Level, N= 224, Team Level, N= 54)**

Variables	Rwg Cutoff > .70	% of meeting the .70 cut off	F	p-value	ICC
Engaging Leadership T1	.78-1.00	98%	1.586	.014	.10
Team Work Engagement T2	.72-1.00	100%	1.967	.001	.15
Team Performance T2	.75-1.00	100%	1.910	.001	.12
Team Learning T2	.71-1.00	65%	2.040	.000	.10
Team Innovation T2	.70-1.00	93%	2.170	.175	.15

For engaging leadership, for example, the Rwg ranged from .78 -1.00, with 98% of the teams meeting the criterion of .70 (LeBreton & Senter, 2008); ICC1 = .10,  $F = 1.586$ ,  $p = .014$ , meaning 98% team members were uniform in their leader ratings to the extent that the perception can be perceived as shared. Furthermore, 10 percent of the variance in engaging leadership can be explained by the grouping effect (Bliese, 2000). As the within-group agreement for all variables ranged from .71 to 1.0 across teams, and thus reached the required minimum in each team, aggregating all variables to a team-level construct was deemed feasible (James et al., 1984). Moreover, according to Dyer, Hanges, and Hall (2005), ICC(1)'s tends to range between .00 and .50 with a median value of .12, thus, the ICC1 (.10) for engaging leadership was justified to aggregate. When applying ICC(1), if the F test from between groups from the ANOVA is significant, aggregation of participants within each group is considered justified (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000), as the variance between the groups is not caused by measurement error.

To conclude, based on our results, it was found that team membership explained a considerable amount of variance in individual ratings on engaging leadership, team work engagement, team performance, team learning behavior, and team innovation. However, for team learning and team innovation, some caution is warranted since in the former case only 65% of the teams meet the criterion of .70, and in the latter case, the F test was nonsignificant. Nevertheless, we included these two variables in our further analysis following LeBreton & Senter (2008), who recommended to aggregate groups as long as they have satisfactory Rwg values.

## Strategy of Analyses

Random coefficient analyses (Snijders & Bosker, 1999), the robust maximum likelihood estimator, HLM software, SPSS software, and R software were used to test our hypotheses. First, ordinary least square (OLS) regression-based analysis was conducted using SPSS to test the T1 team-level engaging leadership on each of T2 team outcomes mediated by T2 TWE (H1a,b,c). Second, a multilevel analysis was performed using HLM. We simultaneously tested the direct and mediated cross-level effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on each of T2 individual job outcomes as mediated by T2 TWE and WE (H2a,b,c & H3a,b,c). Finally, a Monte Carlo test was performed using R to check the robustness of the results (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; Preacher & Selig, 2012).

## Results

### Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 shows the means, standard deviations, Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , and correlations of the study variables.

**Table 3. Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations of the Study Variables (Individual Level, N= 224, Team Level, N= 54)**

Team-level Variables	Mean	SD	Variables				
			1	2	3	4	5
Team-level Engaging Leadership T1	4.13	.25					
Team Work Engagement T2	4.49	.33	.49**				
Team Performance T2	4.28	.28	.47**	.42**			
Team Learning T2	3.58	.48	.31*	.51**	.23ns		
Team Innovation T2	4.23	.39	.53**	.47**	.46**	.48**	
Cross-level Variables	Mean	SD	Variables				
			1	2	3	4	5
Team-level Engaging Leadership T1	4.13	.25	(.861)				
Work Engagement T2	4.61	.41	.29**	(.874)			
Job Performance T2	4.04	.48	.29**	.36**	(.823)		
Employee Learning T2	3.60	.79	.28**	.36**	.59**	(.757)	
Innovative Work Behavior T2	3.66	.85	.38**	.43**	.64**	.76**	(.874)

Note. The range of the scales for all variables is 1-5. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . Values of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  at the individual level between parenthesis.

### Hypotheses Testing

The result of OLS analyses for H1a,b,c are shown in Table 4. OLS regression revealed that there was no significant relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 team performance as mediated by team work engagement at T2 ( $\beta = .25$ ,  $p = .07$ ). Nevertheless, there was a significant direct relationship between team-level engaging leadership and team performance T2 ( $\beta = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 1a was not supported.



**Table 4. The Results of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Regression Team Outcomes (N = 54).**

	Team Performance (No Mediating Effect)		
	B	SD	B
Step 1			
Constant	2.09	.57	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.53	.14	.47**
Step 2			
Constant	1.72	.59	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.39	.15	.35*
Team Work Engagement Time 2	.21	.12	.25ns
$R^2$			.27**
$F$			9.43**
$\Delta R^2$			.05ns
$\Delta F$			3.32ns
	Team Learning (Full Mediation)		
	B	SD	B
Step 1			
Constant	1.14	1.04	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.59	.25	.31*
Step 2			
Constant	-.53	1.01	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.15	.26	.08ns
Team Work Engagement Time2	.67	.20	.47**
$R^2$			.27**
$F$			9.18**
$\Delta R^2$			.17**
$\Delta F$			11.74**
	Team Innovation (Partial Mediation)		
	B	SD	B
Step 1			
Constant	.80	.75	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.83	.18	.53**
Step 2			
Constant	.25	.78	
Engaging Leadership Time 1	.62	.20	.40**
Team Work Engagement Time2	.31	.15	.27*
$R^2$			.34*
$F$			13.17**
$\Delta R^2$			.06*
$\Delta F$			4.32*

OLS regression revealed a significant relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 team learning, as mediated by T2 team work engagement ( $\beta = .47$ ,  $p < .01$ ); at the same time, there was no significant direct relationship between team-level engaging leadership and team performance T2 ( $\beta = .08$ ,  $p = .58$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 1b was supported: T2 team work engagement fully mediated the relationship between T1 engaging leadership and T2 team learning.

OLS regression revealed a significant relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 team innovation, as mediated by T2 team work engagement ( $\beta = .27, p < .05$ ). Simultaneously, there was a positive significant relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 team innovation ( $\beta = .40, p < .01$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 1c was supported: T2 team work engagement partially mediated the relationship between T1 engaging leadership and T2 team innovation.

HLM results with random slopes for H2a,b,c and H3a,b,c are shown in Table 5. Hypothesis 2 states that the cross-level effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on T2 individual-level job outcomes (job performance, employee learning, innovative work behavior) is mediated by T2 team work engagement. Hypothesis 3 states that the cross-level effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on T2 individual level job outcomes is mediated by T2 work engagement.

HLM results with random slopes yielded a significant mediation effect of T2 team work engagement of the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 job performance ( $\gamma = 0.34, p < .01$ ). However, no significant mediation effect was found of T2 team work engagement of the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 employee learning ( $\gamma = .34, p > .05$ ), and also no significant mediation effect was found of T2 team work engagement of the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 innovative work behavior ( $\gamma = .49, p > .05$ ). Thus, only hypothesis 2a was confirmed; the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 individual job performance was partially mediated by T2 team work engagement. Hypotheses 2b and 2c that referred to employee learning and employee innovative work behavior, respectively, were not supported.

HLM with random slopes yielded a significant positive effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on T2 job performance ( $\gamma = .32, p < .01$ ), T2 employee learning ( $\gamma = .83, p < .01$ ), and T2 innovative work behavior ( $\gamma = .83, p < .01$ ) respectively. In addition, HLM results (see table 5) also showed a significant mediation effect of T2 work engagement on the relationship between team-level engaging leadership and T2 job performance T2 ( $\gamma = .37, p < .01$ ), T2 employee learning ( $\gamma = .60, p < .01$ ), and T2 innovative work behavior T2 ( $\gamma = .76, p < .01$ ). Thus, hypotheses 3a-c were supported.

Table 5.

**The Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results of the Relationship between Team-level Engaging Leadership, Individual and Team-level Work Engagement, and Individual and Team-level Performance, Learning, and Innovation (Individual level, N= 224, Team level, N= 54).**

Dependent Variables	Work Engagement T2	Team Work Engagement T2	Job Performance T2		Employee Learning T2		Innovative Work Behavior T2	
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8
Constant	4.61 (.03)	.18 (.66)	4.04 (.04)	4.03 (.04)	3.60 (.05)	3.60 (.05)	3.65 (.07)	3.65 (.06)
Level 2 (team level)								
Engaging Leadership T1	.46** (.15)	.65** (.16)	.57** (.16)	.32** (.15)	1.06** (.25)	.83** (.27)	1.16** (.34)	.83* (.40)
Team Work Engagement T2				.34** (.16)		.34 (.19)		.49 (.28)
Level 1 (individual level)								
Work Engagement T2				.37** (.09)		.60** (.14)		.76** (.14)
R12	.07		.08	.18	.10	.16	.11	.19
R22	.21		.21	.20	.33	.34**	.27	.30
Pseudo R2		.24						
F		16.58**						

Level 1 = individual level, N= 224. Level 2 = team level, N= 54 (224 participants nested in 54 teams). Unstandardized multilevel modeling coefficients ( $\gamma$ ) are shown. Robust standard errors are in parentheses. R12= individual level variance component, and R22 = team-level variance component, Pseudo R2= proportion of variance explained in dependent variable by predictors at both the team- and individual- levels. \*\*p <.01; \*p <.05.

To test the robustness of the mediating effects of work engagement and team work engagement, a Monte Carlo test [79] was performed using R. The result of this Monte Carlo test for job performance variable indicated a significant cross-level mediating effects of T2 individual work engagement (Effect = .22, 95%CI= [.05, .33]) and T2 team work engagement (Effect = .17, 95%CI= [.01, .49]) on the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 individual job performance. However, no significant mediating effect of T2 team work engagement was observed (Effect = .14, 95%CI= [-.02, .33]) for the relationship between T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 team performance.

Furthermore, the result for team learning and employee learning were significant. This means that the effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on T2 team learning and individual learning is mediated by T2 team work engagement (Effect = .44, 95%CI= [.15, .82]) and T2 work engagement (Effect = .22, 95%CI= [.08, .52]), respectively. However, the cross-level mediating effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 individual employee learning, via T2 team work engagement was not significant (Effect = .28, 95%CI= [-.01, .53]).

Finally, the results for innovative work behavior and team innovation were significant. The effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership on T2 team innovation and T2 innovative work behavior is mediated by T2 team work engagement (Effect = .20, 95%CI= [.01, .49]) and T2 work engagement (Effect = .32, 95%CI= [.11, .63]), respectively. However, the cross-level mediating effect of T1 team-level engaging leadership and T2 innovative work behavior) via T2 team work engagement was not significant (Effect = .35, 95%CI= [-.03, .75]).

In sum, these outcomes from the Monte Carlo test supported the previous OLS regression and HLM's hypotheses testing, hence, the robustness is confirmed. A summary of all results is shown in Table 6.

**Table 6. The Summary of Team-level and Cross-level Direct and Mediated Effects of Team-level Engaging Leadership on Team-level and Individual-level Outcomes (Individual Level, N= 224, Team Level, N= 54).**

Path	Effect	SE	LLCI 95%	ULCI 95%
<b>Test of team-level direct effects (2-2 model)</b>				
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Performance T2	.39**	.15	.09	.68
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Learning Behavior T2	.15ns	.26	-.35	.67
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Innovation T2	.62**	.20	.23	1.01
<b>Test of cross-level direct effects (2-1 model)</b>				
Engaging Leadership T1 > Job Performance T2	.32**	.15	.03	.62
Engaging Leadership T1 > Employee Learning T2	.83**	.27	.31	1.36
Engaging Leadership T1 > Innovative Work Behavior T2	.83**	.40	.04	1.61
<b>Test of team-level mediated effects (2-2-2 model)</b>				
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Team Performance T2	.14ns	.09	-.02	.33
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Team Learning Behavior T2	.44**	.17	.15	.82
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Team Innovation T2	.20*	.11	.01	.49
<b>Test of cross-level mediated effects (2-2-1 model)</b>				
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Job Performance T2	.17*	.07	.01	.49
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Employee Learning T2	.28ns	.11	-.01	.53
Engaging Leadership T1 > Team Work Engagement T2 > Innovative Work Behavior T2	.35ns	.13	-.03	.75
<b>Test of cross-level mediated effects (2-1-1 model)</b>				
Engaging Leadership T1 > Work Engagement T2 > Job Performance T2	.22*	.12	.05	.33
Engaging Leadership T1 > Work Engagement T2 > Employee Learning T2	.22*	.14	.08	.52
Engaging Leadership T1 > Work Engagement T2 > Innovative Work Behavior T2	.32**	.20	.11	.63

\*p &lt; .05. \*\*p &lt; .01

## Discussion

The findings of this study showed at the team level, that team-level engaging leadership at time 1 was positively related to team learning and team innovation at time 2 through TWE at time 2 (H1b, c). At the cross-level, team-level engaging leadership at time 1 was positively related to individual job performance, employee learning, and innovative work behavior at time 2, via WE at time 2 (H3a,b,c). These results confirmed earlier research on engaging leadership and work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova et al., 2019; Rahmadani et al., 2019), and on work engagement and job outcomes such as job performance, employee learning and innovative work behavior (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Christian, Graza &

Slaughter, 2011); Schaufeli, 2012; Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008).

### Theoretical Contributions

Mediated by team work engagement at time 2, there were significant relations between the team-level effect of team-level engaging leadership at time 1 and team outcomes at time 2 namely, team learning and team innovation at time 2, however, the link was not significant between engaging leadership time 1 to team performance time 2 (H1a). Contrary to the previous research on mediating effect of TWE on team performance (Torrente et al., 2012), our first-part hypothesis (H1a) was not supported perhaps for the cultural and group characteristic reasons.

Indonesian culture has collectivistic culture orientation (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) which is illustrated by the fact that most employees in this study have a long tenure; more than 80 percent work in this company for more than 10 years, and almost 50 percent work in the same team for more than 10 years. This long tenure may have contributed to a high level of cohesiveness and conformity in the teams. One of the negative sides of highly-cohesive groups, groupthink, may therefore exist in the work teams. Groupthink may prevent individual team members from voicing dissenting opinions, which, in its turn, might hinder team performance (Tollefsen, 2006).

Furthermore, mediated by team work engagement at time 2, the relation between the cross-level effect of team-level engaging leadership and individual job outcomes at time 2 was only significant for job performance. In contrast, the associations with employee learning and innovative work behavior at time 2 (H2b,c) were not significant. Having supportive interaction and positive climate of TWE among their team members, employees share their knowledge and exchange ideas with a higher chance, thus, they perhaps did not consider their effort as an individual effort in learning and innovating as an individual effort (H2b,c were not supported) but more as a collective effort, namely team learning and team innovation (H1b,c were supported). Moreover, a highly cohesive team might inhibit team members initiating discretionary effort in teams, which might foster team performance (H1a was not supported). Yet, the positive climate of a cohesive team worked for individual job performance; that is, TWE stimulates employees to perform better (H2a was supported).

It seems that the shared positive emotion of team work engagement fosters a positive climate that only works for individual performance but not for team performance. As a matter of fact, the cohesiveness-performance relationship is stronger when cohesiveness is defined in terms of commitment to the group task, rather than as emotional attraction (Kelly, 2008). Thus, in addition to the mediating role of team work engagement in the relationship between leadership-team performance, future research might consider specific team-level moderating variables that may

influence the leadership-TWE-team performance relationship, such as group norms and task orientation.

Additionally, even though the current research suggests that organizational environment variables are important to foster employee learning and innovative work behavior, earlier research on innovative behavior was primarily concerned with individual characteristics (e.g. personality and motivation) (Park, Song, Yoon, & Kim, 2014), which may also apply for employee learning. This speculation is supported by the confirmation of hypotheses 3a-c that assumes that the link between team-level engaging leadership and individual job outcomes is mediated by individual work engagement.

Furthermore, drawing on the IMOI (Input-Mediator-Output-Input) team effectiveness framework (Ilgen, et al., 2005), team-level engaging leadership and team work engagement can be included as promising Input and Mediator in team studies, especially, in predicting team learning and team innovation. Moreover, as suggested by Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, and Jundt (2005) to study the multilevel and dynamic nature of teams, the current research presents the cross-level effect of team-level input to the individual output via team and individual mediator. As an input, the team-level engaging leadership has multiple effects on teams and individual team members, thus, it acts as a positive antecedent in learning and innovation in team.

Drawing upon the JD-R model and SDT, instead of including leadership as a specific antecedent, supervisors' support was considered as one of the job resources. Nevertheless, leaders play an important role in managing job and organizational resources, which are necessary to achieve individual and team goals. As is illustrated in the current study, engaging leaders increased team and individual job outcomes, via team work engagement and individual work engagement. Thus, the current study extends research on work engagement by integrating engaging leadership in the motivational process of the JD-R model and examining it at the team-level analysis. By integrating findings from individual research of work engagement into the JD-R model, we introduce the concept of engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani et al, 2019). By combining the engaging leadership research model with a two-wave multilevel study, our research model increases our understanding of team-level engaging leadership, as we can now explain how team-level engaging leadership fosters learning and innovation both at the team level and individual level.

Positive leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Tims et al, 2011) and authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010) have a positive relationship with work engagement, however, none of them specifically focused on fostering work engagement. Thus, the leadership concept used in the current study answers the call of academia and business to find a narrow leadership construct to foster engagement by introducing a new specific theory-based leadership concept, namely engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2015). As

suggested by Bormann and Rowold (2018), to avoid the construct proliferation in leadership studies, the introduction of a new leadership concept is suggested to be related with relevant outcomes, in our case, to increase work engagement.

### **Practical Implications**

Following Albrecht, Breidahl, and Marty (2018)'s suggestion to promote organizational engagement climate, job resources, and work engagement, organizations and human resources management may perform baseline and feedback surveys to determine the extent to which employees perceived engaging behaviors of their leaders. Furthermore, leaders can be trained or coached (Byrne, 2015) as engaging leaders that strengthen, empower, connect, and inspire their employees.

Organizations and HR Departments could employ team training to improve their team work engagement, since this aspect of team functioning benefited the collective positive climate in teams, and subsequently benefited their team outcomes, such as team learning and team innovation. For example, a team-based intervention to enhance teamwork and staff engagement was successfully tested in a medical unit in an acute care hospital, resulting in positive outcomes (Kalisch, Curley, & Stevanov, 2007).

The education can be given to the team members about the fact that their work engagement and performance might depend on their interaction in their teams and their shared perceptions toward their leaders. Having an open positive relationship in teams is necessary not only for the employees individually, but also for the team as a whole. Moreover, engaged employees are encouraged to exhibit their positivity to their teams by sharing good news, expressing enthusiasm to induce collective engagement.

Determining team and individual outcomes are important in terms of revealing which mechanism is more prominent to boost specific relevant outcomes. Based on our study, individual outcomes are better predicted by individual work engagement while team outcomes are better predicted by team work engagement. For example, leaders who want to achieve team learning and team innovation may emphasize fostering the team work engagement. From a review, Saks and Gruman (2014) can be concluded that a specific job resource will be related to a specific psychological condition, that eventually will be related to a specific type of employee engagement, such as work engagement, task engagement, or team engagement.

### **Limitations and Future Research Direction**

First, we tested our research model based on one source of data that is, employees, and with one method only, namely the self-report survey. However, Spector (2006) argues that the problem



of common method variance (CMV), a bias that occurs when both predictors and predicted variables stem from the same source, is overstated. Nevertheless, future research is needed to attest our research model using multisource and multimethod data, for example, using a supervisor's behavior checklist, observation, or peer rating.

Second, the current study also relied on a specific sample collected from one Indonesian holding company in the agricultural industry that might raise a generalizability concern. Even though data from one organization is better in capturing the organizational specificity (as opposed to snowball methods of data collection), caution is warranted when implementing our results to other organizations. Future research is needed to replicate our research model in different settings in terms of companies and industries. Moreover, future research may also be needed to test the research model in other cultures such as Western and African cultures. The Indonesian culture is specifically characterized as collectivistic with high power distance, which may therefore limit generalization to other cultures.

Third, we focused on (team) work engagement as a main mediator to clarify the relation of team-level engaging leadership on job outcomes at the team and individual level. Research on teams about team learning and innovation mostly used self-directed (self-managed) teams with non-routine types of task; such as IT teams or high-tech and healthcare teams (Kontoghiorghes, Awbre, & Feurig, 2005; Widmann, Messmann, & Mulder, 2016). In the present research, we did not control for the team interdependency and the type of task. Future research may replicate our research model using the aforementioned characteristics of the team works.

## Conclusion

Rapid changes in the business environment create pressures on organizations to respond timely and effectively and, as a consequence, demand their team works to perform, learn, and innovate continuously. Integrating the current results of work engagement with the JD-R model and combining these with the recent leadership literature on work engagement, this study contributes to the multilevel explanation of engaging leadership on job outcomes. Over time, team-level engaging leadership increases (team) work engagement by stimulating a shared positive affect in within the teams, which, in its turn, fosters job outcomes at team level (team performances, team learning, and team innovation), and the individual level (job performance, employee learning, innovative work behavior).

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## CHAPTER 6

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### General Discussion

Four empirical studies have been conducted to probe the relationship between engaging leadership, (team) work engagement, and job outcomes both at individual and team levels. Results largely supported our hypotheses. In the following sections, these results will be discussed in light of the theoretical implications and practical considerations for organizations.

#### Theoretical Implications

*Engaging leadership is a specific leadership style that fosters work engagement through an underlying mechanism of basic psychological need satisfaction, as stipulated by SDT*

The findings of Study 1 (Chapter 2) align with previous studies that investigated the role of basic need satisfaction at work as mediating variable for increasing employee wellbeing, such as work engagement (Deci et al., 2001; Van den Broeck et al., 2008; Van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker; 2018). However, this current dissertation measured a more specific type of leadership which fosters work engagement as the independent variable, and tested its relationship with work engagement, as mediated by basic need satisfaction. It was found that the mediation model was confirmed in two different countries (Indonesia and Russia) with two different occupational samples (blue-collar employees who work in production units in an Indonesian state-owned company and white-collar employees who work as civil servants at a Russian government agency). Thus, this current dissertation confirms Schaufeli's (2015) assumption about the mediating role of basic need satisfaction at work as the underlying mechanism that might explain why engaging leadership might lead to work engagement. The cross-national validation of the model strengthens the claim that engaging leadership is associated with basic needs satisfaction, which, in its turn, is related to work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015). Moreover, it seemed that the additional basic need – the need for meaningfulness – plays a similar mediating role along with the three original basic needs, albeit that when this need was studied separately, mediation was only observed in the Russian and not in the Indonesian sample. Perhaps this is due to the differences in occupation rather than the country.

*The JD-R model can be extended by including engaging leadership and basic psychological need satisfaction*

Building upon the JD-R framework and SDT, Study 2 (Chapter 3) validates and extends the motivational part of JD-R model (Demerouti et al, 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014, 2017) by

introducing engaging leadership as a specific antecedent of work engagement rather than including it as a mere job resource. Previous studies using the JD-R model showed that supervisory social support, which was conceived a regular job resource, is positively related to work engagement (e.g. Seppälä et al. 2015; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). However, engaging leadership is more than just giving support and providing help. As leaders may positively influence their employees' work engagement, both directly through the relationship with their followers and indirectly through managing and allocating job resources (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & van den Heuvel, 2015), engaging leaders also strengthen, empower, connect, and inspire their followers.

Furthermore, the mediating role of work-related basic need satisfaction as one of the underlying mechanisms that may explain the relation between job resources and engagement was included in the research model. Previously in Chapter 2, the mediating role of basic need satisfaction in the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement has been supported, using a cross-sectional design. Other studies also showed that basic need satisfaction mediates the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Van den Broeck et al., 2008; Van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker; 2018). Thus, it was hypothesized that basic needs satisfaction mediates the relationship between job resources and work engagement. Additionally, and most importantly, a sequential mediation was predicted: engaging leadership increases work engagement, via job resources and basic needs satisfaction, respectively.

The findings of Study 2 (Chapter 3) suggest that engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement across a one-year period both directly as well as indirectly through job resources and subsequent basic needs satisfaction. For the first time, the associations involving basic needs satisfaction have been confirmed using a longitudinal sample. It seems that engaging leaders increase their follower's levels of job resources, which leads to basic needs satisfaction, which, in its turn, is associated with an increase in work engagement. This result is in line with previous cross-sectional findings that showed that engaging leadership is positively associated with job resources (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova et.al, 2019), that job resources are positively associated with basic needs satisfaction (Van Wingerden, Derks, & Bakker, 2018), and that basic needs satisfaction are positively associated with work engagement (Van den Broeck et al, 2008; Rahmadani et al, 2019).

*Both engaging leadership and transformational leadership are similarly positively correlated with work engagement, but also seem to be commentary*

This present dissertation, particularly Study 3 (Chapter 4), adds to the leadership and the engagement literature by simultaneously including both engaging leadership and transformational leadership. Our results are in line with previous findings, showing that both transformational and engaging leadership have a positive correlation with work engagement (Tims, Bakker, &

Xanthopoulou, 2011; Breevaart et al., 2014; De Beer & Schaufeli, 2018;). In a similar vein, a recent meta-analysis found that various leadership styles are positively related to work engagement, such as ethical leadership ( $k = 9$ ;  $\rho = .58$ ), transformational leadership ( $k = 36$ ;  $\rho = .46$ ), servant leadership ( $k = 3$ ;  $\rho = .43$ ), authentic leadership ( $k = 17$ ;  $\rho = .38$ ), and empowering leadership ( $k = 4$ ;  $\rho = .35$ ) (DeCuyper & Schaufeli, 2018). Both transformational and engaging leadership promote a positive work environment by giving support and feedback, and by empowering and inspiring with a clear vision. Subsequently, both leadership styles increase employee motivation and stimulate work engagement.

Our study tested two different positive leadership styles simultaneously – engaging and transformational leadership – and it was found that considerable overlap exists. Yet both leadership styles seem to be complementary as they both contribute independently in explaining variance in work engagement. Inspirational motivation and individualized consideration as elements of transformational leadership increase engagement in ways that are similar to inspiring and strengthening as elements of engaging leadership (Soane, 2014). Seen from this perspective it is not surprising that we observed considerable overlap between transformational and engaging leadership; they include partly the same elements. However, both leadership styles also differ in the sense that transformational leadership does not include connecting employees, whereas engaging leadership does not include idealized influence. Hence, each leadership style also includes a unique element, which explains that both styles are independently related to work engagement.

*A local indigenous Indonesian concept – diuwongke – moderates the association between engaging leadership and work engagement.*

Our Study 3 (Chapter 4) specifies under which circumstances leadership is associated with work engagement in an Indonesian cultural context. To that end, an indigenous Javanese-Indonesian moderating variable is introduced, namely *diuwongke*, that refers to employees' perception of their leaders treating them with dignity and respect at work. Study 3 answers the call from cross-cultural organizational behavior and psychology research for examining cultural values (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Thus, by including *diuwongke* this dissertation contributes to cross-cultural research on leadership and engagement. As expected, it was found that *diuwongke* interacts with engaging leadership in fostering work engagement. However, against our expectations, only employees with average and low levels of *diuwongke* seem to benefit from engaging leadership in the sense that for these employees' higher levels of work engagement were observed. In contrast, employees with high levels of *diuwongke* do not benefit from engaging leadership; their levels of engagement do not increase. Obviously, for

employees low in *diuwongke*, who feel less valued and recognized by their supervisor, the leader's strengthening, inspiring, connecting and empowering behaviors are particularly important to enhance work engagement. It can be speculated that low *diuwongke* is 'compensated' by engaging leadership, and vice versa, as some overlap exists between both concepts.

*Team-level engaging leadership can be integrated in the JD-R model*

The findings of Study 4 (Chapter 5) showed that team-level engaging leadership predicted team learning and team innovation one year later, via team work engagement (TWE). In a similar vein, but cross-level, team-level engaging leadership predicted individual job performance, employee learning, and innovative work behavior one year later, via individual work engagement. These results confirm earlier cross-sectional (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani et al., 2019) and longitudinal (Nikolova et al., 2019) research on engaging leadership and work engagement, and on work engagement and job outcomes such as job performance, employee learning and innovative work behavior (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Schaufeli, 2012; Christian, Graza & Slaughter, 2011; Schaufeli, 2012; Chang, Hsu, Liou, & Tsai, 2013; Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008).

By including team-level engaging leadership into the JD-R model and examining its relationships with team and individual job outcomes via TWE, this dissertation contributes to the literature in two ways. First, the research findings extend the motivational process of the JD-R model by testing it at the aggregated team level, whereby team-level engaging leadership predicts team-level job outcomes via team work engagement. Previously, virtually all research using the JD-R model examined variables that were assessed at the individual level. The current PhD also answers the call to apply JD-R theory using aggregated team measures that reflect the shared perceptions of team members' leadership, job outcomes, and work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Second, the findings validate and extend the motivational process of JD-R model by testing cross-level effects of team-level engaging leadership on individual-level job outcomes via team work engagement as well as individual work engagement. It appears that team-level engagement and individual engagement play a similar mediating role in connecting engaging leadership at team level with team- and individual outcomes, respectively. This suggests a parallel underlying mechanism at team and individual level. All in all, our findings provide insights into the complex nature of the leaders-follower and leader-team relationships.

### **Future Research Directions and Limitations**

Besides the aforementioned theoretical implications, some promising future avenues for research can be identified.

*Is need for meaningfulness is a promising basic need?*

In this dissertation, need for meaningfulness was added as a supplementary basic need in addition to the three original basic needs as stipulated by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Although the need for meaningfulness has not been identified as a separate basic need by SDT so far, theoretical and empirical arguments have been proposed in its favor (e.g. Andersen, Chen, Carter, 2000; Hadden & Smith, 2019). Need for meaningfulness has similar motivational characteristics as basic psychological needs and it promotes well-being. Based on two diary studies, Hadden and Smith (2019) argued that the need for meaning is a robust predictor of psychological well-being and it is uniquely correlated with well-being indicators, even in the presence of the three other basic needs.

From the findings of Study 1 (Chapter 2), which tested whether the need for meaningfulness can be considered a constituent element of psychological need satisfaction, it appeared that an additional basic need – the need for meaningfulness – plays a similar mediating role, although when this need was studied separately from the other needs, mediation was only observed in the Russian and not in the Indonesian sample. Perhaps this is due to the differences in occupation rather than country. Specifically, in the Indonesian sample employees occupy job positions where meaning is inherently linked with the content of the job. In agricultural industry the meaning and importance of one's work are obvious, namely producing foodstuff; in this case palm oil. In other words, the fulfillment of the need for meaningfulness is more or less taken for granted and therefore it is unlikely to have an effect on work engagement. In contrast, the employees in the Russian sample work in an administrative government agency where they complete more abstract tasks, whose meaning might not always be evident for them. In case these employees nevertheless find meaning in their work – and hence satisfy their need for meaningfulness – this is likely to have a positive impact on their level of work engagement. Further research is needed to confirm these speculations about the different role of need for meaningfulness in different occupational contexts.

*Is basic needs satisfaction the underlying mechanism for the effects of engaging leadership?*

The findings of Study 2 (Chapter 3) suggest that engaging leadership predicts an increase in work engagement across a one-year period, both directly as well as indirectly through job resources and subsequent basic needs satisfaction. Our research suggests that such resourceful jobs satisfy the employee's basic needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness and meaningfulness, which, in their turn increase work engagement. Hence, basic needs satisfaction was identified as an underlying mechanism that may explain the positive effect of engaging leadership on work engagement. It seems, however, that the positive impact of engaging leadership on work engagement is not simply mediated by basic needs satisfaction alone, but that the picture is more complex. This means that future studies may explore alternative explanations of positive relationship between engaging

leadership and work engagement. According to DeCuyper and Schaufeli (2018), positive leaders directly influence employee engagement through three pathways: emotional contagion (affective interpersonal pathway), social exchange (cognitive interpersonal pathway), and role modeling (behavioral interpersonal pathway). Thus, more research is needed to explore alternative explanations for the positive relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement.

*Does engaging leadership matter for work engagement, over and above transformational leadership?*

It was found that considerable overlap exists between engaging and transformational leadership. Yet, to some extent engaging and transformational leadership were also found to be complementary. Inspirational motivation and individualized consideration as elements of transformational leadership increase engagement in ways that are similar to inspiring and strengthening as elements of engaging leadership (Soane, 2014). Seen from this perspective it is not surprising that we observed considerable overlap between transformational and engaging leadership; they include partly the same elements. However, both leadership styles also differ in the sense that transformational leadership does not include connecting employees, whereas engaging leadership does not include idealized influence (Schaufeli, 2015). Hence, each leadership style also includes a unique element, which explains that both styles contribute independently to explaining variance in work engagement.

While the combination of engaging leadership and average/low levels of *diuwongke* contributed to employees' work engagement, this interaction was not observed for transformational leadership. *Diuwongke* and engaging leadership both stress the benefit of building and maintaining good relationships (connecting), also between leaders and their followers. In contrast, the transformational leadership measure that we used in this study focuses on the promotion of employee's own and organization's goals. As a result, the interaction effect of *diuwongke* and transformational leadership on work engagement is less likely to occur. Future studies may further explore the differential aspect of engaging leadership and transformational leadership (i.e., connecting employees).

Future studies could also explore the unique contributions of other positive leadership styles such as ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005, which focuses on ethical behavior, servant leadership (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014), which focuses on being selfless and servant as a leader and attuned to the needs and development of employees, authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010), which focuses on being self-aware and authentic, and empowering leadership (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), which focuses on empowering employees. Relating each of these leadership styles simultaneously with engaging leadership to

work engagement would identify their unique contributions. These issues may be worthy of further investigation and could be considered when designing new studies. For instance, van Dierendonck and Euwema (2019) suggested further exploration of the overlap and differences between the four dimensions of engaging leadership and the six dimensions of servant leadership which lead to satisfying the four basic needs, and subsequently, increasing work engagement.

*Is diuwongke 'compensated' by engaging leadership?*

The lack of interaction between engaging leadership and employee's high levels of *diuwongke* may be explained by Uncertainty Management Theory (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2011). According to this theory, the relationship between context perceptions and performance will be stronger for low-quality supervisor-employee exchange relationships in which high levels of uncertainty are experienced as this low-quality relationship is comparable with low *diuwongke*. Employees with high *diuwongke* receive more support, information and rewards from their supervisors, thus, their feeling of uncertainty is lower, and they are therefore more certain about their current performance. In contrast, employees with low *diuwongke* receive less information from their supervisors that allows them to know how well they are performing. Because of this uncertainty, employees will increase their efforts to meet the performance standards based on their past experiences. This implies that context perceptions (comparable to engaging leader behaviors) and performance (comparable to work engagement) are stronger for low-quality supervisor-employee exchange relationship (comparable to low *diuwongke*). However, again, further research is needed and for now any conclusions should be considered with caution.

*Do engaging leaders predict future team performance via team work engagement, or not?*

Contrary to the previous research on mediating effect of TWE on team performance (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012), in Study 4 no significant effect of team-level engaging leadership was observed on future team performance via team work engagement. The speculative reason for this result has to do with cultural and specific group characteristic. Indonesian collectivistic culture orientation (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) and employees' long tenure may have contributed to a high level of cohesiveness and conformity in the teams. Thus, groupthink may exist in the work teams, which, in its turn, might hinder team performance (Tollefsen, 2006). Future research on team-level effects should therefore use teams that also include less tenured members.



*Does team-level engaging leadership predict future employee learning and innovative work behavior via team work engagement, or not?*

The cross-level hypothesis specifying the relationship between team-level engaging leadership and future employee learning and innovative work behavior – via team work engagement – was not supported. One possible explanation is the team members who have supportive interactions and experience a positive team climate, more easily share their knowledge and hence constitute a solid team. However, in our case it is likely were that teams were cohesive simply because team membership was stable across a long time period so that team members perhaps did not consider their effort as an individual effort in learning and innovating, but more of a team effort. On the other hand, the cross-level hypothesis specifying the relationship between team-level engaging leadership and future employee learning and innovative work behavior, via work engagement, was supported. Thus, the current research suggests that team-level engaging leadership is important to foster employee learning and innovative work behavior. Nonetheless, only individual work engagement is identified as a mediator but not team work engagement.

It seems that the shared positive emotion of team work engagement fosters a positive climate that only works for individual performance but not for team performance. Future research may take group characteristics into account, such as group cohesiveness. Studies show that the cohesiveness-performance relationship is stronger when cohesiveness is defined in terms of commitment to the group task, rather than as emotional attraction (e.g., Kelly, 2008). Thus, in addition to the mediating role of team work engagement in the relationship between leadership-team performance, future research might consider specific team-level moderating variables that may influence the leadership-TWE-team performance relationship, such as group norms and task orientation. Moreover, replication of this study is needed in order to examine whether individual job outcomes are indeed better predicted by work engagement than team work engagement in relation to engaging leadership.

### *Limitations*

Several limitations of this present dissertation should be addressed. First, all variables in all studies were collected using self-report surveys filled out by employees. Hence, it is possible responses may suffer from common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), despite the use of a longitudinal study design. However, in our studies, we tested the presence of possible CMV using Harman's Single Factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) which is based on confirmatory factor analysis. Future research would be need to use mixed methods and mixed sources of data, for example, using a behavior checklist in determining engaging behaviors by the leaders themselves, or using independent rater to observe engaging behaviors shown by the leaders (Robijn, Schaufeli, Deprez & Euwema, 2019). Also, more objective performance (team) outcomes

could be used such as productivity, efficiency, work quality, retention, absence, turnover and so on (Mathieu, Hollenbeck, van Knippenberg, & Ilgen, 2017).

Second, Study 1 (Chapter 2) and Study 3 (Chapter 4) used a cross-sectional design, so that conclusions regarding the directions of causality among variables cannot be drawn. In contrast, Study 2 (Chapter 3) and Study 4 (Chapter 5) used a two-wave longitudinal design with a one-year time interval. Although the cross-sectional mediating role of basic need satisfaction between engaging leadership and work engagement (Study 1) could be replicated and qualified longitudinally (Study 2), study designs with more than two waves are superior because they allow an even better test of mediation (Taris & Kompier, 2006). Alternatively, diary studies on engaging leadership may add more evidence for the causal patterns. For instance, Breevaart et al (2014) carried out a diary study on the effects of transformational leadership on work engagement that showed that followers were more engaged on days that their leader showed more transformational leadership and provided contingent reward.

Third, the current dissertation relied on a specific sample collected from an Indonesian holding company in the agricultural industry that might raise a generalizability concern (with the exception of Study 1 that containing data set from Russia). Specifically, most of the participants are blue collars with long tenure. That means that results might differ for white collars and less “old” (and hence less cohesive) teams. Thus, although data from one organization is better in capturing the organizational specificity, caution is warranted when implementing our results to other organizations. Future research is needed to replicate our research findings in different settings in terms of companies, industries but also cultures, since the Indonesian culture is specifically characterized as collectivistic with high power distance, which may therefore limit generalization to other cultures. For example, a comparative study investigating the role of servant leadership between employees in Indonesia and Australia, found that Australian and Indonesian perceived servant leadership as a concept in a similar manner, but they had culture-specific differences on what is considered to be essential among the six dimensions that conceptualize servant leadership (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010).

### **Practical Implications**

Whereas more than fifty percent of leaders agree that increasing employee engagement is a number one management challenge, only fifteen percent of surveyed employees believed that their leaders had the skills to develop follower’s engagement (Czarnowsky, 2008). The present dissertation confirmed that engaging leadership might increase work engagement via basic need satisfaction at work as well as via job resources both at individual level and team levels. So potentially, leaders are able to foster work engagement among their follower’s, both individually, as

well as at team level. Based on the results of the current PhD research, the following practical suggestions can be given for leaders, organizations, and employees, respectively.

### *Leaders*

1. Increase awareness. Leaders need to be aware that they have a crucial role in shaping and nurturing their employees to be engaged and to provide them a resourceful work environment. Following Fowler's (2018) leaders (and HR professionals) should appreciate competencies which are based on SDT and acknowledge their relevance for leadership, particularly in the one-to-one context. For example, leaders who wish to strengthen their employees have to fulfill their need for competence; hence they should discuss how their knowledge and skills could be increased so that they can master new, challenging tasks.
2. Get to know your employees' basic needs and map their job resources. Leaders should try to understand their employees' basic needs, and consider whether employees' have enough job resources to fulfill their basic needs. This allows leaders to assess to what extent their follower's specific psychological needs are satisfied, and discuss with them in which areas these can be improved. Leaders might also list, map and monitor various job resources that might help fulfill employees' basic need and – if necessary – provide employees with specific job resources (Schaufeli, 2017).
3. Display engaging leadership behaviors, namely strengthening, empowering, connecting, and inspiring. Essentially, these behaviors can be learned through role modeling, coaching, and training (Byrne, 2015).
4. Check on employees' level of learning and development continuously. Leaders who help employees setting appropriate learning goals and support pursuing these will contribute to satisfying their need for competence, and hence, eventually increase their work engagement. This can be done, for instance, by performing regular developmental feedback (Fowler, 2018).
5. Act as an engaging leader to all team members collectively and not only focus on individual team members. In that case team work engagement will increase; that is, the shared experience of energy, dedication and absorption.
6. Treat employees with dignity and respect. It is important for leaders to take specific cultural aspects into account when leading employees, such as, for instance, in our Indonesian case the notion of *diuwongke*. This was shown to moderate the positive effect of engaging leadership on employee 's work engagement.

### *Organizations (HR Departments)*

7. Perform baseline and feedback surveys on a regular basis. To start developing of engaging leadership, organizations should assess to what extent employees perceived engaging behaviors of their leaders, as suggested by Albrecht, Breidahl, and Marty (2018). Monitoring employees' job resources and their level of engagement can be done by using an online questionnaire, such as the JD-R monitor (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). After completing the questionnaire, employees get feedback about their scores on – for instance, job resources and work engagement – which can be discussed with their supervisors.
8. Promote engaging leadership through coaching or training programs. Various learning programs can be organized to foster engaging leadership behaviors, such as role-modeling, coaching and mentoring, in-house training, and e-learning. It seems that particularly leadership coaching is a powerful tool (Ely et al., 2010).
9. Employ team work engagement training. TWE reflects the collective, positive climate in teams, and subsequently promotes – as shown in the current PhD – team outcomes, such as team learning and team innovation, as well as individual-level job performance.
10. Build a culture of mutual respect among employees. Employees who feel respected (by their leaders) are more likely to feel engaged at work, particularly when they also have an engaging leader. Hence, organizations may start to build a culture of respect to nurture their engaged employees, as suggested by Huo, Binning, and Molina (2010).

### *Employees*

11. Increase awareness of the leadership-engagement relationship. Let employees find out about the fact that their work engagement and performance might depend on their interaction in their teams and their shared perceptions toward their leaders.
12. Share positive feelings and positive experiences in the teams. It is important to know that sharing positivity induces collective engagement, for instance by sharing good news and overly expressing enthusiasm (Bakker, van Emmerik & Euwema, 2006). Bakker, van Emmerik and Euwema (2006) identified emotional contagion as a crucial crossover mechanism of individual engagement that leads to the emergence of a shared psychological state, such as team work engagement.
13. Be open to the attempts of leaders to strengthen, connect, empower, and inspire. Employees should be aware that their well-being at work – at least to some degree – depends on their leaders. Thus, when their leaders show engaging behaviors, employees should embrace them, for example, by accepting task delegation, learning to use the new technologies, and collaborate with coworkers.

14. Proactively seek satisfaction of basic psychological needs. Employees may work toward their basic need fulfilment, for instance, by asking for challenges from their leaders, looking for opportunities for collaboration with others, and finding meaning in work; in short, by crafting their job in such a way that it matches with their own needs and preferences (Bakker 2010).

### **Final Remark**

Building on the motivational process of the Job Demands Resources model and the key concept of basic psychological needs from Self-Determination Theory, this dissertation concludes that engaging leadership is a leadership style that is specific, firmly rooted in theory, and predicts work engagement both at individual level and team level. In its turn, work engagement may increase job outcomes at individual and team level. However, the present dissertation explains only part of the underlying mechanism of the engaging leadership-work engagement relationship. Thus, more research on engaging leadership is necessary, not only on its underlying mechanisms, but also on interventions to improve engaging leadership and on its unique nature vis-à-vis other positive leadership styles such as ethical leadership, servant leadership, and empowering leadership.

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