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Leadership and work engagement

A conflict management perspective

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Summary

Engaging leadership is a leadership style where leaders fulfil the basic needs of their followers to increase work engagement. Based on Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and the work of Frankl (1992), this leadership behavior should enhance their followers' autonomy through empowering, their competence through strengthening, their relatedness through connecting, and their meaningfulness through inspiring. As more and more organizations are looking for ways to increase the levels of work engagement in their employees, engaging leadership is crucial in achieving this goal. The scope of engaging leadership is, however, limited to an individual perspective, while most work is performed in teams (Marks, Matthieu & Zaccaro, 2001). While working in teams has many benefits, negative processes as team conflict are also present (De Dreu, 2008). The effect of team conflict on positive types of well-being as work engagement and the role of leadership in this process is, however, not frequently researched. This dissertation aims to investigate the emerging concept of engaging leadership at individual and team level from a team conflict perspective.

After an introductory chapter, Chapter 2 presents the first empirical study, where engaging leadership is investigated from a multi-trait, multi-method perspective (MTMM) to study the different dimensions (i.e. empowering, strengthening, connecting, inspiring) of engaging leadership from the perspective of four different types of raters (i.e. self, followers, supervisor, and colleagues). The study provided evidence that a general engaging leadership scale was preferred over a model that differentiates between different dimensions. Follower, supervisor, and colleague-ratings were found to be highly correlated. In Chapter 3, we present a study where we investigate the premise of engaging leadership. As conceptualized, engaging leadership was related to work engagement, through basic needs satisfaction. Furthermore, we examined the role of open conflict norms; a team process in which team members can address conflicts openly and constructively. Open conflict norms was related to work engagement, mediated by basic needs satisfaction. Additionally, we found that engaging leadership also had an impact on open conflict norms. Chapter 4 provides evidence of the mediating role of conflict and its management between leadership and performance. This chapter includes two empirical studies. In the first study, we investigated the impact of team conflict on team performance in addition to basic needs satisfaction. Both, team conflict and basic needs satisfaction were related to engaging leadership. In the second study, we investigated how leadership is related to team conflict. We used a multi-level mediation model where both open conflict norms and peacemaking mediated the relationship between engaging leadership and team conflict. While both mediators were related to engaging leadership, only open conflict norms mediated the relationship between engaging leadership and team conflict. Finally, in Chapter 5 the main results of the studies are summarized. The theoretical and practical implications are discussed, along with limitations of the studies and suggestions for future research.

Samenvatting

Bevlogen leiderschap is een leiderschapsstijl waarbij leiders de basisbehoeften van hun volgers proberen te vervullen om zo hun bevrogenheid te vergroten. Gebaseerd op de zelf-determinatie theorie (Deci & Ryan, 2000) en het werk van Frankl (1992), zou dit leiderschapsgedrag de autonomie van hun volgers moeten vergroten door middel van te empoweren, hun competentie door te versterken, hun verbondenheid door te verbinden en hun betekenis door te inspireren. Aangezien steeds meer organisaties op zoek zijn naar manieren om de bevrogenheid van hun werknemers te vergroten, is bevrogen leiderschap cruciaal om dit doel te bereiken. De scope van bevrogen leiderschap is momenteel echter eerder beperkt tot een individueel perspectief, terwijl het meeste werk in teams wordt uitgevoerd (Marks, Matthieu & Zaccaro, 2001). Hoewel het werken in teams veel voordelen heeft, zijn er ook negatieve processen als teamconflict (De Dreu, 2008). Het effect van conflict op positieve vormen van welzijn als bevrogenheid en de rol van leiderschap in dit proces is echter nog niet vaak onderzocht. Dit proefschrift heeft tot doel het nieuwe concept van bevrogen leiderschap op individueel en teamniveau te onderzoeken vanuit een teamconflict perspectief.

Na een inleidend hoofdstuk presenteert Hoofdstuk 2 de eerste empirische studie, waarin bevrogen leiderschap wordt onderzocht vanuit een multi-eigenschap, multi-methode perspectief (MTMM) om de verschillende dimensies (dwz empoweren, versterken, verbinden, inspireren) van bevrogen leiderschap te bestuderen vanuit het perspectief van vier verschillende types beoordelaars (dwz zelf, volgers, supervisor en collega's). De studie leverde bewijs dat een model met een algemene bevrogen leiderschapsschaal de voorkeur had boven een model dat onderscheid maakt tussen verschillende dimensies. De beoordelingen van volgers, leidinggevend en collega's bleken sterk gecorreleerd te zijn. In hoofdstuk 3 presenteren we een studie waarin we het effect van bevrogen leiderschap onderzoeken. Zoals oorspronkelijk opgezet, was bevrogen leiderschap gerelateerd aan bevrogenheid, door middel van het vervullen van basisbehoeften. Verder onderzochten we de rol van open conflictnormen; een teamproces waarin teamleden conflicten open en constructief kunnen aanpakken. Open conflictnormen was gerelateerd aan bevrogenheid, gemedieerd door de basisbehoeften. Bovendien ontdekten we dat bevrogen leiderschap ook een impact had op open conflictnormen in hun team. Hoofdstuk 4 geeft bewijs van de mediërende rol van conflict (management) tussen leiderschap en prestaties. Dit hoofdstuk bevat twee empirische studies. In de eerste studie onderzochten we de impact van teamconflicten op teamprestaties naast de bevrediging van basisbehoeften. Zowel teamconflicten als het vervullen van basisbehoeften hielden verband met bevrogen leiderschap. In de tweede studie hebben we onderzocht hoe leiders teamconflicten kunnen beïnvloeden. We gebruikten een mediatiemodel op twee niveaus waarbij zowel open conflictnormen als peacemaking mediëren tussen bevrogen leiderschap en teamconflict. Hoewel beide concepten gerelateerd waren aan bevrogen leiderschap, medieerde open conflictnormen alleen de relatie tussen bevrogen leiderschap en teamconflict. Ten slotte worden in Hoofdstuk 5 de belangrijkste resultaten van de studies samengevat. De theoretische en praktische implicaties worden besproken, samen met de beperkingen van de studies en suggesties voor toekomstig onderzoek.

Dankwoord

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Chapter 1

General introduction

Preface

As I am writing the final texts of this dissertation, Belgium and most parts of the world are (once again) going into lockdown. A virus strikes. People are asked to stay at home, except for those who have a crucial job in helping us tackle this pandemic. In my environment, some people work at hospitals, in the front line of this crisis while others are temporarily unemployed, and the rest works from home. Schools are closed and most of my friends try to work from home while their kids run around. Like them, I struggle to combine work and the care of my children. For me, work is finishing this dissertation, assisting in some courses and projects, and my job as a leadership trainer and coach. I've been studying leadership, engagement, and conflict for the last four years. I have updated my courses with a steady stream of scientific knowledge and posed new research questions based on intriguing questions from participants. Currently, while most of my colleagues work from home the concept of leadership, engaging leadership, the core of my dissertation, seems to have an extra dimension during this pandemic. People feel anxious, their autonomy is hindered as they cannot choose where they work. They might not feel competent enough with new online tools and experience an overflow of videoconferencing while simultaneously still mastering how to work from home. Everyone misses their colleagues, friends, and family. While comparing themselves and their impact to our new heroes of the crisis, they might question the meaning of their profession and contribution. The media reports increased conflicts at home and at work, many of which are not or badly addressed. This new way of working challenges everyone.

In the midst of this, I am reflecting on the studies of my dissertation. The idea of starting a new study on how engaging leaders can help their employees combat the effects of this crisis on their team members' well-being has come to mind many times. Maybe, I will. Because leaders who will listen to their team members' needs and try to figure out how to improve them will be able to offset some of the negative effects. For example, one leader organized a videoconference-free day because her employees were fed up with the constant flow of new video meetings. Several leaders gave more autonomy to change working hours, which made it possible for employees to combine their work and the care for their children. Leaders and team members organized online coffee breaks or Friday drinks to see each other and talk about everything but work. While some people embraced new communication tools, I also talked to leaders who used their phones more, just because some team

members preferred not to talk over a computer. One of the first emails to the leaders I guide was about how to give people time to adjust to this new way of working. I was happy to hear that many leaders were helping their team members experiment with this new way of working, and that their first goal was to master this before checking off all the other deliverables. As this takes time, I've seen leaders prioritize and explain the main team goal, which inspired their team members. With different communication means, I've seen conflicts arise, but at the same time some leaders took the opportunity to help team members to learn how to deal with these conflicts.

The basic needs of people have changed so drastically in these few months. In the context of work, engaging leaders are now, more than ever, necessary to investigate their team members' needs and to try to satisfy them as much as possible. With these thoughts and remarks on the work I have done for the past four years, I am writing a conclusion, hoping that the world will be different in a couple of months, better, more capable, more inspiring, a place to discuss differences, to give freedom,...

Setting the Scene

Danira is an expert in her team and because of her seniority, she regularly helps colleagues with their work. During their last team meeting, one of her colleagues aggressively disagreed with her. The whole team looked at her, but she didn't know how to react, and instead froze and failed to respond. Disagreements and conflicts are rarely addressed in her team, let alone in team meetings. Feeling overwhelmed, Danira avoids the confrontation. During the next weeks, the conflict lingers and her energy at work is not what it used to be. While her supervisor and colleagues are usually supportive, they felt uneasy and did not show the same support in this situation as they normally would. Should her supervisor have intervened and tried to mediate or solve the conflict? What could he have done to raise her levels of energy during and after this conflict? What is the rest of the team's role?

Organizations, and the jobs they provide, have evolved enormously in the past decades. Human capital has become more important than physical capital (Carleton, 2011) and stable environments are experiencing continuous change. Hierarchical supervision is given way to self-control, empowered teams (Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011), and increased focus on teamwork (Marks, Matthieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Employees are now crafting their own jobs, instead of working according to a detailed job description (Wresniewski & Dutton, 2001; Bakker, 2017). Organizations change their way of working to gain a competitive edge in the business world. Due to the central role of workers, engaged employees are believed to be the key to this competitive edge (Schaufeli, 2012; Bakker, 2017) and are often seen as a result of the previous mentioned organizational changes. Highly engaged employees dive deeply to their work, which leads to key organizational outcomes (Bakker, 2017). This is promising, but these new ways of working also challenge employee engagement as they provide not only opportunities but also possible hindrances, such as team conflict.

Work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by “vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 295). In the past decades, its popularity and the number of studies around it has rapidly increased (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). The reason for this increase might be due to its relation to a wide range of different outcomes on the individual, team, and organizational level. Engaged individuals show better in-role performance

(Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011), extra-role performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), lower turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, 2015a), better financial results (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), and more customer loyalty (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005). Higher levels of engagement are related to openness to new experiences, the amount of creative ideas, and intrapreneurial behavior (Gawke, Gorgievski, & Bakker, 2017). Additionally, as these positive effects are mainly beneficial for the organization, work engagement is also linked to positive emotions, and psychological and physical health (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Thus, engaged employees are energetic and enthusiastic about their work, which leads them to perform and feel better than non-engaged employees while also investing more effort in work than is formally expected (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). This shows that employee well-being and productivity can be reached simultaneously.

Work engagement is mainly studied on the individual level, but it is also relevant on the team level. Firstly, engaged employees are more inclined to help their colleagues (Van Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Secondly, there appears to be cross-over effects of work engagement from one team member to another (Bakker, Van Emmerik, & Euwema, 2006; Gutermann, Lehman-Willenbrock, Boer, Born, & Voelpel, 2017; van Mierlo & Bakker, 2018). Increasing the work engagement of several team members thus affects the team. Finally, work engagement can also be found collectively on the team level, as teamwork engagement (TWE). Engaged teams, as individuals, experience *vigour* as they are willing to invest effort and persistence; *dedication*, as they share a strong involvement in their work as a team; and are *absorbed* in their teamwork as they share focused attention (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014a). While the concept of TWE seems similar to work engagement, the focus is on the shared energy between team members, rather than the sum of individual work engagement (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014b). The effect of TWE is mainly focused on team performance (Torrente, Salanova, Llorens & Schaufeli, 2012). Both individual as team work engagement are an important competitive advantage for organizations. But this is easier said than done.

As the example at the beginning of this chapter displayed, conflicts seem to drain employees' energy and engagement. Because conflict is unavoidable when working in teams (Elgoibar, Euwema, & Munduate, 2017), it is not surprising that conflict and its management are some of the prime predicting processes of the conceptualization of TWE (Costa et al., 2014a). This is, however, rarely investigated in

relation to work engagement on the individual level. In this dissertation, we therefore focus on the relationship between conflict management and work engagement. We take the perspective of the supervisor or leader of the team and investigate if and how he or she can have an impact on the amount of conflict, the management of these conflicts, and how this relates to work engagement. In this first chapter, we start by discussing work engagement and how employees can be engaged in the workplace. Second, we look at the relationship between conflict (management) and well-being in general and work engagement in particular. Next, we will discuss the leader's role in these processes. Finally, we introduce our research questions and discuss how each study in the dissertation further contributes to these research questions.

How to engage individuals?

The study of work engagement is mostly conducted within the framework of the job demand-resources model (JD-R; Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014; Bakker, 2017). The JD-R model proposes that job characteristics can be classified into one of two categories: *job demands*, which are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs, and *job resources*, which are aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and/or stimulating personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). These job demands and resources instigate two different processes. First, a health impairment process, in which job demands predict burnout, which is related to poor performance and lowered employee health. The second process, a motivational process, postulates that job resources are positively related to performance and boost employee health via work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015a; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Additionally, job resources have a negative relationship with burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Some extensions and nuances have been made to the JD-R model. In their meta-analysis, Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010) differentiated job demands into two categories. The first category was *hindrance demands*, such as role conflict or organizational politics, which are stressful and have

the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment. The second category describes *challenge demands*, such as a high workload, time pressure, and high levels of job responsibility, which are demands that promote mastery, personal growth, or future gains. While the former category is perceived as constraints or unnecessary hindrances, the latter can be perceived as opportunities and are positively related to both work engagement and burnout (Crawford et al., 2010). Another extension to the JD-R model is the addition of personal resources. These resources are positive self-evaluations that are linked to resilience and refer to a sense of control and the ability that they can impact their environments successfully (Bakker et al, 2014). Personal resources were found to mediate the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015b), but also fostered job resources in the long run (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Other extensions of the JD-R model give us more insight into how these resources can be altered. One of the most prominent additions to the model is the addition of leadership as an antecedent of job demands and job resources. As work engagement is a relatively new concept, the first studies on the relation between leadership and work engagement started a decade ago. Carasco-Saul, Kim, and Kim (2015) found 16 studies addressing this relationship, where leadership is mostly an antecedent of work engagement, either as a direct effect or through a mediator. Transformational leadership was found to increase work engagement, partially mediated by optimism (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011), responsibility and meaningfulness (Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009), and also through job resources (Hawkes, Biggs & Hegerty, 2017). Other leadership styles such as authentic, charismatic, and ethical leadership, also had a positive relationship with work engagement, while role clarification, organizational culture, and empowerment mediated this relationship (Carasco-Saul et al., 2015). In the original JD-R model, leadership was treated as a mere job resource (Schaufeli, 2015a). The role of leaders, however, is more complex as leaders are supposed to balance both job demands and resources. Leadership was, therefore, re-positioned in the JD-R model as an antecedent of job demands, job resources, and personal resources (Schaufeli, 2015b; Bakker, 2017), which, in their turn, affected work engagement (and burnout).

As the JD-R model is a rather descriptive model (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), the explanation of why and how job resources (and demands) impact employees in a particular way must be found in other theories, such as Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). This motivational theory

proposes three basic psychological needs: the need for competence (feeling effective), relatedness (feeling loved and cared for), and autonomy (feeling a sense of volition). Using the JD-R model, studies found that job demands will decrease while job resources increase basic needs satisfaction (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). In turn, these needs are linked to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A recent meta-analytic review shows that satisfaction of these needs in the workplace are positively related to employee well-being (including work engagement) and negatively related to strains (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016).

Combining our understanding of the leadership extension of the JD-R model and the basic needs from SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), leaders should thus decrease job demands and increase job resources to strengthen work engagement and decrease burnout. Prior studies found that transformational leadership is related to the fulfillment of employees' basic needs (Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, & Van Dick, 2012; Kovjanic, Schuh, & Jonas, 2013), whereas leaders who's style is more "management by exception" rather thwart these needs (Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011). In general, positive leadership styles were found to be positively related to all three basic needs (Van den Broeck et al., 2016), which are, in turn, related to work engagement. Furthermore, leadership was related to task performance through a path of respectively job resources, basic needs, and then work engagement (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleebos, & Maduro, 2014).

As basic needs appear to be central to motivating employees, Schaufeli (2015a; 2016) introduced the concept of engaging leadership, which integrates leadership in the JD-R model through basic needs satisfaction. He argued that leaders can increase their employees' level of work engagement by focusing on satisfying their basic needs. Thus, engaging leadership is based on the premise that leaders can motivate their followers by increasing their competence through strengthening (e.g., delegating tasks, encouraging followers to use their strengths), by increasing relatedness through connecting (e.g., encouraging collaboration, promoting a high team spirit), and by increasing autonomy through empowering (e.g., granting freedom and responsibility, encouraging to voice one's own opinion) (Schaufeli, 2016). Also, an additional need was proposed: the need for meaningfulness. Based on the work of Frankl (1992), meaningfulness refers to perceiving one's work as particularly meaningful and significant. Research suggests that employees in jobs with more job resources (e.g. autonomy, skill variety, task identity) experience more meaningfulness, which, in turn, contributes to work

engagement, but also to other positive outcomes (e.g. performance, stress, personal fulfilment; Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). Furthermore, meaningful work was found to be critical to a good job (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Meaningfulness is thus similar to other basic needs of SDT and can be seen as an additional underlying need for work engagement. Apart from empowering, strengthening, and connecting, engaging leaders increase meaningfulness through inspiring (e.g. by enthusing them over goals and plans, and making them feel that they contribute to an important objective).

While this particular operationalization of engaging leadership is new, the concept of engaging leadership as such has been introduced before (Alimo-Metcalfe, Alban-Metcalfe, Bradley, Mariathasan, & Samele, 2008; Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). It was placed in a broader framework where engaging leadership (or ‘nearby transformational leadership’ as it was also called) has a focus on how leaders behave and is complemented by leadership competencies (e.g. communication, planning, developing individual potential), which describe what leaders do. While both concepts share some contents (i.e. a focus on the individual), the concept of nearby transformational leadership is broader, as there is more focus on the team and future-related aspects (e.g. building a shared vision and facilitating change sensitively). However, the main difference between these leadership styles is how they were developed. The first version of engaging leadership was developed using the methodology of Grounded Theory (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013), whereas Schaufeli’s concept was based on existing theories as SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2001) and the work of Frankl (1992). While both ways are valid to develop new concepts, some scholars called for more theoretically founded concepts of leadership (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013) as it will help us to identify the underlying mechanisms of leadership behavior. For this dissertation, as our main outcome will be work engagement, we will focus on the new operationalization of engaging leadership by Schaufeli (2015a; 2016) as it is specifically designed to increase this type of well-being.

While engaging leadership seems promising and is used as one of the central concepts of this dissertation, its premise (i.e. leaders engage followers through the satisfaction of their basic needs), was not studied before the start of this dissertation. In the last two years, including the studies in this dissertation, the premise has been studied in Russia, Indonesia, Belgium, and the Netherlands (Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, & Osin, 2019; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Stouten, Zhang, & Zulkarnain, 2020; Robijn, Euwema, Schaufeli, & Deprez, 2020; Van Tuin, Schaufeli, & Van Rhenen, 2020).

Furthermore, all studies on engaging leadership were operationalized with follower-ratings. More research, both on the premise and with different raters, will enhance our understanding of engaging leadership and more generally give us insights into how leaders can engage individuals.

Conflict and its management: a positive approach

While leadership has now a more prominent role in the JD-R model, other interpersonal processes remain less investigated. These team processes might be a crucial addition, as work has shifted from individual work towards teamwork during the last decades (Marks et al., 2001). The presence of social support, for example, is frequently added as a resource in early and recent research on the JD-R model (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Schaufeli, 2015a). Other examples are team cohesion, team atmosphere, or team potency. While this is important, the latter concepts remain rather subjective or refer to an emergent state rather than a process that a leader (or co-worker) can influence. Team processes differ from emergent states, as they constitute a team member's activities and involve the interaction of team members, rather than being an individual's subjective cognitive, motivational or affective state (Marks et al., 2001; Costa et al., 2014a).

One of the key processes in teams is conflict among team members and the related conflict behaviors (De Dreu, 2008; Elgoibar et al, 2017). Conflict in a team can be described as “the process emerging from perceived incompatibilities or differences among group members” (de Wit, Greer, & Jehn 2012, p. 360). Referring to the conflict source, conflicts are often categorized as a task (i.e. disagreements among team members about the content and outcomes of the tasks), a relation (i.e. disagreements among team members about interpersonal issues), or a process conflict (disagreements among team members about the logistics of task accomplishments; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; de Wit et al., 2012).

Most evidence points out a negative relation between team conflict and both the performance and well-being of team members. For task conflict, however, this relationship is not always found. The reasoning is that task conflict is possibly functional and stimulating because it might bring up issues that might otherwise not be considered. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) claimed that both task and

relationship conflict are related negatively to team performance. However, later studies (De Dreu, 2008; de Wit et al., 2012; O'Neill, Allen, & Hastings, 2013), show a more nuanced view. De Dreu (2008) argues that the positive effect of task conflict is limited to innovation and decision quality. Later, a meta-analysis confirmed that task conflict is positively related to team performance, as a team's main focus is decision-making instead of production or project work (O'Neill et al., 2013). Another meta-analysis (de Wit et al., 2012) found this positive effect of task conflict among top-management teams. However, it was not present in teams operating at other levels of the organization and it was mainly limited to distal work outcomes, such as team performance.

While conflict is deemed to be usually present in teams and linked with both wellbeing and performance, the relationship between conflict and positive types of well-being, such as work engagement have received limited attention. Most of the research on conflict outcomes on individuals is focused on some form of strain and its negative effect on health (de Dreu, van Dierendonck, & Dijkstra, 2004; Römer, Rispens, Giebels, & Euwema, 2012). Some studies did investigate the effect of conflict on positive wellbeing concepts and found that interpersonal conflicts were negatively associated with team satisfaction (De Dreu & Van Vianen, 2001), and work engagement (Chen, Zhang, & Vogel, 2011; Sulea, Virga, Maricutoiu, Schaufeli, Dimitru, & Sava, 2012). As conflicts at work are described usually as demands (Schaufeli, 2015a; Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2015), they will mainly be negatively related to basic needs satisfaction (Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

However, not only the amount of conflict is important for team functioning. Work engagement is higher when there is a positive climate for conflict management (Einarsen, Skogstad, Rorvik, Lande, & Nielsen, 2018). Marks and colleagues (2001) divide the management of conflict into two major components: Pre-emptive conflict management involves the establishment of conditions to prevent, control, or guide team conflict before it occurs. Reactive conflict management requires team members to work through task and interpersonal disagreements among team members. As conflicts are inherent to teamwork (Zhang, Cao, & Tjosvold, 2010; DeChurch, Mesmer-Magnus, & Doty, 2013) its management is deemed a crucial element of teamwork (Marks et al., 2001; Costa et al., 2014a). Handling conflict constructively starts with an open-minded discussion about opposing views and opinions (Elgoibar et al., 2017; Tjosvold et al., 2014). This will result in better interpersonal relations, and a richer understanding of the issues (De Dreu, Van Dierendonck, & De Best-Waldhober, 2003).

These dynamics may lead to higher satisfaction of basic needs and work engagement in turn. Despite the growing understanding around conflicts and the way they are managed at work, more information is needed on their impact on positive types of wellbeing, including work engagement. As basic needs satisfaction is seen as an underlying process of work engagement (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) and other positive forms of organizational behavior (Van den Broeck et al., 2016), engaging leadership might prove a novel perspective in conflict literature.

A leader's role in managing conflicts

As leaders are important drivers for the wellbeing of their followers, they also play an important role in the emergence as well as the resolution of conflicts. For example, leaders who forced a solution, or avoided their followers' conflicts were found to increase their followers' stress, whereas leaders who engaged in problem-solving reduced the perceived stress by employees (Römer et al., 2012). These third-party intervention styles were also found to mediate the relationship between leadership and conflict, while only forcing the behavior of the leader was positively related to emotional exhaustion (Obi, Aaldering, Bollen, Robijn, & Euwema, 2020). However, leaders do more than intervene in conflicts, as they also stimulate team processes to help team members better deal with conflict. Ethical leadership, for example, was found to increase role-modelling and improved resolution efficacy in employees, which lowered the amount of team conflict (Babalola, Stouten, Euwema, & Ovadje, 2016).

These results largely refer to decreasing both the number of conflicts as well as their effects. As conflict is, to some extent, almost always present, decreasing conflict might not be the only way for leaders to deal with them. Rather than intervening themselves, a leader can also support team members to handle conflict more constructively. Conflicts are perceived to be constructive when team members perceive that the benefits outweigh the costs of the conflict (Tjosvold, Wong, & Chen, 2014). For instance, a cooperative approach to conflict is related to team coordination and team performance (Zhang et al., 2011), quality customer relationships (Wong, Liu, Wang, & Tjosvold, 2018), and to team trust (Wong, Wang, Wang, & Tjosvold, 2020). Since constructive conflicts start with the promotion of

an open-minded discussion, leaders must foster an environment where employees feel at ease to manage conflict openly and constructively.

Tjosvold and colleagues (2014) argued that conflict management must be investigated to develop a further understanding of leadership and its processes. Given the lack of research on the relationship between conflict and positive well-being concepts, this angle might be an interesting path due to the impact of work engagement on the individual and the organization. Following the logic of engaging leadership, and the link between conflict (management) and work engagement, leaders may use conflict and its management to improve teamwork, which will be related to both team performance and the levels of work engagement of the team members.

Research questions

Research question 1: Do different types of raters perceive engaging leadership similarly?

The first aim of this dissertation is to provide additional validation for the emerging concept of engaging leadership. Engaging leadership was only used in one article before the start of this dissertation (Schaufeli, 2015a), and was used in four other studies during this project (Nikolova, Schaufeli, & Notelaers, 2019; Rahmadani, et al., 2019, Rahmadani, et al., 2020; Van Tuin, Schaufeli, & Van Rhenen, 2020). It was used as a general leadership style (as in most leadership studies; Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007) instead of discriminating between its various components. Needs, as defined in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), but also in Maslow's work (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976) or in Human Needs Theory (Christie, 1997), are distinct in theory (Van den Broeck et al, 2016). It might thus be, that the different dimensions of engaging leadership (i.e. empowering, strengthening, connecting, and inspiring) act as different constructs rather than as a joint, common construct. Furthermore, the research on engaging leadership is based (similarly to most leadership studies; Hunter et al., 2007) solely on follower-ratings. In **Chapter 2**, the effect of different dimensions is contrasted to a general measure of engaging leadership, rated by four different types of raters to further investigate the assessment of engaging leadership. A traditional and structural equation modeling (SEM)-based multi-trait multi-method (MTMM) matrix was used.

Research question 2: To what extent is engaging leadership related to work engagement, and mediated by basic needs satisfaction?

When this project started, no studies provided empirical evidence that engaging leadership was related to work engagement through a mediating effect of basic needs satisfaction, as originally conceptualized (Schaufeli, 2016). In **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4**, we test this premise using SEM with a Belgian (n=133) and Dutch sample (n=96) to verify the proposed relationship in a Western European context. Further in **Chapter 4**, the effect of basic needs satisfaction is broadened on perceived team performance in addition to work engagement.

Research question 3: What is the relation between conflict (management) and work engagement?

As conflict and its management are not well researched in combination with positive states of wellbeing, it is important to elaborate on this line of research. In **Chapter 3**, the effect of open conflict norms on basic needs satisfaction and work engagement is investigated. The establishment of open conflict norms (Jehn, 1995) or an open-minded discussion (Tjosvold et al., 2014) encourages team members to express doubts, opinions, and uncertainties, and it is the team's norm on how group members perceive and handle conflict. This promotes, for example, learning as team members begin to doubt their ideas and search to understand multiple perspectives (Tjosvold, 2008). This positive view on conflict promotes openness, cooperation, and problem-solving (Tjosvold et al., 2014) and gives us a new perspective on introducing conflict management in the team as another social resource. In **Chapter 4**, the relation between conflict in teams and their performance is analyzed, based on the perspective of engaging leadership. More specifically, team conflict was used as a mediator between engaging leadership on the one hand, and work engagement and team performance on the other hand. As the model also included basic needs satisfaction and work engagement, the additional effect of team conflict on team performance was studied while controlling for basic needs satisfaction.

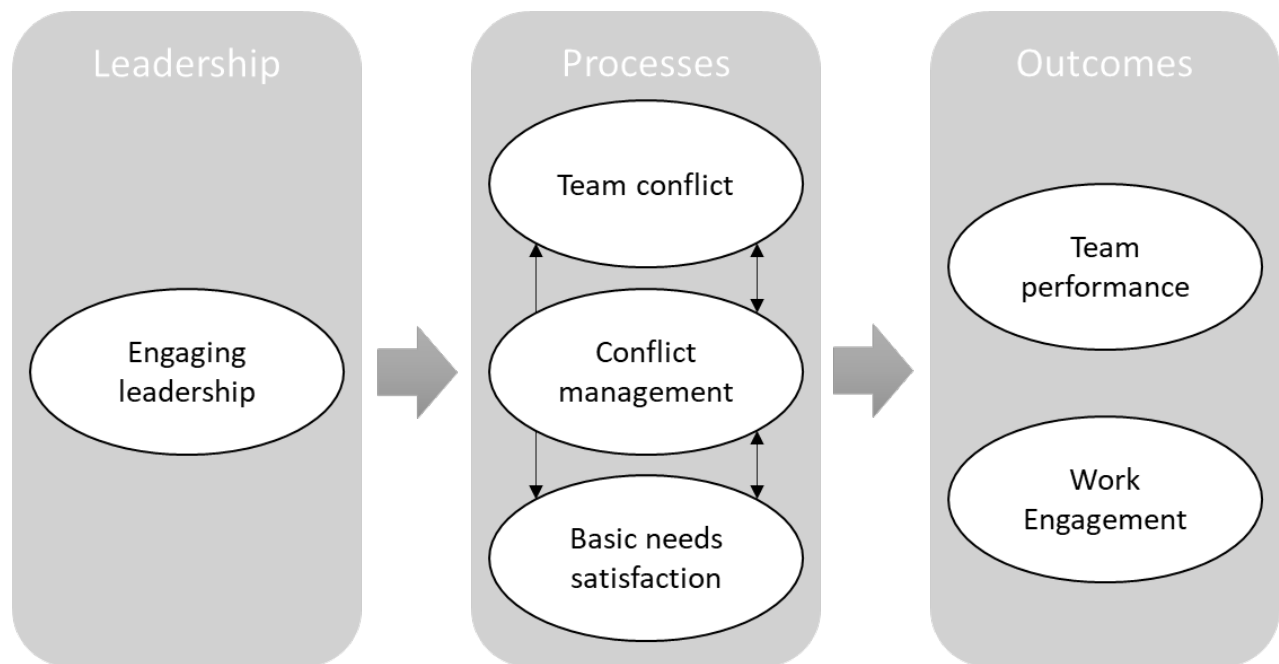
Research question 4: How is engaging leadership related to team conflict?

Lastly, as engaging leaders mainly focus on the basic needs of their followers, which are rather individual processes, it is important to investigate how they impact team conflict. Discovering processes through which leaders can influence the amount of team conflict, will make it possible to

guide leaders in managing conflict. In the second study in **Chapter 4**, a multi-level analysis was used to investigate which processes leaders might use, in line with the concept of engaging leadership, to influence the amount of team conflict. This answers the call of Tjosvold et al. (2014) to investigate the use of conflict management strategies by leaders. This will help in leader development and further increase our understanding of the complex dynamics of team conflicts.

These four questions can be depicted by the following heuristic model. We use engaging leadership as an input or antecedent, which relates to different processes on the individual and team level (i.e. team conflict, conflict management, and basic needs satisfaction). These processes, in turn, relate to several outcomes. In this dissertation, we focus on the outcomes of team performance and (individual) work engagement.

Figure 1. Heuristic model



In the final chapter, **Chapter 5**, the overall results and findings are discussed based on the four research questions. Some limitations of the studies and possibilities for future research are provided. Finally, we also present implications for practitioners to use in their work related to leadership, motivation, and conflict management.

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Is my Leader your Leader? A Multi-rater Approach to Engaging Leadership

A previous version of the manuscript was presented at the virtual-ECMH conference 2020.

Introduction

Leadership is one of the most researched topics in organizational sciences and a crucial factor for the well-being of employees. Leadership behavior is linked with performance-outcomes on the individual-, team- and organizational-level, as in-role and extra-role performance, sales performance, sales growth, profit, etc. (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Specific leadership behaviors, such as transformational, also are associated with positive mental states of employees, such as work engagement (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim, 2012; Mills, Flex, & Kozikowski, 2013). Assessing (and developing) leadership behaviors to increase the well-being of followers has become a booming business, but from an academic point of view, the measurement and conceptualization of leadership constructs is not as easy as it seems.

Traditionally, leadership is rated by leaders themselves or by their followers (Hunter, Bedell, Avers, Mumford, 2007). When other types of raters are included, comparing these ratings yield medium correlations at best (e.g., meta-analysis by Conway & Huffcut, 1997). The largest difference exists between the self- and other-scores, while far less variability is found among other rater types (i.e. colleagues, followers, and supervisors of the focal person; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). This variability is likely due to observation biases, as halo-effect, which are inherent to each type of rater (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017).

Not only the differences between raters has made leadership research complex, the most used model of leadership, transformational leadership, has recently been criticized for its weak theoretical foundation and for paying limited attention to the underlying psychological processes and mechanism through which leaders, for example, motivate followers (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Therefore, Schaufeli (2015) introduced the concept of engaging leadership. From a positive perspective on well-being in the workplace, it proposes that leaders will engage their followers through satisfying their basic psychological needs (Schaufeli, 2016). Engaging leadership has an indirect effect on work engagement through job resources (Schaufeli, 2015). Similar to most leadership constructs (Hunter et al., 2007), engaging leadership was only rated by followers (Schaufeli, 2015). How these leaders perceive themselves and are perceived by their colleagues, and their supervisors is unknown. There is research on the impact and interrater reliability of different types of raters in leadership, though. A meta-analytic study (Conway & Huffcut, 1997) showed that different types of raters have a different

perspective on the behavior of the leader. Wholers and London (1989) found evidence that some leadership characteristics are more difficult to observe than others, and therefore show more variability between raters. Harris and Schaubrouck (1988) conclude that there is indeed variability, but that other-raters generally agree more amongst themselves than self- and other scores.

This paper aims to investigate a recently emerged type of leadership - engaging leadership - from a multi-rater perspective, where the leaders themselves, but also followers, supervisors of the leader, and their colleagues (i.e. fellow leaders) rate the focal leader on engaging leadership. The main interest of the study is how the different dimensions of engaging leadership and raters relate to each other and whether they converge or not. Doing so, this study will add to the literature on leadership in three ways. First, it will add to the validity of the emerging concept of engaging leadership and its measurement. Second, as we will use and compare different types of other-raters, it will increase our knowledge of the congruence of not only self-other ratings but also between different types of other ratings. Finally, we will add to the literature by investigating the halo-effect in leadership between different types of raters.

Engaging Leadership

Engaging leadership was conceptualized as a leadership style that fosters work engagement (Schaufeli, 2016). Work engagement, which is considered to be the inverse of burnout, is defined as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Being engaged mediates between social, organizational, work, and developmental resources (Schaufeli, 2015) and various positive organizational outcomes as job performance (Bakker, 2017), turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), organizational commitment (Schaufeli, 2015) and, extra-role performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). As work engagement is fostered by the satisfaction of different needs (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witt,e & Lens, 2008; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), engaging leaders will focus on satisfying the needs of their followers (Schaufeli, 2016).

According to the Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), three basic needs exist; the need for competence (feeling effective), relatedness (feeling loved and cared for), and autonomy (feeling a sense of volition). These needs are related to both performance and well-being in the workplace (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Research suggests that not only these needs, but also meaningfulness contributes to motivation, performance, and satisfaction of employees (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010), and it is critical to a good job (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). For the concept of engaging leadership, this fourth need (i.e. the need for meaningfulness) was deemed important and refers to the perception of one's work as particularly meaningful and significant (Frankl, 1992; Schaufeli, 2016). Each of the described needs responds to a dimension of engaging leadership. These leaders, thus, engage their followers by increasing meaningfulness through *inspiring* (e.g., enthusing them for goals and plans, make them feel that they contribute to an important mission), increasing their competences through *strengthening* (e.g., delegating tasks, encouraging to use their strengths), increasing relatedness through *connecting* (e.g., encouraging collaboration, promoting a high team spirit), and finally increasing autonomy through *empowering* (e.g., granting freedom and responsibility, encouraging to voice one's own opinion).

The needs that form the foundation of engaging leadership are theoretically distinct constructs, but they correlate strongly with each other as they share similar antecedents (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Lens, & Soenens, 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Each need, however, predicts a unique variance on outcomes as work engagement (Sulea, van Beek, Sarbescu, Virga, & Schaufeli, 2015). As these needs are correlated but distinct constructs, the dimensions of engaging leadership, who are founded on these needs, are expected to also be distinct but correlated. Other leadership constructs were also found to have a unique, but correlated impact on the different basic needs (Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011). Given the theoretical foundation of engaging leadership, it is expected that the dimensions of engaging leadership are distinct but highly correlated as the different needs are also highly related (Van den Broeck et al., 2016).

Hypothesis 1: The dimensions of engaging leadership are distinct, yet positively correlated.

A multi-rater perspective of (engaging) leadership

Being only measured by followers (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, & Osin, 2019), as most leadership research (Hunter et al., 2007), the perception of engaging leadership and its dimensions by other raters is unknown. The inclusion of more raters is mostly done in a 360-degree or multi-rater feedback system, which typically focuses on self-other agreement. The logic is that the higher the agreement between self- and other ratings, the more effective the leader due to factors as self-awareness (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998). This makes multi-rater feedback a good instrument for the development of leaders (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Fletcher & Baldry, 2000). In reality, the effect of agreement is more nuanced.

It seems that the effectiveness is highest when both self- and other-ratings are high or when a leader underestimates himself compared to the other-ratings (Atwater et al., 1998). So, it is not only the agreement that matters but also how the scores are positioned to each other. Also, where most multi-rater research is focused on reducing measurement error or validating a scale, most multi-rater studies on leadership are interested in why these scores differ and what this means (Fleenor, Smither, Atwater, Braddy, & Strum, 2010), as self- or other scores are not seen as true scores, but rather as different perspectives on the complex behaviors of leaders. Another factor is the distinction between different types of other-raters. As mentioned above, most leadership research uses ratings from followers (Hunter et al., 2007). In organizations, leaders also deal with someone whom they report to (i.e., their supervisor), and work together with (i.e., their colleagues or fellow leaders). Each of these types of rater experiences the focal leader in a different role and observes other behaviors in other contexts. As different types of observers witness other behaviors, they are not likely to make identical ratings. Previous research with multiple types of raters suggests that each type of rater is unique (Mount, Judge, Scullen, Sytsma, & Hezlett, 1998; Rowold & Borgmann, 2013). It is expected that each rater has its perspective, because of different observational opportunities, but that they are correlated, as all raters rate the behavior of the leader towards the follower.

Hypothesis 2: Different types of raters that rate the same focal person can be differentiated from each other, but their ratings correlate.

A leadership halo

Another source of potential difference is not that each rater has his perspective, but rather that raters are biased as they are not aware of all the intentions and circumstances of the behavior of the focal leader. One of these biases that is frequently mentioned is the halo-effect (Behrendt et al., 2017; Lee & Carpenter, 2018), which describes the tendency to rate towards a more general notion, of leadership in our case, instead of a more nuanced view among the different aspects of behavior (Thorndike, 1920; in Cooper, 1981). Attribution theory (Jones & Nisbett, 1972) explains this bias. It states that observers or other-raters have less knowledge on the behavior of leaders and will attribute their behavior more to a general notion or disposition, whilst the actor or self-rater will have a more nuanced view. Leaders will, therefore, suffer less from this bias. While attribution theory (Jones & Nisbett, 1972) is widely accepted, it was challenged in a meta-analysis (Malle, 2006) several years ago. The authors concluded that the effects sizes of actor-observer asymmetry were close to zero. There were, however, conditions under which the halo effect holds (Malle, 2006). For example, when actors and observers knew each other, as is the case with leadership studies, the effect still occurs. The halo-effect was previously found in overall performance ratings in organizations with different types of observers (Furnham & Stringfield, 1998). Furthermore, most research on attribution theory and leadership has focused on a single observer and the difference with the actor (Frone, Adams, Rice, & Instone-Noonan, 1986; Hunter et al., 2007) and not with different observers as proposed in this study. Following attribution theory, it is expected that all types of observers show more halo-effect than the leaders themselves.

H3: Correlations among dimensions of engaging leadership within the same rater are larger in other-ratings than in self-ratings.

Method

Procedure and participants

Participants were 67 first-line supervisors, who had teams with 3 to 12 followers. The assessment was part of a management development program aimed to improve their leadership skills. At the beginning of the program, a 360° survey was distributed to 67 leaders who had to fill in the survey. They distributed the survey to their supervisor, two or more fellow leaders (i.e. colleagues), and

their followers, which they all returned to the coordinator of the program. The survey aimed to provide feedback to the leader as the basis for a personal development plan. All participants were informed that the data would be used for the current study and the development program and signed an informed consent.

Measures

Apart from demographic data and company-specific competencies, everyone rated the focal person on the Engaging Leadership Scale (Schaufeli, 2016) in the original Dutch version. This scale includes four dimensions with three items each: inspiring (sample item: My direct supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans), strengthening (sample item: My direct supervisor encourages team members to develop their talents as much as possible), connecting (sample item: My direct supervisor encourages collaboration among team members) and empowering (sample item: My supervisor encourages team members to give their own opinion). Responses for all items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree).

Data-analysis

To investigate the different dimensions and raters and how they relate a traditional and SEM-based MultiTrait MultitMethod (MTMM) approach, as was recently suggested (Rowold, Borgmann & Diebig, 2015; Borman & Rowold, 2018; Lee & Carpenter, 2018), was used. The engaging leadership dimensions are referred to as trait factors and the observers or peer raters as method factors. The observers are seen as different methods since each of them has a particular perspective on the leader (Rowold & Borgmann, 2013; Joseph, Newman, & Sin, 2016). We included only the data of the participants when there was a self-score, a supervisor-score, at least one colleague-score, and at least one follower-score. We started with 67 leaders who participated in the program. 67 leaders responded, 62 of the leaders' supervisors, 280 followers, and 124 colleagues. 9 participants had at least one kind of score missing and were therefore excluded from the analyses, so 58 cases remained (58 leaders, 58 supervisors, 241 followers, and 112 colleagues).

As there are multiple followers and colleagues for each focal person, aggregation of scores or a selection had to be made. Aggregating scores of the same type of raters is the most used method in 360°-survey's (London & Smithers, 1995).

To determine whether it would be feasible to aggregate the followers' scores into an average 'follower score' and the colleague's scores into an average 'colleague score' intraclass correlations (ICC; Field, 2005) were calculated for the different groups for each leadership dimension. The ICC's for the followers ($n = 241$) show moderate or strong agreement for inspiring ($ICC = .80$), strengthening ($ICC = .56$), and connecting ($ICC = .84$) and a weak agreement for empowering ($ICC = .36$). Given the small sample of followers (average number of team members = 4,15) who rated the focal person, it is not uncommon that ICC is rather low (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Given the moderate and high ICC-scores for three of the four dimensions, we decided to aggregate the follower-scores of their leader for the four dimensions of engaging leadership. The ICC's for the colleague's scores show lack of agreement for the dimensions and even negative values ($n = 112$; inspiring $ICC = .34$; strengthening $ICC = .08$; connecting $ICC = .43$; empowering $ICC = -.08$). James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984) suggest that a negative estimate of interrater agreement should be set equal to .00 because it reflects serious degrees of disagreement. To continue, we retained a random colleague's score for the final data analysis¹, instead of aggregating the colleagues' scores. Table 1 shows an overview of the demographic data of the remaining raters for each type of rater.

¹ Although this was not expected, Viswesvaran, Schmidt, and Ones (1996) mentioned in a meta-analysis that the interrater reliability for colleagues was lower than supervisory rating when rating leadership. To ensure that the random sample is representative, we repeated the analysis with another random sample of colleagues from the same data-set. The results of this analysis were comparable to the random sample of colleagues used in the rest of the paper.

Table 1. Demographic data

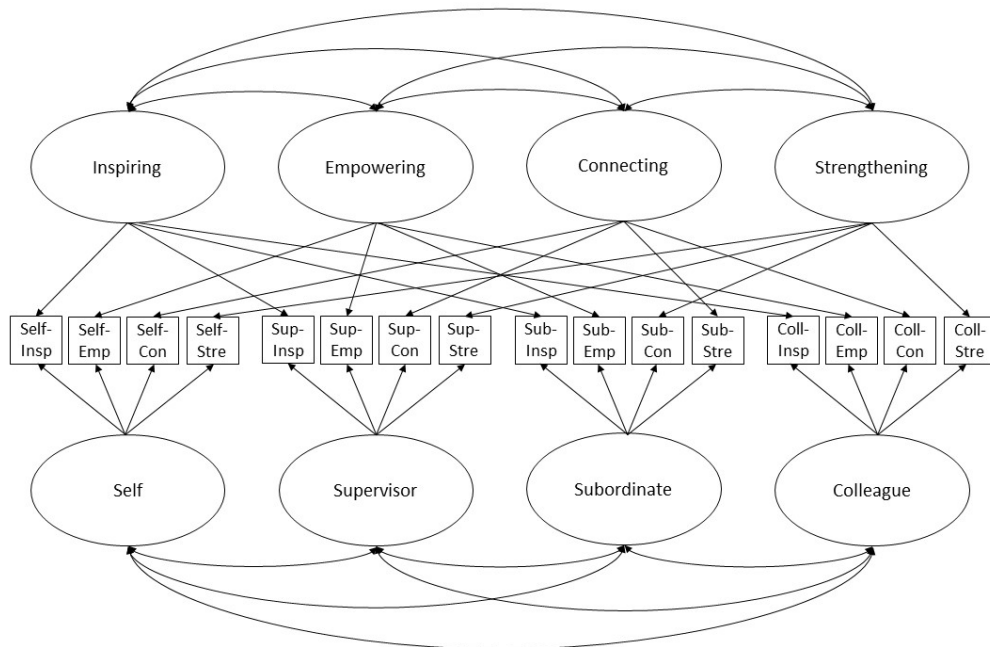
	Self	Supervisor	Follower	Colleague
n	58	58	241	58
Gender				
Male (%)	24,14	41,38	22,41	20,69
Female (%)	75,86	58,62	77,59	79,31
Age				
Mean	42,60	45,29	40,99	44,96
SD	9,55	7,78	10,34	9,64
Education				
Primary or secondary education (%)	27,59	3,45	37,34	31,03
Bachelor's degree (%)	37,93	62,07	45,65	50,00
Masters' degree (%)	34,48	34,48	17,01	18,97
Tenure				
Less than 1 year (%)	12,07	12,07	4,56	8,62
Between 1 and 3 years (%)	43,10	18,97	19,50	19,50
Between 4 and 6 years (%)	10,34	34,48	10,79	10,34
Between 7 and 10 years (%)	6,90	8,62	14,11	10,34
More than 10 years (%)	27,59	25,86	48,13	48,28

To investigate hypothesis 1 and 2 a SEM-based MTMM approach (Marsh & Bailey, 1991) was used. This allows comparing different models based on the goodness-of-fit indices, instead of interpreting a traditional MTMM-matrix as suggested by Campbell and Fiske (1959). Based on the literature reviewed above the hypothesized model was compared to five alternative models. Each model differs in configurations of traits (i.e. the different dimensions of engaging leadership) and methods (i.e. the different types of raters of the focal person: the engaging leader).

Our hypothesized model is an eight factor-model where the four traits are correlated and the four methods are correlated as well, as shown in figure 1. The first alternative, model B, a four-factor model, is a trait-only model and assumes that covariation in engaging leadership is only associated with different dimensions and not with different types of raters and has, thus, no method effects. The second alternative model, model C, is a four-factor model where only the methods are modeled. This model posits that covariation in ratings is solely associated with the type of rater and not with the traits. Given Attribution Theory that posits that observers tend to attribute towards a disposition or general notion, we added a third alternative model (model D), in which engaging leadership appears

as a general concept, instead of differentiating between the four dimensions, and four method factors (i.e. the four types of raters). We also add the possibility that there is no distinction between different types of observers and that they form a single group that differs from actors. Therefore, two more alternative models were added, model E, where the traits are the four dimensions and there are two methods, namely actors and observers. Finally, Model F combines a general engaging leadership concept with two methods (actors and observers).

Figure 1. Proposed Model A



For the SEM-analyses for Hypothesis 1 and 2, we used the R-software version 3.3.3 with the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) version 0.6-1.1132. To test Hypothesis 3 we calculated an MTMM-matrix (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), using SPSS version 25. More specifically, to test Hypothesis 3 we compared, as suggested by Saal, Downey, and Lahey. (1980), the correlations in and between the heterotrait-monomethod triangles.

Results

An overview of the different SEM-models and their goodness-of-fit indices that pertain to Hypothesis 1 and 2 are displayed in table 2. Our hypothesized model A (i.e. four correlated trait factors – empowering, inspiring, strengthening and connecting and four correlated method factors – self-, supervisor-, follower-, and colleague ratings) had acceptable goodness-of-fit indices but was estimated with some negative variances which is an indication of bad model fit and was therefore discarded. Model D (i.e. one general trait factor – engaging leadership- and four correlated method factors – self-, supervisor-, follower-, and colleague ratings; $\chi^2 = 107.310$; $df = 82$; $CFI = .92$; $TLI = .89$; $RMSEA = .07$; $SRMR = .08$) has acceptable fit indices for CFI, RMSEA and SRMR, but TLI did not reach the generally accepted cut-off value of .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). By allowing one pair of error to correlate between methods (inspiring rated by self and follower) as suggested by the modification indices, model D' was created, which converged with excellent fit indices ($\chi^2 = 84.299$; $df = 81$; $CFI = .96$; $TLI = .94$; $RMSEA = .05$; $SRMR = .08$). The models with only traits (model B) and only methods (model C), and the models where we solely made a distinction between self and other scores (model E and F) did not converge, had estimated negative variances or had fit indices that failed to satisfy the criterion (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In sum, model D (and D') suggests that a general measure of engaging leadership better fits the data than the different dimensions and methods are unique (Model A). This means that the different raters did not differentiate between the dimensions, but rather perceived a general notion of engaging leadership.

Table 2. Goodness-of-fit measures of different models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
A - 8-factor model*	81.853	76	.98	.97	.04	.07
4 correlated traits and 4 correlated methods						
B - 4-factor model	241.313	98	.57	.47	.16	.14
Trait-only model						
C - 4-factor model*	152.631	98	.83	.79	.10	.11
Method-only model						
D - 5-factor model						
General trait factor with 4 correlated methods	107.310	82	.92	.89	.07	.08
D' - 5-factor model						
General trait factor with 4 correlated methods	84.299	81	.96	.94	.05	.08
E - 6-factor model**	Model did not converge					
4 correlated traits and 2 correlated methods						
F - 3-factor model						
General trait factor with 2 correlated methods	157.852	87	.79	.71	.12	.09

* model with estimated variances that are negative, which therefore cannot be interpreted correctly

** model which did not converge

A similar pattern concerning a general measure for engaging leadership was uncovered when calculating Cronbach's alphas for the different dimensions and types of raters. Table 3 shows Cronbach's alpha of each type of rater for each dimension. The alphas of the follower and supervisor-scores were acceptable (between .63 and .81) (Field, Miles, & Field, 2012). The alphas for the colleague scores were less consistent and ranged from .53 to .74. The alphas of the self-score were low ranging from .25 to .60. The lower alpha might be due to the limited number of items (i.e. three) in each dimension (Peterson, 1994). Given the results of the SEM-analysis and the superior fit for model D' that the dimensions are not distinguishable by self- and other-raters, it might be better to calculate the alphas also for the general engaging leadership scale. So, in addition to the alphas of each dimension for each rater, we calculated the alphas for the composite engaging leadership measure for each rater. The alphas for supervisors ($\alpha=.88$), followers ($\alpha=.85$) and colleagues ($\alpha=.84$) were good and the self-rating almost reached .70 ($\alpha=.69$). Indeed, it seems that a general concept of engaging leadership, as proposed in model D', is more valid than diversifying it in different dimensions.

Hypothesis 1 is thus rejected because model D' with engaging leadership as a general concept fitted the data better than a model with distinct but correlated dimensions. The analysis of Cronbach's alpha confirmed this result.

For Hypothesis 2 model D' suggests distinct types of raters and correlations between these raters. The distinction between the four different types of raters fitted the data better than other models with no method factors or two method factors (i.e. self-rating and combined other-rating). Estimated correlations between types of raters ranged from .24 to .62 ($\bar{r} = .42$) with the strongest correlations between other-raters and between the self- and supervisor-ratings. Hypothesis 2 is confirmed because in model D' the raters are distinct but correlated. To further explore the method effect we examined the amount of variance due to the method. The amount of variance for each dimension and each rater was computed by squaring the factor. Traits (i.e. the general engaging leadership measure) explain on average 10% of the variance, while methods (i.e. self-, supervisor-, follower-, and colleague-rating) explain 43% of the variance, which is comparable to results from other (MTMM) leadership studies (Krüger, Rowold, Borgmann, Stuafenbiel, & Heinitz, 2011). Thus, while a general engaging leadership measure fits better with the data, a considerable method effect exists due to different types of raters.

For Hypothesis 3 we inspected the heterotrait-monomethod triangles of the MTMM-matrix, as displayed in table 3. These are the correlations between the different dimensions of engaging leadership within the same type of rater. The existence of a halo effect can be examined by the correlations among different dimensions within a rater. Higher correlations suggest less discrimination among different aspects of behavior and, thus, a stronger halo effect (Saal, et al., 1980). For the supervisors', followers' and colleagues' scores all correlations of dimensions were significant, and were mostly medium to large (supervisor $\bar{r} = .55$; follower $\bar{r} = .44$; colleague $\bar{r} = .51$). Follower correlations between the dimension empowering and the other dimensions were lower, ranging from .28 to .40, whereas supervisor and colleague correlations did not show this pattern. For the self-scores a different pattern emerged (self $\bar{r} = .27$); there was a high correlation between inspiring and connecting ($r = .51$) and a medium correlation between strengthening and empowering ($r = .33$). All other correlations between self-scores were low and not significant.

It appears that the predicted halo-effect indeed exists for other-scores (supervisor, follower, colleague). Consistent with the results of the SEM-based MTMM analyses above, others perceive more a generalized notion of a leadership style as there are high correlations between dimensions within peer-raters. The effect was the strongest for the supervisor rating. On the other hand, the leaders themselves make a clear differentiation between the dimensions, except a strong link between inspiring and connecting, which might be logical as inspiring followers also involves bringing people together. Taken together Hypothesis 3 is largely confirmed.

Table 3. MTMM-matrix

				r																
				Self				Supervisor				Follower				Colleague				
		M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Self	1 Inspiring	3.58	0.46	.50																
	2 Strengthening	3.83	0.43	.25	.12															
	3 Connecting	3.79	0.51	.59	.51**	.24														
	4 Empowering	4.06	0.46	.60	.21	.33*	.20													
Supervisor	5 Inspiring	3.95	0.59	.79	.32*	.08	.35**	.33*												
	6 Strengthening	3.90	0.58	.72	.27*	.14	.46**	.12	.56**											
	7 Connecting	4.14	0.47	.67	.42**	.08	.45**	.14	.49**	.57**										
	8 Empowering	4.04	0.36	.78	.22	.13	.38**	.25	.51**	.61**	.53**									
Follower	9 Inspiring	3.83	0.36	.81	.53**	-.15	.28*	.05	.40*	.33*	.41**	.33*								
	10 Strengthening	4.02	0.31	.63	.11	.12	.11	-.01	.17	.35**	.27*	.29*	.44**							
	11 Connecting	3.90	0.41	.75	.45**	-.08	.50**	.02	.40**	.45**	.55**	.40**	.76**	.43**						
	12 Empowering	4.23	0.28	.67	.19	.01	-.10	.19	.39**	.34**	.09	.35**	.40**	.30*	.28*					
Colleague	13 Inspiring	3.82	0.53	.59	.20	-.05	.11	.07	.41*	.19	.20	.05	.22	.15	.19	.20				
	14 Strengthening	3.85	0.56	.74	-.11	.19	.01	.22	.23	.06	.05	-.04	.10	.35**	.13	.11	.44**			
	15 Connecting	3.83	0.56	.65	.08	.07	.21	.25	.31*	.19	.07	-.10	.15	.23	.17	.08	.61**	.50**		
	16 Empowering	3.85	0.55	.53	-.15	.19	.02	.28*	.27*	.10	.05	.02	.07	.28*	.07	.16	.44**	.63**	.43**	

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01

The triangles in the matrix are the heterotrait-monomethod triangles used in the analysis.

We conducted an additional inspection of the traditional MTMM-matrix (Table 3) for confirmation on convergent validity of engaging leadership. Campbell & Fiske (1959) state that different measures and their validity typically converge when independent measures of the same trait

correlate highly. In Table 3 correlations between different raters of the same engaging leadership dimensions are printed bold. For the current study medium (i.e. r 's between .30 and .50) and large (i.e. r 's greater than .50) (Cohen, 1992) correlations indicate convergence of dimensions. The mean correlation for inspiring between the different raters was medium ($\bar{r} = .35$), with only a low correlation between self- and colleague rating ($r = .20$) and follower- and colleague rating ($r = .22$) and a high correlation between self and follower ratings ($r = .58$). For strengthening the mean correlation was low between the different raters ($\bar{r} = .20$). All correlations were low, except for correlation between supervisor- and follower ratings ($r = .35$) and between follower- and colleague rating ($r = .35$). Connecting had a medium mean correlation ($\bar{r} = .33$). All correlations with colleagues were low, where the other correlations were rather high, ranging from .45 to .55. All correlations for empowering were low ($\bar{r} = .21$), except for the correlation between supervisor and follower ($r = .35$). Overall, there seems to be convergent validity between self-, supervisor- and follower ratings for inspiring and connecting. For strengthening there was only convergence between supervisor- and follower ratings, and follower- and colleague rating. For empowering, it seems that this dimension is not convergent between the raters. In combination with the results of the lower ICC-scores for followers, it seems that empowering is less convergent between different types of raters (and within types of rater) than other dimensions.

Discussion

The main goal of the present study was to enhance our understanding of engaging leadership, its dimensions (i.e. inspiring, strengthening, connecting and empowering) and the effect of different types of raters. In general, the results of our analysis revealed that, contrary to our hypothesis, rather than its different dimensions, engaging leadership is perceived as a general leadership style, where each type of rater has its own unique, but convergent perspective. Furthermore, a halo-effect was found, which was more prominent amongst other-raters than self-raters.

Theoretical and practical implications

Our results suggest the use of a general engaging leadership style in further research, rather than diversifying into the four dimensions. Combined with the halo-effect found amongst other-raters one might wonder whether others are capable of making nuanced attributions where leadership

behavior is concerned. Previous leadership research, indeed, has shown with other leadership styles that a general leadership style is rather found than a distinction between the different dimensions and styles. A general leadership concept, for example, was found to better explain the variance in transformational leadership (Lievens, Van Geit, & Coetsier, 1997) and even between full-range leadership theory (i.e. transformational, and transactional leadership and laissez-faire), consideration, initiating structure and LMX (Rowold et al., 2015). It seems that even given different theoretical constructs in and between leadership styles an empirical overlap exists. These findings are reflected in different calls of researches to integrate leadership constructs and base them in solid theories (Graen, Rowold & Heinritz, 2010; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Behrendt et al., 2017), where engaging leadership, might be a new path because of the theoretical foundation and a more positive approach to psychology in general.

When looking at the dimensions separately, however, it was striking that the convergent validity of the dimension empowering was lower, especially for followers and even between followers who rated the same leader given the lower ICC's. An explanation might be found in the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). SLT states that a leader should follow a curvilinear path in leadership style on two leadership dimensions (i.e. tasks/initiating structure and relationships/consideration) based on the followers' level of maturity. This creates four leadership styles: directing, coaching, supporting and delegating, where the first is for the least mature followers and the latter for the most mature followers (Graeff, 1983). The dimension empowering of engaging leadership corresponds most to the delegating style of SLT. Following SLT, leaders might only empower those who seem the most mature and use other styles with other followers. This mechanism might lead to different behaviors towards followers and therefore more diverse ratings, within a leader. As this theory forms the basis of a range of leadership programs, it might be possible that leaders are taught not to empower every employee to the same extent. However, given the impact of basic need satisfaction and especially the need for autonomy, as stated in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Van den Broeck et al., 2016), empowering employees and increasing their autonomy is important for every follower and not only for those who seem more mature. It is important to investigate this hypothesis in further research. Following this logic, the basic need satisfaction of autonomy should be lower for low maturity

followers when a leader uses SLT, in contrast to a leader who uses, for example, engaging leadership as a guiding principle.

Given the results, we suggest that for research purposes the engaging leadership scale should be used as a general measure. For practical uses, however, one might argue that it is possible to focus to improve one aspect of engaging leadership and due to halo, the leader will be perceived as a good leader. But as much is to say about the inverse effect, horn-effect, that one bad dimension might create the opposite. For practice, as this and other studies show that others perceive leadership more as a general concept, it might be more interesting to train leaders on the underlying mechanisms (i.e. basic needs in our case) rather than dimensions of a leadership style.

Study weaknesses and future research

With the comparison of four types of raters and traits within engaging leadership, this study is one of the few studies to make use of MTMM to study leadership. It also gives us an insight into the emerging concept of engaging leadership. Like all studies, apart from its strengths, it also has its limitations. First, the sample size was relatively small. In total, 415 data points were used in the study, but with aggregating subordinate scores and assigning each rater to its leader, only 58 cases remained. This might reduce the statistical power of our analyses. With a larger sample size, more SEM-based MTMM-models might have converged (Marsh & Bailey, 1991). The sample size also makes it more difficult to generalize the results towards an entire working population.

Second, it was not possible to aggregate the scores of the different colleagues of the leader, because of a low inter-rater agreement. We, therefore, chose to randomly select a colleague-score of the returned questionnaires, which may potentially have biased the results. As noted earlier, we repeated the analysis with another random sample of colleagues, which yielded similar results. This increased the confidence in the findings obtained by the present study. The low ICC of the colleagues-scores could be due to different observational opportunities (Mount et al., 1988). Given the lack of internal agreement within the colleagues, there is still an agreement between followers and colleagues. Therefore, it would be interesting in future research to investigate the inter-rater agreement of multiple colleagues, and possibly also multiple supervisors (as this happens more often

in organizations with a matrix- and project team structure) and verify the quality of these rating with outcomes as performance and well-being of leader and follower.

Finally, we let one pair of errors correlate to increase model fit. Inspiring rated by self and follower shared some variance. This might be due to inspirational activities that are not visible to colleagues and the leaders' supervisor, but very visible to both leader and followers (e.g. personal coaching in which the meaning of a specific task is highlighted). The overlap shows the difficult conceptualization of leadership behavior from different perspectives and in a complex environment.

Apart from our previous suggestions, future research should investigate which rater's score has the most impact on basic needs. This will allow leaders to adapt their behavior to have an increased impact on their followers. Furthermore, the discriminant validity of engaging leadership should be investigated. Engaging leadership might be different from other leadership constructs in its theoretical foundation, but it might be hard to differentiate from other leadership constructs, due to the investigated halo-effect. Finally, as stated above, given the importance of the need for autonomy, it is important to study which dynamic explains the lower agreement on empowering.

Conclusion

A general engaging leadership style was found which was convergent between different types of raters, with a strong halo-effect in other-raters. We advise using a general measure of engaging leadership instead of the distinction in different dimensions when researching engaging leadership, its antecedents, and consequences.

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Leaders, teams, and work engagement: a basic needs perspective

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Introduction

Work engagement is seen as a highly valuable quality of employees in the workplace. It is related to employee well-being as well as individual, team, and organizational performance (Schaufeli, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Furthermore, it is related to the advancement of the career of the employee as it is related to increased employability (Schaufeli, 2015). Investing in work engagement is, thus, in the interest of the current and future organization and employee. Leaders often play a vital role in both the increase and reduction of work engagement of their followers (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Schaufeli (2015; 2016), therefore, introduced a new theoretical foundation and measure for engaging leadership, rooted in the basic needs of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Engaging leadership was indeed positively related to work engagement, through the increase of followers' job resources (Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, & Osin, 2019). Leaders, however, do more than allocate and foster job resources, they have an impact on different team processes as well. These team processes have, in turn, an impact on the well-being at team level (Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2014), as job resources impact the fulfillment of basic needs at individual level (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008; Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016). But how do these social resources that the team shares, both the leader and team processes, impact individual well-being? Furthermore, to what extent do leaders impact these team processes?

This paper investigates, therefore, the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement through basic needs satisfaction and introduces a new social resource of open conflict norms (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). First, work engagement and basic needs satisfaction, as its proposed underlying mechanism, are introduced. Next, the impact of leaders on basic needs satisfaction is discussed, to finally introduce open conflict norms as a social resource, which will impact work engagement through the same mechanism (i.e. basic needs satisfaction).

Literature Review

Work engagement and basic need satisfaction

In the last decades, the interest in well-being in the workplace has increased. Academia, as well as organizations, do not only look at performance but also whether employees feel well at work (Schaufeli, 2017). This has led to research on work-related negative states as burn-out and workaholism, but also positive states as work engagement (Schaufeli, Taris, & van Rhenen, 2008), in line with the evolution towards a more positive approach in psychology (Seligman, & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The latter concept, work engagement, is important for organizations as employees who are engaged boost their well-being (Bakker, & Demerouti, 2008), as well as their performance (Schaufeli, 2015). Work engagement is, for example, linked with outcomes as job performance (Bakker, 2017), business performance (Schnieder, Yost, Kropp, Kind, & Lam, 2018), turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), organizational commitment (Schaufeli, 2015), extra-role performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), customer loyalty (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005), but also employee health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Furthermore, engaged employees boost their engagement through creating their job and personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) and transfer their engagement to others (Bakker, van Emmerik, & Euwema, 2006; van Mierlo & Bakker, 2018). Investing in engaged employees is, thus, a strategic decision that creates a win-win scenario for the individual and the organization.

Work engagement, sometimes referred to as employee engagement or simply engagement, is defined as a positive and fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Vigor is described as “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties”; dedication is characterized by “feelings of a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge”, and absorption is characterized by “being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Bakker, & Gonzales-Roma, 2002, pp.74-75).

As a framework to study work engagement, its antecedents and consequences, the job demands-resources model (JD-R model) is frequently used (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). The JD-R model proposes that job characteristics can be classified in one of

two categories: *job demands*, which are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs, and *job resources*, which are physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and/or stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). These job demands and resources instigate two different processes. First, a health impairment process, in which job demands predict burn-out, which is related to poor performance and low employee health. The second process, a motivational process, postulates that job resources are positively related to performance and employee health via work engagement (Schaufeli, 2015; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Additionally, job resources have a negative relationship with burn-out (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017).

Although the JD-R model has proven its usefulness, it remains a descriptive model that specifies relations between variables without providing an underlying explanation of why this relationship would be so (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). One of the possible explanatory theories is Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), which proposes, amongst other things, a set of basic psychological needs that are defined as “nutriments that must be procured by a living entity to maintain its growth, integrity and health” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 326). The satisfaction of these needs is essential for humans to actualize their potential, to flourish, feel engaged and to be protected from ill health and maladaptive functioning. Three basic psychological needs are proposed: the need for autonomy (i.e. feeling the ability to act with a sense of choice and volition), relatedness (i.e. feeling loved and cared for), and competence (i.e. feeling effective) (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Indeed, basic needs were found to mediate the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Van den Broeck et al., 2008) and, thus, offer a potential explanation for the motivational process, as conceived by the JD-R model.

The concept of needs is not new in psychology and motivation theory. Need theories are aplenty, ranging from traditional theories as Maslow’s needs hierarchy and McClelland’s work on needs for achievement, affiliation, and power, to more recent work on the need for status and SDT (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). As SDT is a general theory that has demonstrated its usefulness in many life domains like sports, education, and work, there might be more needs, relevant for the field of work

and organizational psychology concerning work engagement, than the three proposed needs within SDT (i.e. autonomy, belongingness, and relatedness). Therefore, based on the work of Baumeister (1991) and Frankl (1992) Schaufeli (2016) proposed an additional need; the need for meaningfulness. This need refers to perceiving one's work as particularly meaningful and significant. Research suggests that employees in jobs with more job resources (e.g. skill variety and task identity) experience more meaningfulness, which, in turn, contributes to their motivation, performance, and satisfaction (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). Furthermore, meaningful work was found to be critical to a good job (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). It can, thus, be argued that meaningfulness behaves similarly as the other basic needs of SDT.

Although the link between job resources and basic needs has been studied before, the focus was mainly on resources related to the content of the work (task autonomy, skill utilization, and work-related feedback, developmental opportunities; Van den Broeck et al., 2008; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleebos, & Maduro, 2014). However, other resources, as social resources, are important as well.

Engaging leadership

One of the most influential social resources in the workplace is the behavior of the leader. Although leadership is one of the most studied topics in organization sciences, its relationship with work engagement is not extensively studied. Carasco-Saul, Kim, and Kim (2012) found 16 studies addressing this question and more current papers still keep addressing the importance of this link (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018). Transformational leadership was found to increase work engagement (e.g. Caniëls, Semeijn, & Renders, 2017), partially mediated by optimism (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011), responsibility, meaningfulness and innovative behavior (Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009). Other leadership styles as authentic, charismatic and ethical leadership also had a positive relationship with work engagement, mediated by role clarification, organizational culture and empowerment (Carasco-Saul et al., 2012) and supervisor support is generally found to be linked with high levels of engagement (Schaufeli, 2015; Albrecht, Breidahl, & Marty, 2017).

Initially, leadership was incorporated as a mere job resource in the JD-R model. The impact of a leader, however, goes beyond that as leaders are supposed to allocate and balance both job demands and job resources (Schaufeli, 2015). Leadership is, indeed, positively related to various job characteristics as variety, identity, significance, autonomy and feedback (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Breevaart et al., 2014), which, in turn, leads to work engagement according to the JD-R model. To address the need for a more prominent and nuanced place of leadership in the JD-R model, the concept of engaging leadership was introduced (Schaufeli, 2015; Schaufeli, 2016). It states that leaders foster their employees' levels of work engagement by focusing on satisfying their basic needs. Through satisfying followers' needs, which were derived from SDT (i.e. autonomy, relatedness, and competence) and the work of Baumeister (1991) and Frankl (1992; i.e. meaning), engaging leaders enhance the levels of engagement of their followers. More specifically, engaging leaders motivate their followers by increasing meaningfulness through inspiring (e.g., enthusing them for goals and plans, make them feel that they contribute to an important mission), increasing their competences through strengthening (e.g., delegating tasks, encouraging to use their strengths), increasing relatedness through connecting (e.g., encouraging collaboration, promoting a high team spirit), and finally increasing autonomy through empowering (e.g., granting freedom and responsibility, encouraging to voice one's own opinion) (Schaufeli, 2016).

Previous research on other positive leadership styles, as transformational, authentic leadership and LMX, supports the notion that basic needs mediate the relationship between leadership and outcomes as well-being and performance. Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, and Notelaers (2011) found that transformational leadership had a positive effect on basic needs satisfaction, whereas active management by exception had a negative effect. Transformational leadership also influenced work engagement through the mediation of basic needs satisfaction (Kovjanic, Schuh, & Jonas, 2013; Breevaart et al., 2014). A recent meta-analysis on basic needs (Van den Broeck et al., 2016) showed that positive leadership behaviors as a leader's autonomy and relatedness support, and leader-member exchange are positively related to basics need satisfaction. For the need for meaning, leaders can imbue work with meaningfulness by inspiring employees to transcend their personal needs or goals (Rosso et al., 2010). This is found in transformational leadership (Bono & Judge, 2003), but also defined in authentic leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Based on this previous research and the

conceptualization of engaging leadership in Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) it is expected that basic needs satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement. This argumentation leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Engaging leadership is positively related to basic needs satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: Basic needs satisfaction is positively related to work engagement.

Hypothesis 1c: Basic needs satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and follower's work engagement.

Conflict management as a social resource

While leadership is important, other social resources also play a crucial role for employees. This is particularly true for resources at interpersonal or team level, as most work in organizations is completed through teamwork (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Teams play a crucial role in both well-being and productivity (Torrente, Salavova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2012), whereby several interpersonal processes are important. One of these processes is conflict and conflict management (Marks et al., 2001; Costa et al., 2014). Where conflicts have generally a substantial, mostly negative, impact on teams (de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012), and individuals (De Dreu, 2008), when constructive conflict management is possible, conflicts are not necessarily bad (Elgoibar, Euwema, & Munduate, 2017).

Leaders are, from their position, expected to engage in some form of conflict management known as third party behavior, which will impact the well-being of employees (Römer, Rispens, Giebels, & Euwema, 2012). But team members are not passive and will also engage in behavior to deal with conflicts in the team (Zhang, Bollen, Pei, & Euwema, 2018). Establishing open conflict norms (Jehn, 1995) or open-minded discussion (Tjosvold, Wong, & Chen, 2014) is one of the ways to manage conflict in teams. It encourages people to express their doubts, opinions, and uncertainties and it is the norm of the team on how group members perceive and handle conflict. This promotes, for example, learning, as team members begin to doubt their ideas and search to understand multiple perspectives (Tjosvold, 2008). This positive view on conflict promotes openness, cooperation, and problem-solving (Tjosvold

et al., 2014), and gives us a new perspective to introduce conflict management in the team as another social resource.

The concept of open conflict norms and constructive conflict challenges the traditional and popular notion, which is also challenged in other research, that leaders must make decisions by themselves and then enforce some form of compliance (Tjosvold et al., 2014). Instead, effective leaders involve team members in open-minded discussions and value ideas (Tjosvold et al., 2014). It was argued that leaders can have an enduring impact by structuring more discussion about conflict and conflict management, and so develop the relationships and skills that are needed to make effective use of it (Tjosvold, 2008). Previous studies found that leadership was related to conflict resolution efficacy of the team (Babalola, Stouten, Euwema, & Ovadje, 2016) and that leaders can encourage team members to manage their conflict constructively (Zhang, Cao, & Tjosvold, 2011). In Self-Determination Theory literature it is reasoned that leaders support basic needs to the extent which they acknowledge the employees' perspective in discussions, offer choice about how to enact ideas, and refrain from pressuring behaviors and language (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan 2017). This aligns with promoting open-minded discussions and norms as people should first express their opinion, understand the other team members' point of view, integrate the ideas, and agree on a solution (Tjosvold, Wong, & Chen, 2014), rather than the leader to force a solution, which will lower levels of autonomy support. An engaging leader will, thus, promote open conflict norms, as it will increase the satisfaction of their basic needs as reasoned above.

Hypothesis 2a: Engaging leadership is positively related to open conflict norms.

Following Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), social context variables in the workplace that have an impact on employee well-being are largely mediated by basic needs satisfaction (Deci et al., 2017). These variables all have in common that they support autonomy and other needs. When employees feel more support for autonomy they also feel more connected to the organization and feel more effective (Deci et al., 2017). Open conflict norms are employees' perceptions of their team, and whether they feel they can choose to share their opinion or conflicting ideas or not. In line with SDT, the option of sharing opinions/conflicts will support their feeling of autonomy, and, therefore, increase their basic needs as a whole, and, thus, indirectly affect work

engagement, as basic needs satisfaction is proposed as the underlying mechanism for work engagement (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Hypothesis 2b: Open conflict norms is positively related to basic needs satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: Basic needs satisfaction mediates the relationship between open conflict norms and work engagement.

As these conflict management behaviors as open conflict norms will impact basic needs satisfaction, as reasoned above, an engaging leader will enhance open conflict norms and encourage and give autonomy to team members to manage conflicts themselves and provide ample support to do so, as this will increase their levels of basic needs satisfaction and work engagement. This is, however, not the only way to develop basic needs as they will impact all sorts of resources to impact their followers (Schaufeli, 2015) and not only this resource. Leaders will, thus, impact basic needs through simultaneously developing basic needs through different resources, where open conflict norms are only one of these resources.

Hypothesis 2d: Open conflict norms partially mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and basic needs satisfaction.

This study contributes to the literature in different ways. First, we add to the validity of the concept of engaging leadership by investigating its premise and its effect on work engagement through basic needs satisfaction. Second, it is, to our knowledge, the first study to test a conflict management approach as open conflict norms in a design that is not related to conflict or conflict management, but to positive motivational concepts as basic needs satisfaction and work engagement and introduce it as a social resource. Finally, this study tests the notion that different resources impact each other (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) and especially leadership (Schaufeli, 2015), as it is predicated that engaging leadership will be related to open conflict norms, where a leader uses this resource to influence basic needs satisfaction and work engagement.

Method

Procedure and participants

Participants of the study were followers whose leader participated in a leadership development program in a large public insurance company in Belgium. In total 41 leaders participated in the program. As part of that program, all of their followers ($n=198$) were asked to fill in a survey about their leader, which included the measurement of engaging leadership. To reduce common method variance, the followers were asked to fill in another survey with the concepts about themselves and the team (i.e. basic needs satisfaction, open conflict norms, and work engagement) a month after the initial survey about the leader (i.e. engaging leadership). The response rate of the second survey was 67% ($n=133$). All measurements and their respective items can be found in the appendix.

Measurements

Engaging leadership was measured by the Engaging Leadership Scale (Schaufeli, 2016). This scale includes four dimensions with three items each: inspiring (sample item: My direct supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans), strengthening (sample item: My direct supervisor encourages team members to develop their talents as much as possible), connecting (sample item: My direct supervisor encourages collaboration among team members) and empowering (sample item: My direct supervisor gives team members enough freedom and responsibility to complete their tasks). Responses for all items were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree).

Open conflict norms is measured using three items proposed by Jehn and Mannix (2001), which was adapted from a longer version by the same author (Jehn, 1995; sample item: How much open discussion of issues was there in your group?). Responses for all items were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= not at all) to 5 (= a lot).

Basic need satisfaction was measured following the recommended scales by Schaufeli (2016) to align the measurement of basic needs satisfaction with the concept of engaging leadership (see also Rahmadani, *et al.*, 2019). The Work-Related Basic Needs Satisfaction Scale (W-BNS) (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte and Soetens, 2010) was used, which included the three basic needs

proposed by SDT: competence (sample item: I feel competent at my job), autonomy (sample item: I feel like I can be myself at my job), and relatedness (sample item: At work, I feel part of a group). These items were supplemented by a scale to assess the satisfaction of the need for meaningfulness (sample item: My job is meaningful for me, personally; Rahmadani et al., 2019). Both scales contain both positive and negative items, whereby the former refer to need satisfaction and the latter to need frustration (Van den Broeck et al., 2010). Costa, Ntoumanis, and Bartholomew (2015), and Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) argue that one should not measure need frustration or even need dissatisfaction when researching the link between need satisfaction and well-being, as need frustration and dissatisfaction are associated with ill-being rather than well-being. A clear distinction was found between the three different constructs (i.e. need satisfaction, need dissatisfaction, and need frustration) as well as method effects of positive and negative items (Costa et al., 2015). Need satisfaction was indeed found to be more strongly related to life satisfaction, vitality, and positive forms of motivation, whereas need frustration was more related to depressed affect, burn-out, and somatic complaints (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, Cuevas, & Lonsdale, 2014; Nishimura & Suzuki, 2016; Van den Broeck et al., 2016). However, most scales (i.e. W-BNS of Van den Broeck et al., 2010; Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale of Deci, Ryan, Gangé, Leone, Usunov, & Kornazheva, 2001) have no specific subscales for these forms (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). Given our focus on well-being and need satisfaction, we followed the reasoning of Costa and colleagues (2015) and only included the need satisfaction (i.e. positive) items, as the negative items reflect need frustration. As suggested by Van den Broeck and colleagues (2008) we combined all items into a general need satisfaction latent construct. Participants were asked to indicate on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Work engagement was measured with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-3 (UWES-3 ; sample item: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”; Schaufeli, Shimazu, Hakanen, Salanova, & De Witte, 2017). Participants indicated on a scale from 1 (“never”) to 7 (“always, every day”) how often they experienced these feelings.

Strategy of analysis

Structural equation modeling was used to examine the adequacy of the overall model and thus allowed us to test the proposed hypotheses simultaneously. The analysis was done with R, version

3.3.3 with the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) version 0.6-1.1132 and lavaan.survey package (Oberski, 2014). The measurement model was first tested to ensure a clear distinction between the hypothesized concepts and statistically check for common method bias and were contrasted to a one-factor model via confirmative factor analysis (CFA; Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006). The latent constructs of engaging leadership and basic needs were represented by their four respective dimensions and needs. Work engagement and open conflict norms were modeled by their items. When the fit of the four-factor measurement model is superior to the one-factor model, the fit of the model can be optimized by using information from the Modification Indices, which suggests allowing particular errors to correlate. These pairs will also be allowed to correlate in the structural model. Furthermore, because some of the participants belonged to the same team and therefore rated the same leader and open conflict norms, the observations are not independent. Oberski (2014), suggest to use lavaan.survey to handle observations that are not independent, and view the teams as clusters. The use of this package in R allows us to estimate our concepts over the clusters, with no explicit modeling of the effect of the clusters or teams themselves, as the main interest of the current study is the individual and not the team.

Results

Preliminary analyses

Table 1 shows the biodata of the final participants. In the final sample, 21,8% of participants were male and 78,2% were female. Participants' mean age was 42,3 ($SD = 10,2$). 51,9% of the sample completed primary or secondary education, 33,8% held a bachelor's degree and 14,3% obtained a master's degree. With respect to job tenure most participants were over 10 years employed in the organization (59,4%), 11,3% had tenure between 7 and 10 years, 8,3% between 4 and 6 years, 16,5% between 1 and 3 years and 4,5% of the participants only joined the organization recently with a tenure lower than 1 year.

Table 1: Biodata of final participants

N		133
Gender	Male (%)	21,8
	Female (%)	78,2
Age	Mean	42,3
	SD	10,2
Education	Primary or secondary education (%)	51,9
	Bachelor's degree (%)	33,8
	Masters' degree (%)	14,3
Tenure	Less than 1 year (%)	4,5
	Between 1 and 3 years (%)	16,5
	Between 4 and 6 years (%)	8,3
	Between 7 and 10 years (%)	11,3
	More than 10 years (%)	59,4

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics and correlations. Age and gender did have no significant correlation with the other variables and were, therefore, not included in further analysis (Becker, 2005). Cronbach's alpha of all scales are displayed between brackets in table 2 and ranged from .79 to .89, which suggests that the items and scales that were used are reliable as they reached the cut-off criteria of .70 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

Table 2: Means, standard deviations and correlations

Correlations								
	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	41,91	10,33						
2. Gender ^a	0,22	0,42	,05					
3. Engaging leadership	3,96	0,45	-,02	-,04	(.85)			
4. Open conflict norms	3,26	0,74	,14	,04	,18*	(.79)		
5. Basic need satisfaction	4,19	0,51	,06	,02	,25**	,42**	(.87)	
6. Engagement	4,64	1,32	,16	-,03	,06	,23**	,44**	(.89)

^a 0 = female, 1 = male; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 3 shows the results of a series of CFA's to test the measurement model which was used to statistically check for common method bias (Malhotra et al., 2006). In the one-factor model, all items load into a single factor that represents a method effect, whereas the four-factor model represents the latent constructs as explained in the literature section. The four-factor model ($\chi^2(71) = 137.186$; $CFI = .89$; $TLI = .86$; $RMSEA = .09$; $SRMR = .09$) was superior to the one-factor model ($\chi^2(77) = 383.053$; $CFI = .47$; $TLI = .38$; $RMSEA = .20$; $SRMR = .17$), which suggests that the four concepts can be distinguished and most variance can be accounted to the different constructs instead of a method effect. Allowing two pairs of error to correlate within a concept, as suggested by the modification indices (empowering and strengthening within engaging leadership and competence and meaning within basic needs satisfaction) allowed us to optimize the model. These correlated errors share a common variance that is not solely related to the latent construct. The optimized model has excellent goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2(69) = 110.416$; $CFI = .93$; $TLI = .91$; $RMSEA = .07$; $SRMR = .08$). This outcome makes, along with the two time points for our survey, the interpretation of the results more robust, as it is less likely that the results can be attributed to common method variance (Malhotra et al., 2006). The analysis of the structural model was based on the modified version of the four-factor model.

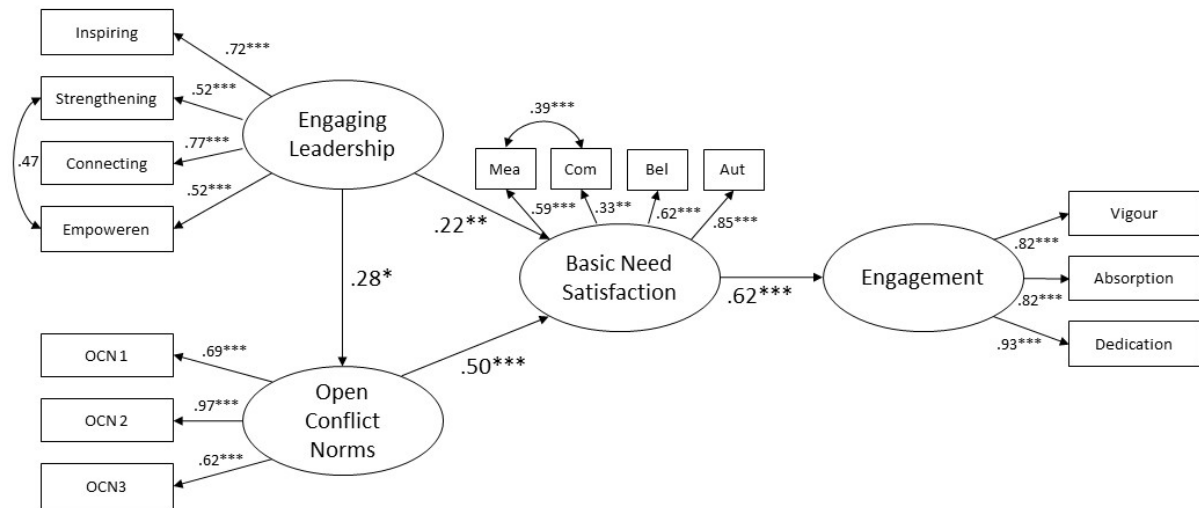
Table 3: Confirmative factor analysis of the Measurement model (N= 133)

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
One factor	382.053	77	.47	.38	.20	.17
Four factor	137.186	71	.89	.86	.09	.09
Four factor (modified)	110.416	69	.93	.91	.07	.08

Main analysis

The main analysis was performed based on the recommendations of Hayes (2009) and Zhao, Lynch, and Chen (2010) to determine whether or not there was an indirect effect. To test the indirect (or mediation) effect of the different hypotheses, all effects were analyzed in one model. This allows us to simultaneously analyze intervening pathways and, therefore, have a better estimate of how the different concepts relate to each other, instead of doing separate mediation analysis (Zhao et al., 2010). Additionally, 95% confidence intervals were calculated for the Sobel tests. The hypothesized model (M1; figure 1) was compared to a similar model (M2), but with an added direct effect from engaging leadership and open conflict norms to work engagement. The hypothesized model (M1; figure 1) resulted in good fit indices ($\chi^2(71) = 111.660$; $CFI = .94$; $TLI = .92$; $RMSEA = .07$; $SRMR = .08$). The second model (M2) suggests only partial mediation of basic needs satisfaction between engaging leadership/open conflict norms and work engagement. While M2 had acceptable goodness of fit indices ($\chi^2(69) = 110.416$; $CFI = .93$; $TLI = .91$; $RMSEA = .07$; $SRMR = .08$), the fit indices of M1 were better and both added direct effects were not significant. The other relationships were similar to M1. The Satorra-Bentler Scaled χ^2 difference test showed no significant difference between M1 and M2 ($\Delta SBS-\chi^2(2) = 134.580$; n.s.), which means that M1 is the preferred model (Scherrmelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2008).

Figure 1: Structural model of the hypothesized model M1. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.



Engaging leadership ($\gamma = 0,22$; $p < .01$) had a positive effect on basic needs satisfaction, confirming hypothesis 1a. As expected in hypothesis 1b, the relationship between basic need satisfaction and engagement was positive ($\gamma = 0,62$; $p < .001$). A Sobel test revealed a significant indirect effect of basic needs satisfaction between engaging leadership and work engagement (*estimate* = .17, $p < .01$, *CI* = .065 to .282). Hypothesis 1c is confirmed as basic needs satisfaction, mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement, also confirming the premise of engaging leadership. Next, there was a positive relationship between engaging leadership and open conflict norms ($\gamma = 0,28$; $p < .05$; Hypothesis 2a) and also between open conflict norms and basic needs satisfaction ($\gamma = 0,50$; $p < .001$; hypothesis 2b). As expected, there was an indirect effect and, thus, mediation of basic needs satisfaction between open conflict norms and work engagement (*estimate* = .37, $p < .001$, *CI* = .212 to .536), confirming hypothesis 2c. For hypothesis 2d, there was, as mentioned earlier, a positive relationship between engaging leadership and open conflict norms ($\gamma = 0,28$; $p < .05$), and between open conflict norms and basic needs satisfaction ($\gamma = 0,50$; $p < .001$). As the indirect effect was significant (*estimate* = .18, $p < .05$, *CI* = .001 to .349), hypothesis 2d was also confirmed.

Discussion

The results of the current study confirm our hypotheses; both social resources (i.e., engaging leadership and open conflict norms) impact work engagement through basic needs satisfaction. First, these results add validity to the emerging concept of engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2015; 2016), and provides us with insights on how leaders (and teams) can impact work engagement. As there was only an indirect effect through basic needs satisfaction, to increase work engagement, leaders should focus primarily on increasing these basic needs. This gives leaders a small set of concepts that they can work with to motivate their followers and increase their well-being.

Second, open conflict norms was introduced as a social resource. The concept of open conflict norms is normally used in research on conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Rispens, 2007) and it is, to our knowledge, the first time that it has been used to investigate a positive motivational state. This study shows it also has a clear and strong impact on basic needs satisfaction, which is a driver for well-being (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). This means that the ability to speak up and confront conflict constructively in teams does not only have implications for the amount of conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Rispens, 2007) but addressing other team members improves well-being through basic needs satisfaction. Apart from the leader who influences these open conflict norms, employees can encourage themselves and each other to deal openly with conflicts, thereby actively increasing their well-being. This might be especially important in jobs where other resources, such as feedback and task variety, aren't easily changed. Additionally, it might be an alternative bottom-up approach, complementary to individual techniques as job crafting (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), to strengthen work engagement in teams, as a team may promote more open and better conflict norms, even, if necessary, without their leader. With these insights, this study also reconfirms the pivotal role of basic needs satisfaction as an underlying mechanism in the motivation process of the JD-R-model (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). So far this was only tested with job resources that referred to the work itself (Van den Broeck et al., 2008) or leadership (Kovjanic et al., 2013; Breevaart et al., 2014), and not with other social resources.

Finally, the results show that resources, and more specifically social resources, do not only increase basic needs satisfaction and work engagement but also may influence one another. This

follows evidence showing that job resources (and job demands) are not isolated from each other, but rather interact and give rise to more complex processes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). In our case, leaders also influence team processes by promoting open conflict norms, which will also influence basic needs satisfaction and work engagement.

Limitations of the study and future directions

Although engaging leadership was measured at a different time than the other concepts, and is, therefore, better than a cross-sectional design, the study could be more robust with a separate measurement time for the mediators or a true longitudinal design and would have allowed concluding causality. Furthermore, the sample size was rather low, and therefore the statistical power as well. Nevertheless, despite this low sample size, our model satisfied the goodness-of-fit indices. To improve the model we allowed two pairs of error to correlate. First, empowering and strengthening of engaging leadership shared some variance. This might be due to that employees feel both strengthened and empowered when leaders, for example, delegate tasks or that when followers get developmental opportunities they feel empowered as they probably will get a more challenging task in the future or more responsibilities. Furthermore, two basic needs, competence, and meaning, also shared some variance. Employees who might feel competent in a certain skill, possibly know more about the impact of this skill or attribute more meaning towards that skills, which implicates their level of meaningfulness. On the other hand, when an employee feels that their job is significantly meaningful they might be more inclined to invest in skills to perform better.

While the proposed model has good fit indices, the initial correlation between engaging leadership and work engagement was rather low and not significant. While this is not necessary for an indirect effect (Hayes, 2009; Zhao et al., 2010; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011), this was not expected. There seem to be hidden other mediators that act as suppressors for the direct relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement that have less impact when we enter basic needs satisfaction. Investigating what might suppress this relationship might prove valuable to help leaders further increase engagement in their followers.

In this study, four basic needs were used instead of the traditional three basic needs as proposed by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Because of the opportunity to test the concept of engaging leadership empirically, the authors felt it was appropriate to operationalize basic needs satisfaction similarly as engaging leadership was conceptualized, as it was proposed by Schaufeli (2016). As mentioned earlier, previous research also showed that meaningfulness behaves as an underlying and important mechanism between resources, leadership, and well-being at work (Bono & Judge, 2003; Rosso et al., 2010). Exploratory multiple regression analyses revealed that, in this sample, R^2 changed significantly from .23 to .29 ($p < .001$) when we added the need for meaningfulness into the hierarchical regression on work engagement above the three other needs. It seems that, indeed, meaningfulness had an additional impact on work engagement. To determine whether this is a fourth basic need (in the workplace) or a different process, further examination is needed. It is also plausible that this need is partly an antecedent or consequence of the basic needs of Self-Determination Theory.

As mentioned earlier we used a SEM-design with a survey approach (Oberski, 2014) as the data were clustered in teams and therefore not independent. Using this approach means that we can interpret our results confidently on an individual level, as the team variance was removed. This is, however, only part of the story. As interesting as it is to investigate individuals, as was the aim of this study, these individuals are part of a team and influence each other. Future research should look at how leaders engage their team beyond the individual, how teams engage themselves, and how engagement can occur at a group level. Work engagement on a team level was introduced as 'Team Work Engagement' (Costa et al., 2014). An integration of this concept with the individual level of engagement and basic needs as its underlying process might help us better understand both processes and will help leaders to motivate on the individual and team level. The results of this integration should also be crafted in validated development programs. On the individual level, concepts as job crafting have been made available through empirically tested interventions (e.g. Demerouti, 2014) to enhance work engagement. Similarly, team and leadership development programs should be developed and have a focus on both engaging leadership and conflict management to increase basic needs as a means to foster work engagement on the individual and team level.

Practical implications

First of all, this paper confirms the concept of engaging leadership and its foundation in basic needs satisfaction. Concerning well-being, and more specifically, work engagement, leaders should focus on basic needs to motivate their followers. As basic needs satisfaction is a driver for motivation, work engagement will be fostered, but the impact is broader as other outcomes like burnout, turnover intentions, task-, creative- and proactive performance are related to basic needs (Van den Broeck, et al., 2016). On the team level, leaders should invest in open conflict norms and more generally in the conflict management skills of their followers. This will not only lead to more individual outcomes but also on a team level, conflict management is seen as an important process for team outcomes as teamwork engagement and performance (Marks et al., 2001; Torrente et al., 2012). Second, employees themselves can invest in conflict management skills. This can be in addition to the investment of their leader or despite of the efforts of the leader. Investments in these skills, will not only increase the basic needs of their current job but must be seen as an investment which can be transferred to future jobs.

Conclusion

The present study offers evidence for the important role of basic needs satisfaction that organizations can use to increase the well-being of their employees. More specifically, two social resources (i.e. engaging leadership and open conflict norms) are strongly related to these basic needs. These two resources have an indirect relation with work engagement, thereby contributing also to current and future team and organizational performance (Schnieder et al., 2018; Salanova et al., 2005). Actively increasing the engaging nature of leaders and open conflict norms in teams, either through bottom-up or top-down approaches, will benefit both the employee and the organization. Further research is needed on the potential added value of the need for meaningfulness in the workplace and the search for validated tools and workshops to increase both engaging leadership and open conflict norms.

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Taking care of the team member is taking care of the team: A team conflict perspective on engaging leadership

Introduction

One of the core tasks of a leader is to enhance team performance, particularly given that teams have become the cornerstone of most organizational design (Yukl, 2012). This implies stimulating task accomplishment, to which end team members need to perform individually, as well as coordinate and integrate their actions (Ceri-Booms, Curseu, & Oerlemans, 2017; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Failing to cooperate and coordinate will reduce team performance. Leaders are nowadays also put in the driver's seat to counter burnout and promote the psychosocial health of employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017) and to retain talent (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim, 2014), and are held accountable for the performance of their teams. So, leaders focus on both the team and individual employees.

On the individual level, Schaufeli (2015; 2016) recently redefined the concept of engaging leadership by referring to how a leader can motivate followers and increase their work engagement through satisfying their basic psychological needs. Fostering these basic needs and their work engagement relates, for example to followers' health (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), employability, and performance (Schaufeli, 2015). So far, research on engaging leadership has provided evidence that it influences work engagement through basic needs satisfaction and job resources (Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, & Osin, 2019; Robijn, Euwema, Schaufeli, & Deprez, 2020), but has hardly focused on the team level (Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Stouten, Zhang, & Zulkarmain, 2020).

To study teams, their outcomes and link them to leadership, team processes should be investigated, as these will allow us to gain insight into the underlying mechanisms (Ceri-Booms et al., 2017). Conflict is inherent amongst team members and their interactions (Zhang, Cao, & Tjosvold, 2010; DeChurch, Mesmer-Magnus & Doty, 2013), and mostly has a negative relation with team performance (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; O'Neill, Allen, & Hastings, 2013). It can, however, be beneficial under certain conditions (De Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012; Costa, Passos, & Bakker, 2015). Therefore, team conflict and related conflict behaviors are some of the key processes in teams (De Dreu, 2008; Elgoibar Euwema, & Munduate 2017). Conflict in teams is consistently negatively related to job satisfaction and affect (De Wit et al., 2012), and positively related to stress and burnout (De Dreu, 2008). More specifically, forcing and avoiding behaviors of team members contribute to negative outcomes, while problem-solving reduces those negative outcomes (Kozusnik, Aaldering, & Euwema,

2020). Moreover, comparable effects are found for leaders, who intervene in conflicts of their subordinates (Römer, Rispens, Giebels, & Euwema, 2012).

Conflict management is described as one of the three relational team processes, along with motivational and affection management (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001), and it is a key driver of teamwork engagement, which, in its turn, impacts team performance (Costa, Passos, & Bakker., 2014). Various studies emphasized the importance of constructive conflict management, which fosters cooperation and problem solving (e.g., Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000), and team learning (e.g., Decuyper, Dochy, & Van den Bossche, 2010). As with motivation, leaders are paramount in how conflicts are managed and resolved because, for instance, they install a psychologically safe environment that promotes team learning (Raes, Decuyper, Lismont, Van den Bosche, Kyndt, Demeyere, & Dochy, 2013). Several studies show that indeed, leaders' behavior relates to team performance with conflict management as a mediator (Zhang et al., 2011; Wong, Liu, Wang & Tjosvold, 2018).

By combining the premises of engaging leadership and the team process of conflicts and its management, this paper aims to investigate the two prime outcomes of leadership; the well-being of individual employees, and team performance. Doing so, this study contributes to the literature in three ways

1. The proposed effect of engaging leadership is extended from the team members' well-being to the performance of the team.
2. Team conflict is introduced as a possible team process that mediates between leadership and team performance.
3. Possible mechanisms are explored to investigate how engaging leaders influence team conflict.

To answer these research questions two studies were carried out. The first study investigates the interrelations between engaging leadership, basic needs, team conflict, and team performance. The second study focuses on possible mediators which leaders and team members use to alter the amount of conflict, to further explain the mechanisms underlying the proposed relations of study 1.

Study 1

Literature and Hypotheses

Work engagement, basic needs satisfaction and engaging leadership

With the growth of positive psychology and with it a more general focus on well-being in organizations, work engagement has taken a central role in organizational psychology. It is defined as a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Engaged employees are energetic and enthusiastic about their work, which leads them to perform better than non-engaged employees, and to invest more effort in their job than is formally expected (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008) and also they feel better (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Work engagement is mostly studied in the context of the Job-Demands-Resources model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), which postulates, amongst other things, that job resources instigate a motivational process that increases work engagement. These job resources are social (e.g. social support, recognition), organizational (e.g. value congruence, fair pay), developmental (e.g. performance feedback, career perspective), and related to the design of the job itself (e.g. job control, task variety) (Schaufeli, 2015).

One of the explanations why job resources impact work engagement, can be found in Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to this motivational theory, three basic needs exist; the need for competence (feeling effective), relatedness (feeling loved and cared for), and autonomy (feeling a sense of volition). The job resources as postulated in the JD-R model will increase basic needs satisfaction (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008) and in their turn, these needs are linked to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A recent meta-analytic review shows that satisfaction of these needs indeed was positively related to well-being at work and performance (e.g. positive affect, general well-being, and work engagement, task performance; Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016). Basic needs satisfaction can, thus, be seen as a driver for individual organizational behavior. As leaders are key in changing behavior at work, recent research has shown that they may increase job resources, and, therefore, the fulfillment of basic needs which will impact the levels of work engagement of employees (Breevaert, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleebos, & Maduro, 2014; Schaufeli, 2015; Rahmadani et al., 2019; Robijn, et al., 2020).

Recently, the concept of engaging leadership was introduced and integrated into the JD-R model (Schaufeli, 2015; Schaufeli, 2016). This concept states that leaders who foster their employees' levels of work engagement by focusing on satisfying their basic needs. Through satisfying followers' basic needs, for autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaning, engaging leaders enhance levels of work engagement of their followers. The first three needs were derived from Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2001), whereas the latter came from the work of Frankl (1992). More specifically, engaging leaders motivate their followers by increasing meaningfulness through inspiring (e.g., enthusing them for goals and plans, make them feel that they contribute to an important mission), increasing their competences through strengthening (e.g., delegating tasks, encouraging to use their strengths), increasing relatedness through connecting (e.g., encouraging collaboration, promoting a high team spirit), and finally increasing autonomy through empowering (e.g., granting freedom and responsibility, encouraging to voice one's own opinion) (Schaufeli, 2016). Previous research on engaging leadership showed that basic needs satisfaction, indeed, mediates between engaging leadership and work engagement in a Russian and Indonesian context. As the basic needs are supposed to be universal (Deci & Ryan, 2001), a similar relationship is expected in a Western European context (Rahmadani et al., 2019).

Hypothesis 1: Engaging leadership has an indirect effect on work engagement through basic needs satisfaction

The team impact: team conflict and team performance

The individual behavior of team members is only part of the story, though. As teamwork is omnipresent in organizations and working life in general, promoting performance through teamwork is a crucial task for leaders (Yukl, 2012). As team members work towards both individual and team goals, it seems logical that motivated team members drive team performance. It was found that individual work engagement is related to team performance (Mäkikangas, Aunola, Seppälä, & Hakanen, 2016). As basic needs satisfaction is positively linked with (task, creative and proactive) performance, but also with OCB, effort and affective commitment (Van den Broeck et al., 2016), an indirect effect of basic needs satisfaction can be expected between engaging leadership and team performance.

Hypothesis 2: Engaging Leadership has an indirect effect on team performance through basic needs satisfaction.

Other team processes also influence the team and its performance. One of the dominant team processes that is often mentioned, is team conflict and its management (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). These conflicts can be defined as the process emerging from perceived incompatibilities or differences among team members (de Wit et al., 2012). The importance of conflict in the workplace is becoming even more present due to the changes in organizations (i.e. increasing pressure to change, due to globalization, use of internet and technology, and the growing interdependency in teams; De Dreu & Gelfand, 2008). Usually, three types of conflict are distinguished: task (i.e. disagreement amongst group members about the content and outcomes of the task being performed), relationship (i.e. disagreements amongst group members about interpersonal issues), and process conflict (i.e. disagreements amongst group members about the logistics of task accomplishment; de Wit et al., 2012).

Although most empirical evidence points confirm the negative relationship between team conflict and team performance, for task conflict this relationship is not always found. The reasoning is that task conflict is possibly functional and stimulating because it surfaces issues that otherwise might not be considered. Originally, de Dreu (2008) argues that the positive effect of task conflict is limited to innovation and decision quality. Later, it was found in a meta-analysis that task conflict is indeed positively related to team performance, as the team's main focus is decision making, instead of production or project work (O'Neill et al., 2013). Another meta-analysis (de Wit et al., 2012) found this positive effect of task conflict among top-management teams, but not in teams operating at other levels of the organization.

Despite these nuances, it still seems that all types of conflict are mainly negative for most individuals and teams in organizations. As leaders impact a wide range of team processes (e.g. van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Ceri-Booms et al., 2017) leaders will also impact the amount of team conflict (Babalola, Stouten, Euwema, & Ovadje, 2018). Because engaging leaders focus on fulfilling their follower's basic needs by changing job demands and resources, conflicts will be managed rather implicitly. As conflicts are defined as job demands in the JD-R model (Schaufeli, 2015), engaging leaders

will diminish the amount of conflict, which will reduce the negative impact team performance (Marks et al., 2001; Costa et al., 2014). As engaging leadership is first and foremost focused on basic needs satisfaction, the indirect effect of conflict on team performance should exist over and above the effect of basic needs satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Engaging Leadership is positively related to team performance mediated by team conflict when controlled for basic needs satisfaction.

The first study aims to combine an individual and a team mediator to increase insight into how leaders influence team members and different outcomes. We shed light on the impact added of team conflict above basic needs satisfaction on team performance.

Method

Procedure and participants

Participants were employed in a large Dutch insurance company. All participants were asked to fill in an online questionnaire. The response rate was 22,9% (N=96). In the sample 68% of participants were male and 32% were female. Participants' mean age was 39,1 ($SD = 16,0$). 14,4% of the sample completed primary or secondary education, 48,5% held a bachelor's degree and 37,1% obtained a master's degree or higher. Concerning tenure about a fifth of the participants were over 10 years employed in their job (18,9%), 6,4% had tenure between 7 and 10 years, 21,0% between 4 and 6 years, 25,3% between 1 and 3 years and 28,4% only joined the organization recently with a tenure lower than 1 year.

Measurements

Engaging leadership was measured by the Engaging Leadership Scale (Schaufeli, 2016). This scale includes four dimensions with three items each: inspiring (sample item: My direct supervisor is able to enthuse team members with his/her plans), strengthening (sample item: My direct supervisor encourages team members to develop their talents as much as possible), connecting (sample item: My

direct supervisor encourages collaboration among team members) and empowering (sample item: My direct supervisor gives team members enough freedom and responsibility to complete their tasks). Responses for all items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree). Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was 0.90.

Basic need satisfaction was measured by the Work-Related Basic Needs Satisfaction Scale (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, & Soetens, 2010) which included the three basic needs proposed by SDT: competence (sample item: I feel competent at my job), autonomy (sample item: I feel like I can be myself at my job), and relatedness (sample item: At work, I feel part of a group). These items were supplemented by a scale to assess the satisfaction of the need for meaningfulness (sample item: My job is meaningful for me, personally; Schaufeli, 2016). This dimension was added to be consistent with the concept of engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2016) and previous operationalizations (Rahmadani et al., 2019; Robijn et al., 2020). Participants were asked to indicate on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). To ensure as many employees as possible filled in the questionnaire, we shortened the scale by only using the positively worded items. As suggested by Van den Broeck and colleagues (2008) we combined the items into one composite general need satisfaction score which consisted of 13 items. Cronbach's alpha of this general measure was 0.87.

Work Engagement was measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-3 (UWES-3; sample item: "At my work, I feel bursting with energy"; Schaufeli, Shimazu, Hakanen, Salanova, & De Witte, 2017). Participants indicated on a scale from 1 ("never") to 7 ("always, every day") how often they experienced these feelings. Cronbach's alpha of this measure was 0.88.

Team conflict was measured using a team conflict scale (Jehn & Mannix, 2001), which includes three types of conflict: task conflict (sample item: 'How much conflict of ideas is there in your workgroup?'; $\alpha = .78$), relationship conflict (sample item: 'How much relationship tension is there in your workgroup?'; $\alpha = .84$), and process conflict (sample item: 'How often are there disagreements about who should do what in your workgroup?'; $\alpha = .83$). Responses for all items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= never) to 5 (= always). The combined Cronbach's alpha was 0.85.

To operationalize *team performance* we used the scale of Campion, Papper, and Medsker (1996). The scale consists of three common performance dimensions (i.e. productivity, proactivity, and customer

service; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) with an additional general item. Items, thus, referred to performance about productivity (sample item: 'How do you rate the quality of the work your team does), proactivity (sample item: 'How do you rate the degree to which your team responds quickly to problems or opportunities), customer service (sample item: 'How satisfied are you with the degree to which your team satisfies customers'), and general team performance (sample item: 'How satisfied are you in general with your team's performance'). Participants were asked to indicate on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (very poor) to 5 (outstanding). Cronbach's alpha was 0.80.

Strategy of analysis

Structural equation modeling was used to examine the adequacy of an overall model that allowed us to test the proposed hypothesis simultaneously. The analysis was done with R, version 3.3.3 with the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) version 0.6-1.1132 and lavaan.survey package (Oberski, 2014). As the sample size was rather small ($n=96$) and the number of teams was relatively high (number of team = 42) and rather unbalanced (1 to 5 team members) a multilevel approach was not deemed feasible (Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010; Preacher, Zhang & Zyphur, 2011). Oberski (2014), suggests using lavaan.survey to handle observations that are not independent, and view the teams as clusters. This approach allows us to estimate our parameters over the clusters, with no explicit modeling of the effect of the clusters themselves, making the observations of engaging leadership, team conflict and team performance, perceived individual scores of these concepts rather than aggregated or team scores. The latent constructs of engaging leadership, basic needs satisfaction, team conflict, and team performance were configured by their respective dimensions. Work engagement was constructed by three items that correspond to the respective dimensions of the concept (Schaufeli et al., 2017).

Results and Discussion

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses to assess the fit of our data to the measurement model. Two measurement models with all variables were proposed. First, a model where the three different types of conflict are distinct. The second model proposes that the three types of conflict load on one latent construct that refers to an underlying construct that refers to team conflict, as all types of conflict seem to have, mostly, a similar impact (De Dreu, 2008; De Wit et al.,

2012). While, as mentioned earlier, there is some discussion about whether task conflict is, under very restricted circumstances, positive for distal outcomes as team performance, in this sample the initial correlation between task conflict and team performance was negative ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$). It seems that these conditions for a positive effect of task conflict were not met. In measurement model 1, with the three types of conflicts as distinct construct, shows reasonable fit ($\chi^2 = 317.177(231)$; $CFI = .92$; $TLI = .91$; $RMSEA = .06$; $SRMR = .07$), measurement model 2, showed better fit indices ($\chi^2 = 172.041(125)$; $CFI = .94$; $TLI = .93$; $RMSEA = .06$; $SRMR = .07$). It seems that, in this sample, conflicts are best represented by a common factor. The analysis was, therefore, continued with the second measurement model of conflict. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics and correlations of the concepts of the latent construct of measurement model 2.

Table 1 Means, standard deviations and correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Engaging Leadership	3,91	0,46	-			
2 Work Engagement	5,12	1,10	.42**	-		
3 Basic Needs Satisfaction	3,86	0,45	.50**	.62**	-	
4 Team Conflict	1,84	0,46	-.29**	-.12	-.17	-
5 Team Performance	3,82	0,45	.55**	.31**	.38**	-.35**

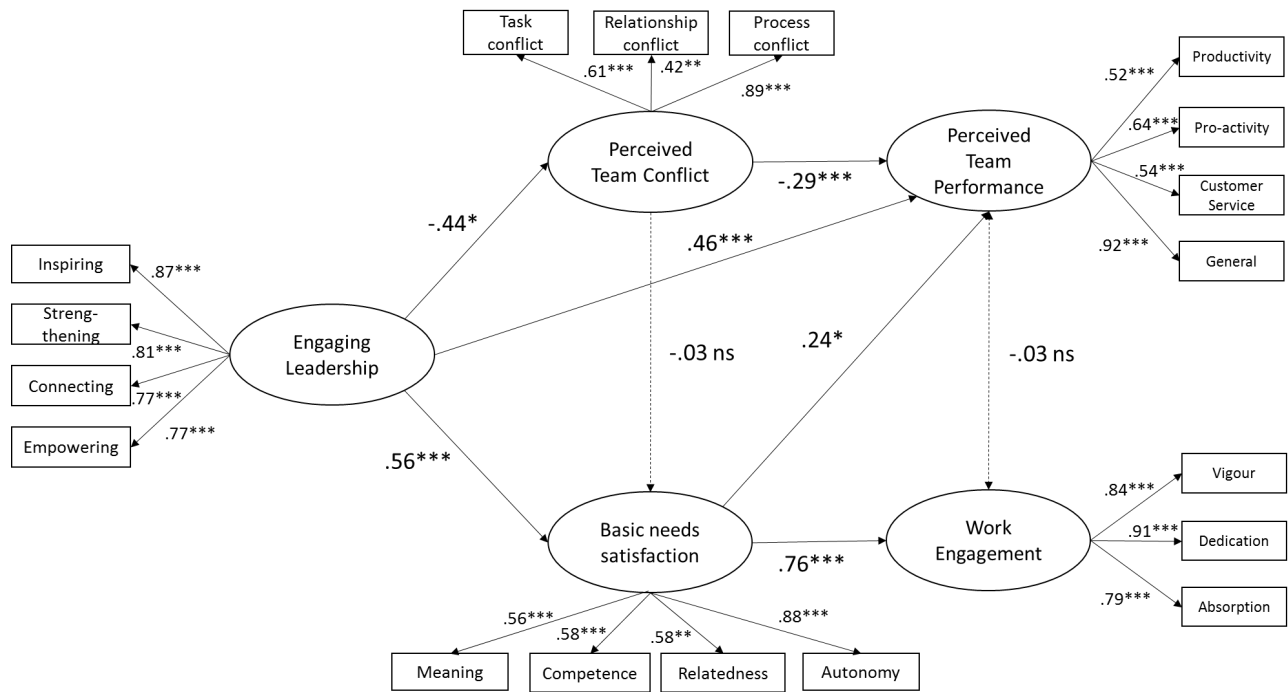
** $p < 0.01$

Based on the literature, we hypothesized that perceived team conflict has a negative impact on perceived team performance, but in reality, other team processes and emergent states are present as well (Costa et al. 2014), which are represented in a direct effect between engaging leadership and perceived team performance. To continue, two models were evaluated with one difference; M1 without a direct relation between engaging leadership and perceived team performance and M2 which included this direct path. All other relations were the same in both models, as represented in figure 1. A Satorra-Bentler Scaled χ^2 difference test was used to test the differences in the model fit. This was

possible given that the models are nested (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). The addition of the direct path from engaging leadership to team performance in M2 was associated with a significant increase in model fit ($\Delta SBS-\chi^2(1) = 166.7; p < .001$), which means that there are other processes in addition to team conflict that are important for explaining the relationship between engaging leadership and team performance. The following analyses were done based on M2.

The final model, as presented in figure 1, yielded good goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2 = 6.795(128)$; $CFI = .94$; $TLI = .92$; $RMSEA = .06$; $SRMR = .07$) and is shown in figure 1. Engaging leadership was positively related to basic needs satisfaction ($\gamma = 0.62$; $p < .001$) and team performance ($\gamma = 0.46$; $p < .001$), and negatively related to perceived team conflict ($\gamma = -0.48$; $p < .05$). Basic needs satisfaction was, in turn, positively related to work engagement ($\gamma = 0.77$; $p < .001$) and perceived team performance ($\gamma = 0.50$; $p < .001$), respectively. There was a negative relationship between perceived team conflict and perceived team performance ($\gamma = -0.47$; $p < .001$) and a non-significant relationship between perceived team conflict and basic needs satisfaction ($\gamma = 0.06$; ns). Both outcomes, perceived team performance, and work engagement shared some variance, but it was not significant ($\gamma = 0.10$; ns). The model explained 63% of the variance in team performance and 58% of the variance in work engagement.

Figure 1 Structural model of the hypothesized model.



* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$. Dotted lines are not significant

To test all three hypotheses indirect effects were calculated amongst the relevant variables through Sobel tests. For the first hypothesis, as predicted, an indirect effect was observed between engaging leadership and work engagement through basic needs satisfaction (*standardized estimate* = 0.48; $p < .001$). Hypothesis 1 can, thus, be accepted. Next, engaging leadership was also related to perceived team performance through basic needs satisfaction (*standardized estimate* = 0.31; $p < .001$), which confirms hypothesis 2. Finally, the effect of engaging leadership on perceived team performance through team conflict was significant (*standardized estimate* = 0.23; $p < .001$). Hence, hypothesis 3 is partly confirmed. Looking at the model, there is still a relatively large direct effect between engaging leadership and team performance ($\gamma = 0.46$; $p < .001$), when basic needs satisfaction and team conflict is taken into account. So while both processes explain some part of the variance of team performance, other processes impact team performance.

First, these results replicate in a Belgian sample the finding that basic needs satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement (Rahmadani et al, 2019, Robijn et al, 2020). Second, basic needs satisfaction was found to be positively related to perceived team performance. Third, results confirm our hypothesis that engaging leadership is negatively related to team conflict and that this is, in its turn, negatively related to perceived team performance. Finally, there a large direct effect remained between engaging leadership and perceived team performance which suggests that engaging leaders influence both the individual and the team, but that basic needs satisfaction and team conflict are not the only mechanisms involved.

Study 2

The results of Study 1 show a clear effect of team conflict in the relationship between engaging leadership and team performance. It remains, however, unclear *how* engaging leaders impact conflicts in these teams. Based on the theoretical background of engaging leadership as a leadership style that influences the needs of the people, two possible explanations seem plausible. First, an engaging leader will not directly try to mediate conflicts as it will probably lower autonomy (i.e. the leader restricts the amount of autonomy of the team members by intervening) and competence (i.e. employees might feel that their leader thinks they are not capable of solving the conflict themselves). Rather, he or she will create an environment where open-minded discussion is possible, for instance, through acknowledging employees' perspective in discussions, offering choice about how to enact ideas and refrain from forcing behavior and language (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan 2017; Robijn et al., 2020). Also, leaders may develop both relationships and skills from team members, by structuring and promoting discussion about conflict and conflict management (Tjosvold, 2008). Additionally, this will give team members more autonomy and will increase meaningfulness, as they understand each other's point of view in a conflict. By focusing on their basic needs, engaging leadership will, thus, stimulate certain behaviors and norms about open conflict where team members share their conflicts and how they should deal with them (Jehn, 1995).

Hypothesis 1: Open conflict norms mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and conflict.

Second, a leader who focuses on the needs of his or her fellow team members will act as a role model. Previous research found this effect of leaders, for example, in organizational citizenship behavior (Yaffe & Kark, 2011) and conflict resolution efficacy (Babalola et al., 2016). In our case, following Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1971), team members will be more apt to support each other, when a leader supports his or her followers, as they learn from their leader's behavior. This, so-called vicarious learning will result in the support of basic needs, not only by the leader but also by team members. In the field of conflict and conflict management, this type of behavior of team members has recently been introduced as peacemaking. This is an act, where peers spontaneously and informally intervene in conflicts among their colleagues (Xiaolei, Bollen, Pei & Euwema, 2018). As leaders are not always present or the right person to solve conflicts, this support from team members is crucial for the team.

In managing conflicts, team members should be both rational and emotional (Tjosvold, 2008) as conflicts concern affective and cognitive tensions (Elgoibar et al., 2017). Immediate emotional reactions are mostly counterproductive and team members should be able to slow down and critically assess their own emotions and thinking processes (Lindner, 2014). The emotional support of the team members should provide a resource to do this and make them able to express their feelings and views honestly. This action also invites the other team members to do the same (Tjosvold, 2008). Only after expressing their view and listening to the other's view, team members will be able to integrate their views and agree on a solution (Tjosvold, Wong & Chen, 2014). In sum, engaging leaders act as role models and promote team members to engage in peacemaking behavior, which will lower the amount of conflict in the team.

Hypothesis 2: Peacemaking mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and team conflict.

Method

Procedure and participants

The participants worked in a large Belgian public insurance company. Participants were asked to fill in an online questionnaire. Out of 450 employees, 264 filled in the questionnaire (58,67%). 26,9% of the

participants were male and the mean age was 42,48 years ($SD = 10,21$). 1,1% of the sample completed primary education. More than half of the sample completed their secondary education (50,8%). The rest held either a bachelor's (39,0%) or a master's degree (9,1%). Concerning tenure, 9,1% of the participants were less than a year employed at their current job. 14,4% had a job tenure between 1 and 3 years, 15,5% between 4 and 6 years, and 10,2% between 7 and 10 years. Most participants had a tenure above 10 years (50,8%). The participants were nested in 86 teams, resulting in an average amount of team members of 3,07.

Measurements

Engaging leadership was measured on the Engaging Leadership Scale (Schaufeli, 2016) as in study 1. Cronbach's alpha was 0.94.

Open conflict norms was measured using three items proposed by Jehn and Mannix (2001; sample item: Disagreements are encouraged in my work unit). Responses for all items were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree). Cronbach's alpha was 0.90.

Peacemaking was measured using the emotional peacemaking scale of (Zhang, Bollen, & Euwema, 2020). The scale consisted of four items (sample item: In my team, we ask what is bothering when we sense that a team member is frustrated). The same Likert scale was used as with open conflict norms ranging from 1 (= completely disagree) to 5 (= completely agree). Cronbach's alpha was 0.95.

Team conflict was measured using the same measure of team conflict as in study 1 (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Cronbach's alpha was 0.85.

Strategy of analysis

As this design uses all concepts about the team, measured on an individual perceived level, a 1-1-1 multilevel design (264 individuals within 84 teams) was used with both within and between

effects of each variable (Preacher et al., 2010). SPSS, version 26, was used, with the MLMED macro of Rockwood and Hayes (2020) to analyze the data.

Table 2 Means, standard deviations and correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Engaging Leadership	3,65	0,73	-	.55***	.52***	-.29***
2 Open conflict norms	3,34	0,85	.56***	-	.68***	-.49***
3 Peace Making	3,00	1,07	.50***	.61***	-	-.39***
4 Team Conflict	1,93	0,48	-.33***	-.43***	-.37***	-

*** $p < 0.001$; means and standard deviations (SD) are on the individual level. Correlations above the diagonal are measured on the team level, below the diagonal are from the individual level.

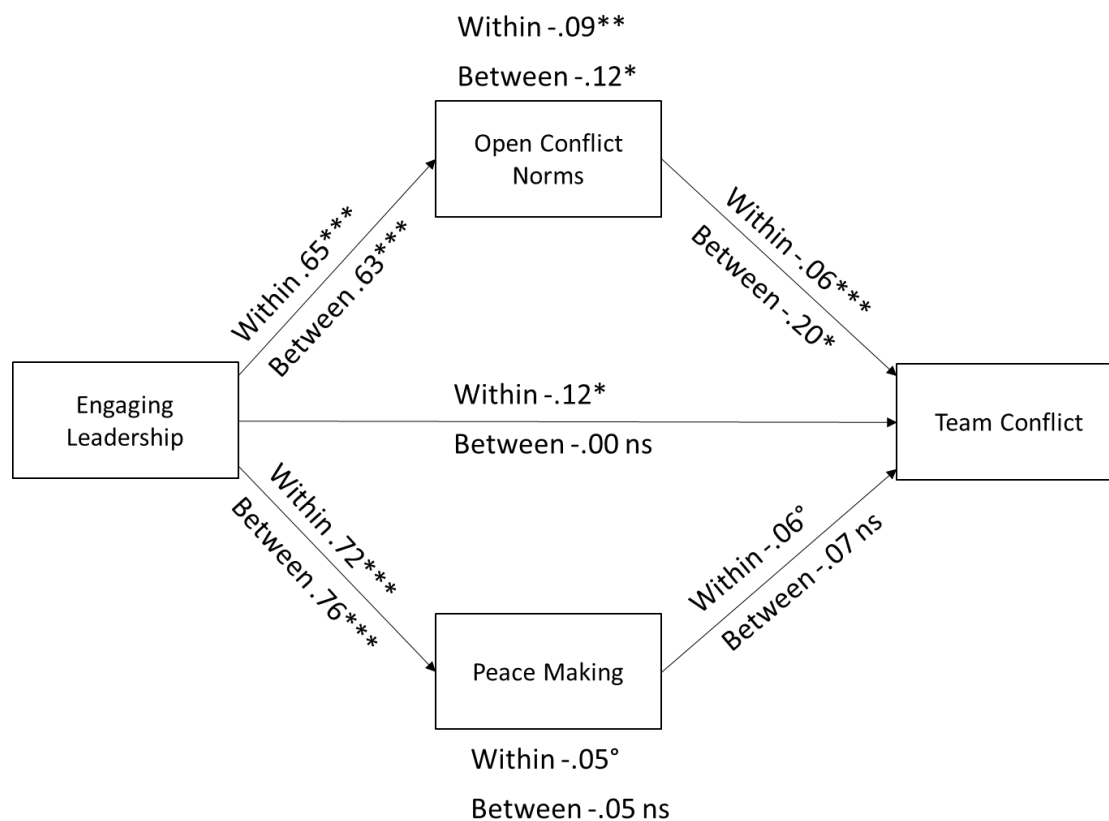
Results and discussion

Table 2 displays all correlations on the within and between level. All relations were significant and in the expected direction. Figure 2 shows all the hypothesized relations with their respective loadings and levels of significance. Engaging leadership has a positive relationship with both open conflict norms within ($\gamma_{\text{within}} = 0.65$; $p < .001$), as well as between the teams ($\gamma_{\text{between}} = 0.65$; $p < .001$). This suggests that the higher the team member's perception of engaging leadership, the higher his or her perception is of open conflict norms, and the higher the team's perception of engaging leadership, the higher the team's perception of open conflict norms. Similar types of relationships were found for Peace-Making ($\gamma_{\text{within}} = .72$; $p < .001$; $\gamma_{\text{between}} = .76$; $p < .001$). Open conflict norms was found to be negatively related to team conflict ($\gamma_{\text{within}} = -.06$; $p < .001$; $\gamma_{\text{between}} = -.20$; $p < .05$). Both individuals and teams who perceive open conflict norms perceive lower amounts of team conflict. Peacemaking, however, was almost unrelated to team conflict at both levels ($\gamma_{\text{within}} = -.06$; $p < .10$; $\gamma_{\text{between}} = -.07$; ns). Concerning hypothesis 1, there was a significant indirect effect at the within-level between engaging leadership and team conflict, mediated by open conflict norms (*standardized estimate*_{within} = $-.09$; $p < .01$). At the between level, a similar indirect effect was found (*standardized estimate*_{between} = $-.12$; $p < .05$). Hence Hypothesis

1 can be confirmed. Peacemaking, on the other hand, had *no* significant mediating effect in the relation between engaging leadership and team conflict at both levels of analysis (*standardized estimate_{within}* = -.05; $p < .10$; *standardized estimate_{between}* = -.05; ns). Hence Hypothesis 2 is rejected.

Taken into account the indirect effects of open conflict norms and peacemaking, there is still a within-effect between engaging leadership and team conflict ($\gamma_{\text{within}} = -.12$; $p < .05$). Between the teams, there was *no* significant effect, though. Concerning the individual perception of team conflict, it seems that there is, apart from a difference in individually perceived open conflict norms, an additional direct effect from engaging leadership, which possibly means there is still another unknown process involved. The team's perception of open conflict norms seems to explain the whole relationship between the team's perception of engaging leadership and its perception of the amount of team conflict.

Figure 2. Overview of the mediation effects of Open Conflict Norms and Peace Making



° $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$.

The goal of study 2 was to investigate how engaging leaders influence the amount of team conflict. Altogether, these relations show that there is a clear effect of the leader and team processes between the teams on both the individual and team level. Two possible mechanisms were proposed. The first mechanism includes open conflict norms that were found to be a mediator between engaging leadership and team conflict, both within as well as between teams. Despite the relatively strong relationship between engaging leadership and peacemaking, the latter was not found to be a mechanism through which engaging leaders influence the amount of team conflict.

General discussion

To investigate the impact of engaging leadership on the team level based on a conflict management approach, two studies were carried out. Results show that engaging leadership, indeed, is related to team performance mediated by the amount of team conflict. Engaging leadership was also related to open conflict norms (i.e. team members feel that they can address different opinions and disagreements in their team), which affected the amount of conflict. Uncovering these processes is important as it gives academics as well as practitioners insights on how to understand and help leaders become more efficient. As team conflicts and conflict management are not only related to team performance but also to stress (Römer et al., 2012) and work engagement (Robijn et al. 2020), leaders may also use conflict management strategies to impact the well-being of their employees. Previous research studied the link between leadership and performance through a wide range of mediators. In their review, Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) found no less than 52 possible mediators, grouped into 14 clusters, between transformational leadership and different types of individual and team outcomes. However, neither conflict nor conflict management was included in this review, but it has been acknowledged as one of the important interpersonal processes in teams (Marks et al., 2001). The current study illustrates the importance of conflict and its management in the leadership literature and its effect on team performance.

Theoretical implications

First of all, basic needs are related to a lot of different outcomes concerning performance, such as task performance and innovation as well as more well-being related outcomes (e.g. positive affect and burnout; (Van den Broeck et al., 2016). These outcomes are mostly studied at the individual level although most of the work in organizations is done in teams (Yukl, 2012). Our study shows that basic needs (i.e. autonomy, relatedness, competence, and meaningfulness) also impact the perceived team performance, meaning that when a leader focuses on the satisfying basic needs of his or her team members, this will also boost team performance. As it seems plausible that a motivated or engaged individual contributes to the performance of the team, most studies on work engagement and performance only measure individual performance (Mäkikangas, Aunola, Seppälä & Hakanen, 2016). As we link the underlying mechanism of work engagement – basic needs satisfaction – to perceived team performance, it seems that this mechanism may – at least partially – explain the relationship between engaging leadership and perceived team performance.

Second, engaging leadership does more than affect basic needs satisfaction. When controlled for basic needs satisfaction, there was still an indirect effect observed of engaging leadership, via team conflict on team performance and a direct effect between engaging leadership and team performance. This may mean that an engaging leader uses different strategies to influence basic needs satisfaction, and some of these strategies happen to influence team performance as well. It was recently found that engaging leaders establish open conflict norms to fulfill the basic needs of his/her followers (Robijn et al., 2020). But engaging leaders also use other job resources to fulfill basic needs and hence increase work engagement (Rahmadani et al., 2019, Rahmadani et al., 2020). On the other hand, it is possible that engaging leadership and its corresponding behavior is just about being a good leader, which is not only focused on satisfying basic needs, but also other aspects which will stimulate performance (on either level) and well-being. Previous research (Rowold, Borgmann, & Diebig, 2015) suggests that it might be possible that different leadership styles are facets of one general leadership factor, rather than being different constructs. Indeed, different other leadership styles, such as transformational and servant leadership have shown relations with basic needs (Breevaart, et al., 2014; van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014) work engagement.

Third, in study 1 there was a large direct effect of engaging leadership on perceived team performance and in study 2 a small direct within-teams effect between the individual perception of engaging leadership and team conflict. Team conflict and open conflict norms are, thus, not the only underlying mechanisms at work. In the model of teamwork engagement (Costa et al., 2015), leadership is proposed as an antecedent, and team performance as an outcome, where conflict management is one of the underlying mechanisms. The two other mechanisms that are proposed (Costa et al., 2015; Marks et al., 2001), are motivation and affective management. This aligns with our results, that conflict management is an important process, but future research should consider and – if possible -- integrate different proposed mediators simultaneously.

Fourth, although we formulated no explicit hypothesis about this as it was not the focus of this study, a negative relationship from team conflict to basic needs satisfaction was modeled. Following the Job-Demands-Resources model (Schaufeli, 2015; Bakker, 2017), conflicts are defined as job demands. As these demands are negatively related to basic needs satisfaction (Van den Broeck, et. al., 2008), it was expected that this relationship was negative. The results, however, show a non-significant relationship, both in the correlation table and the SEM-analysis. Recent research makes the distinction between basic needs satisfaction and basic needs frustration, where the latter refers to experience where the basic psychological needs are actively thwarted (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Satisfaction of basic needs is related to well-being, whereas need frustration leads to ill-being (Costa, Ntoumanis, & Bartholomew, 2015). In our case, it could be that conflicts, thwart the needs of employees (e.g. diminished relatedness when a conflict occurs), and therefore have an positive relation with needs frustration and ill-being, rather than the satisfaction and the well-being, which was measured in study 1.

Finally, we expected in study 2 that peacemaking would mediate the relationship between engaging leadership and team conflict. While there was a strong effect of engaging leadership on peacemaking, there was no indirect effect, on both levels, on team conflict. It seems plausible that leaders are indeed role models and that engage team members in peacemaking behaviors. However, it seems that these behaviors do not affect the amount of conflict. It might be that peacemaking, as any sort of social support, buffers the effect of the conflict, rather than having an impact on the amount of conflict itself. Other research shows indeed that social support moderated the effect between social

conflict and well-being (Abbey, Abramis, & Caplan, 1985). Furthermore, following recent developments in the Job-Demands Resource model, job resources might buffer some job demands (Bakker, 2017; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). As peacemaking can be considered as a specific type of social support and, thus a job resource, this might buffer the effect of conflict, a job demand, on burn-out. Colleagues might thus have the same buffering effect on well-being as leaders (Römer et al., 2012), rather than impacting the amount of conflict as was hypothesized.

Limitations and future research

As we used a cross-sectional design and relied solely on self-report measures, common method bias could be a concern. For study 1, we used Harmann's method to check for possible common method bias. Future studies should try to replicate and extend these results with two or more waves of data collection and, preferably, use other-rated data where possible (e.g. team performance). Furthermore, as there was still a large direct effect, future research can focus on finding more mediators while controlling for conflict management. Inspiration can come from, for example, the mediators analysed by van Knippenberg & Sitkin (2013) or the model of teamwork engagement (Costa et al., 2014). Concerning, team conflict, we used one approach to operationalize conflict, by measuring the sources of the conflict (i.e. task, relationship, process conflict; Mannix & Jehn, 2001), but it might be interesting to review these results in the framework of cooperative/constructive and competitive conflict (Tjosvold et al., 2014). Leaders were found to instigate constructive conflict to promote quality relationships, employee involvement, and performance (Tjosvold, 2008). Also, different types of conflict management were used (i.e. open conflict norms and peace making), which the team can engage in, as team processes was one of the main interests of this study. However, it might be interesting to investigate in a more traditional type of conflict management, namely third party intervention of the leader or a mediator (Elgoibar et al., 2017).

Practical implications

Leaders should focus on their team members' basic needs. This will positively affect both the well-being of their followers, but also the performance of the team. They can, for example, alter job

demands and resources to stimulate the fulfilment of these needs (Schaufeli, 2015; Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020). Furthermore, leaders should provide the right climate to counter team conflict. Creating open conflict norms, might not only impact their followers (Robijn et al., 2020), but also the amount of conflict in the team and, thus, the performance of the team as study 1 showed. Leaders, and team members, might make explicit statements about how conflict is handled in their team to create these norms or try to remember a critical event and how they handled the conflict back then (Feldman, 1984).

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General Discussion

Looking back and moving forward

In this final chapter, we look back on the four studies that were conducted for this dissertation. We review the findings of these studies, which were presented in chapters 2, 3, and 4. We will discuss them in light of the research questions that were formulated in the first chapter of this dissertation and their contributions to the literature. For each research question, we will highlight the most important contribution, some limitations, and how these translate into suggestions for future research. As the specific conclusions, limitations, and suggested future research are highlighted in each chapter, we limit these sections to the parts that are most relevant to our research questions. The practical implications of the results are summarized for practitioners in the next section, before ending with some concluding remarks.

Engaging leadership as an emerging concept

The first research question was *“Do different types of raters perceive engaging leadership similarly?”*. As engaging leadership is an emerging leadership style, research on the concept, as well as its premise and measurement are limited and for a large part published in the last two years (Schaufeli, 2015; Nikolova, Schaufeli, & Notelaers, 2019; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Ivanova, & Osin, 2019; Rahmadani, Schaufeli, Stouten, Zhang, & Zulkarnain, 2020; Van Tuin, Schaufeli, & Van Rhenen, 2020). This dissertation has been an opportunity to further investigate this concept. To begin with, all studies on engaging leadership used the engaging leadership scale as a general scale, rather than its dimensions. Basic need satisfaction, the theoretical foundation of engaging leadership, is often operationalized similarly. Namely, as one (latent) construct that is based on a set of basic needs (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). While this operationalization is widely used, basic needs are conceptually distinct and should theoretically have distinct correlates as well as potential consequences (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, & Rosen, 2016). Similar reasoning applies to the different dimensions of engaging leadership (i.e. empowering, strengthening, connecting, and inspiring) as they are each supposed to be related to a specific basic need.

Also, engaging leadership has only been measured so far using the perspective of followers. Whether the leaders themselves, colleagues, and the leaders’ supervisors perceive them similarly has

not yet been investigated. In **Chapter 2**, a traditional and SEM-based multi-trait multi-method (MTMM) analysis was performed to investigate the different dimensions of engaging leadership through different types of raters. We found that a general leadership measure, as was used in previous studies, had a better fit with our data. The follower-, colleague- and supervisor-ratings suggested a halo-effect (i.e. the tendency to rate towards a more general notion, of leadership in our case, instead of a more nuanced view among the different aspects of behavior). This effect, however, was not present in the self-ratings of the leader. Hence, it seems that others perceive engaging leadership as a whole, rather than perceiving different dimensions. While this result was not entirely in line with our theoretical expectations, this pattern is not unusual. In their meta-analysis on basic needs, Van den Broeck and colleagues (2016) mention these needs often co-occur and correlate highly, despite their theoretical distinction.

Similar results have been found for leadership behavior. A general leadership concept, for example, was found to better explain the variance in dimensions of transformational leadership (Lievens, Van Geit, & Coetsier, 1997) and transactional leadership, laissez-faire, consideration, initiating structure, and LMX (Rowold, Borgmann, & Diebig, 2015). Similarly, it seems that despite different theoretical leadership constructs an empirical overlap exists. This has led us to conclude that to study engaging leadership, a general engaging leadership measure is best used. The ratings of followers, colleagues, and supervisors showed the most convergence, while self-ratings did not show enough internal consistency and also weak relations to the other raters. As the premise of engaging leadership has been solely researched with follower-ratings, supervisor- and colleague ratings could be used, given their high convergence with follower-ratings. Self-rating of engaging leadership, on the other hand, must be used with caution and requires further investigation.

The second research question *“To what extent is engaging leadership related to work engagement, mediated by basic needs satisfaction?”* also focused on the emerging concept of engaging leadership. In **Chapter 3** and **Chapter 4**, we tested the premise of engaging leadership, namely that engaging leaders engage their followers by satisfying their basic needs. At the beginning of this dissertation project, this premise had not yet been tested. During these few years, it has been investigated in different countries (Rahmadani et al., 2019, Rahmadani et al., 2020; Van Tuin et al., 2020) and we replicated these analyses with a Belgian and Dutch sample. In **Chapter 3**, we also tested

this against a model that included a direct effect between engaging leadership and work engagement to investigate whether there are other processes besides basic needs satisfaction. However, no direct effect was found which led us to conclude that basic needs satisfaction is the prime mechanism to engage individuals at work.

These contributions to the emerging concept of engaging leadership do not come without limitations and follow-up questions, which we have also discussed in each chapter of the respective study. Some overall questions still remain unanswered. First, we followed Schaufeli's (2016) proposition of four basic needs while Deci and Ryan (2000) only describe three basic needs. The additional need for meaningfulness originates from the work of Frankl (1992), which is considered universal, similarly to other basic needs. Therefore, in **Chapter 3** we argued that similarly to a basic need, meaningfulness is predicted by job resources and it has an effect on work engagement and other similar outcomes (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). However, this assumption was based on the conceptualization of engaging leadership (Schaufeli, 2016).

Using a self-determination theory perspective, one could argue that finding a task personally meaningful will satisfy the need for autonomy and increase the willingness to complete it. Deci and Ryan (2000) further describe different states of motivation people experience as their needs become more satisfied. One of these states is 'identification', which is described as "the process through which people recognize and accept the underlying value of a behavior" (Deci & Ryan, 2000, pp. 236). Similarly to intrinsic motivation, this state is closer to a need for meaningfulness than to the other basic needs. Thus, it seems that some form of meaningfulness is also inherent in self-determination theory, although not operationalized as a distinct basic need. Aside from its potential in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), meaningfulness is often described as a separate concept in other theories and frameworks (e.g. Frankl, 1992; Rosso et al., 2010). For instance, Rahmadani and colleagues (2019) analyzed the traditional basic needs as a common construct and the need for meaningfulness as separate construct. While meaningfulness mediated the relationship similarly to the other basic needs in their Russian sample, it did not do so in their Indonesian sample, which might mean that meaningfulness is not a universal need, as the other SDT-needs are.

In **Chapter 3**, we did an exploratory hierarchical regression to explore the added value of the need for meaningfulness on work engagement. Because R^2 changed significantly, the addition of meaningfulness has its value. Hence, while it is clear that meaningfulness is a mechanism that is important for wellbeing in the workplace, its place in other frameworks and theories is unclear. Future research could investigate whether the need for meaningfulness is a separate need on its own right or whether it is an aspect of, for instance, the need for autonomy. A more practical approach would be to explore how to augment meaningfulness at work. Rosso and colleagues (2010) summarize techniques as developing authenticity, self-esteem, and purpose, which might be complementary with current methods used to boost basic needs satisfaction and work engagement as job redesign, job crafting, and strengths use. (Bakker, 2017).

While the needs of engaging leadership are aligned with the current operationalization of the basic needs of SDT, previous motivational theories might also prove insightful. As mentioned earlier, the dimensions of engaging leadership and the basic needs of SDT (Van den Broeck et al., 2016) are often difficult to distinguish. In Maslow's theory of motivation, a hierarchy of needs is proposed (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). Higher-level needs (i.e. intimacy, self-esteem, personal growth) can only be satisfied after lower-level needs are satisfied (i.e. biological needs, security). Rasskazova, Ivanova, and Sheldon (2016) propose that the basic needs of SDT (i.e. autonomy, relatedness, and competence) could also be used as higher-level needs. In line with Maslow's theory they found that, to some extent, job and financial security were instrumental for the relation between SDT's basic needs and wellbeing (Rasskazova et al., 2016). Thus, in terms of engaging leadership, this could mean that leaders should not only focus on the proposed needs but also consider other needs, such as job and financial security to engage their followers.

While the addition of the need for meaningfulness gives engaging leadership a broader scope, more needs can be included in future research. On one other hand, we should be careful not to expand the model too far. One of the attractive characteristics of engaging leadership is that is easy to understand and use, especially for practitioners (leaders, trainers, coaches, HR-officers), who do not have a background in organizational psychology. Adding more needs might be valid from a researchers point of view, but too many needs might complicate it. On the other hand, it might also be worthwhile investigating how to simplify the concept into a need-based leadership style without specifying the

needs separately. This would make the concept more flexible and take into account that to some extent, every employee has possibly different needs. A possible caveat for this line of thought is the possibility that the concept becomes too vague and does not provide enough direction.

Second, to further validate engaging leadership, one could also explore its link with other leadership styles. Leadership is one of the most studied concepts in organizational behavior (Carasco-Saul, Kim, & Kim, 2015), and this has led to a vast amount of theories on different leadership styles and behaviors. Despite the debate on the need for this plethora of leadership constructs, they show great empirical overlap (Rowold, et al., 2015). Two leadership constructs, namely transformational and servant leadership, which are often used in research on well-being and conflicts, seem to be more distinct (Hoch, Bommer, Bluebohn, & Wu, 2018) and drive different processes (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014) than others. Because these two leadership constructs represent the majority of the research on leadership and work engagement and for simplicity, we will limit our discussion to these styles. Theoretically, engaging leadership shows the most overlap with servant leadership. While transformational leadership is rather focused on the organization, servant leadership's central thesis is to serve or to fulfill the followers' needs (van Dierendonck et al., 2014; Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019).

Engaging leadership starts from the same premise, but the followers' needs are specified and linked to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and the work of Frankl (1992). Similarly to engaging leadership, servant leadership is a multi-dimensional construct (Liden, Wayne, Meuser, Hu, Wu, & Liao, 2015). Some dimensions (based on the dimensions of Liden et al., 2015) share an overlap (e.g. empowering, helping subordinates grow/strengthening) or can be viewed as an effect of focusing on basic needs satisfaction (e.g. emotional healing and putting subordinates first). However, inspiring and connecting are not specified in servant leadership, and creating value for the community, conceptual skills and behaving ethically are not found in engaging leadership. While the focus of transformational leadership is somewhat different, there seems to be a great overlap between engaging leadership and the dimension of individual consideration (i.e. recognizing the needs of the followers and coaching them; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). The dimension of inspirational motivation might align with meaningfulness, but intellectual stimulation and idealized influence are

not present in engaging leadership. Engaging leadership is a rather specific leadership style, which focuses on the individual rather than covering a large amount of behaviors.

Empirically, both transformational and servant leadership have been linked with basic needs satisfaction (Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleafos & Maduro, 2014; Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011). Schaubroeck, Lam and Peng (2011) found that transformational leadership mostly focused on cognition-based trust, whereas servant leadership was related to affect-based trust. In contrast, van Dierendonck and colleagues (2014) showed that servant leadership was related to basic needs satisfaction, whilst transformational leadership was only related to perceived leadership effectiveness. Hence, it seems that both styles are indeed different and instigate different processes. Engaging leadership was found to have a unique impact on work engagement in addition to the impact of transformational leadership (Rahmadani & Schaufeli, 2020).

It seems that engaging leadership has a different theoretical background and an empirical difference to transformational leadership. The difference between servant and engaging leadership is less clear, as both share a common basic assumption (i.e. taking care of the followers' needs) and are both empirically related to basic needs satisfaction (even when controlled for transformational leadership; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Servant leadership was recently defined as an other-oriented approach that prioritized a follower's individual needs and interests, with concern for others within the organization and community (Eva et al., 2019). The latter part of this definition (i.e. concern for others within the organization and community) is not explicitly found in engaging leadership. Further investigation is needed to verify whether this (or other) processes can complement the basic needs, which leaders use to support their followers in engaging leadership. This will provide more insight in how to improve the well-being of employees beyond the scope of basic needs and the JD-R model. Ultimately, the main goal is not to find more evidence for a certain leadership style, but rather to find a powerful set of mediators that leaders can easily use when supporting their co-workers.

Lastly, as depicted in our heuristic model based on JD-R and SDT in Chapter 1, we often followed a linear path implying causality. While this seems logical, other more complex relations between leadership, job demands/resources, basic needs, and work engagement seem plausible. For instance, Hersey's and Blanchard's (1996) model of leadership proposes that the more mature the follower or

the team, the more a leader has to change his or her behavior. As workers become more engaged, they may seem more mature as they are more proactive and achieve better results (Schaufeli, 2015). This may cause the leader to behave differently, and grant, for example, more autonomy. Also, followers with higher levels of work engagement might also craft their job more as they are more proactive, which can also lead to more job resources and all its consequences (Bakker, 2017). In both examples, a positive gain spiral is present, and the analogue reasoning can be done for a negative spiral. Longitudinal research on engaging leadership measured one year apart found a relationship, as predicted, with job resources but also a relationship between the levels of a follower's work engagement and his job resources a year later, instead of the other way around as theory would suggest (Nikolova et al., 2019). Therefore, we should take caution in the way we interpret the results in a uni-directional way and also be mindful of the fact that team members affect their leaders and each other. For instance, following JD-R, having an engaged follower (or team) might be an important job resource for the leader, which motivates him or her to better address the needs of the team. Following SDT, a leader might feel more competent as his or her team consists of engaged individuals, which might increase the leaders' basic needs, which makes him or her feel better and perform better. Future research could focus on these relations to gain a better understanding of how these concepts interact with each other and which processes are strongest and, therefore, best for designing interventions.

Conflict and basic needs satisfaction

The third research question was “*What is the relation between conflict (management) and work engagement?*”. While it is clear that leaders matter in engaging followers and have a prominent place in the JD-R model, other interpersonal processes remain less investigated. Because of a growing focus on teamwork (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001), conflicts also arise (De Dreu, 2008; Elgoibar, Euwema, & Munduate, 2017). In **Chapter 4**, we investigated the effect of team conflict on basic needs and team performance. As most research on team conflict (de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012), our study revealed a negative relationship between conflicts and team performance. What we did not expect was a non-significant relationship with basic needs satisfaction. We did expect a negative relationship as conflict is usually described as a job demand and such demands are negatively related to basic needs

satisfaction (Van den Broeck et. al., 2008). It might be that conflicts rather thwart or frustrate basic needs (e.g. being rejected by one's co-workers), which is related to ill-being. Therefore, conflicts may not affect the satisfaction of these needs, which is related to well-being (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013), and which we did analyze in our study. Further research is needed to verify the impact of team conflict on well- and ill-being, and the mediating role of basic needs satisfaction, as well as basic needs thwarting. In **Chapter 3**, we did not investigate the amount of team conflict but looked at the process of open conflict norms. This type of open-minded discussion helps people to manage conflicts in their team. These norms seemed to have a large impact on team members' basic needs satisfaction. We argued that these open conflict norms can be seen as a social resource and a process that team members can utilize to boost their work engagement. In line with SDT, having the possibility to discuss conflict will satisfy different needs, whereas an arising conflict might thwart needs. Both processes might instigate different processes (i.e., basic need satisfaction vs. basic need frustration).

To provide more evidence on the effect of conflict and conflict management on wellbeing, it might first be interesting to investigate different types of conflict and conflict management. First, we used team conflict as a general latent construct instead of differentiating it into task, relationship, and process conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). We felt this was appropriate given the initial negative correlation of each conflict type with basic needs satisfaction, work engagement, and team performance. It seems that the context in which task conflict would be positive was not present in our sample (de Wit et al., 2012). Furthermore, the measurement model with the different types of conflict was inferior to the measurement model with team conflict as a general latent construct. In a different sample (e.g. top management teams) this relationship might be different (De Wit et al., 2012).

Second, constructive conflict (Tjosvold, Wong & Chen, 2014) might prove insightful. This type of conflict is not focused on the source of the conflict, but rather on how team members handle it (i.e. openly and focused on a win-win situation). Team members who resolve conflicts constructively feel more connected to others and achieve their goals more easily (Tjosvold, Huang, Johnson, & Johnson, 2008), which might thus positively impact, at least, some of the basic needs and wellbeing. Open conflict norms show team members that they can deal constructively with conflicts and they are positively related to basic needs satisfaction and work engagement. Other forms of managing conflict might also be investigated. Team members who avoided conflict or dealt with it competitively might

not have any of these qualities, which might result in poor outcomes. The combined insights from **Chapter 3** and the first study of **Chapter 4** might suggest that it is the way people deal with conflict that affects wellbeing (i.e. constructively vs. competitively), rather than the source of the conflict (i.e. task, relationship, process). Future research could focus on the amount of constructive conflict (possibility in interaction with task, relation, and process conflict), in comparison to competitive conflict or even avoided conflict and their relation to wellbeing.

In this dissertation's studies, we used conflict and conflict management as mediators or antecedents of wellbeing instead of as an outcome. While this is logical from a JD-R perspective (Bakker, 2017), conflict might be a result of insufficient resources. Burton's Human needs Theory (Christie, 1997), for example, states that satisfying the needs (e.g. need for security, identity, self-determination) is crucial for harmonious functioning. Deprivation of these needs might lead to conflict or violence (Christie, 1997). This might also be true for basic needs, as conceptualized in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Team members might start conflict to satisfy their needs or, at least, to ensure that others will not frustrate their needs. In this way, a change in basic needs will provoke conflict. In turn, the conflict will affect basic needs satisfaction or frustration, depending on the way how it is managed. Hence, future studies can explore conflict and wellbeing from a more dynamic approach.

Guiding the team: which processes does engaging leadership instigate to affect team conflict

Finally, we wanted to investigate the way leaders handle conflict using a team process perspective. This led to our third research question: *"How is engaging leadership related to team conflict?"*. In **Chapter 4**, we tested two hypotheses on how engaging leadership could impact the amount of team conflict. The first hypothesis followed self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000, and built upon our result of **Chapter 3**, where we found that engaging leadership was related to open conflict norms (Robijn et al., 2020). For hypothesis two, we started with the fact that leaders are also role models (Yaffe & Kart, 2011; Babalola, Stouten, Euwema, & Ovadje, 2016). As leaders take care of the needs of their employees, team members might learn from this behavior and start doing it themselves (i.e. vicarious learning; Manz & Sims, 1981). In conflicts, we hypothesized, this would result

in peacemaking behavior (i.e. support from a team member during a conflict), which will lower the amount of conflict. While both concepts were strongly related to engaging leadership, only open conflict norms were negatively related to the amount of team conflict. Peacemaking had no significant relationship with team conflict when analyzed simultaneously with open conflict norms. As we mentioned and studied earlier, it might be that the way conflicts are managed is related to wellbeing. So, while peacemaking did not have the expected effect in this study, it might still affect the wellbeing of team members. Combining the effect of both processes on conflict and wellbeing simultaneously might provide us with more insight into the processes which impact the amount of conflict and the ones that impact wellbeing.

We investigated team processes that are related to leadership, but a leader can also influence the conflict itself. It is not uncommon that a leader becomes a third party in the conflict and tries to mediate the process. While problem-solving is seen as a good way to help manage conflict, forcing and avoiding conflicts have a negative influence (Egloibar et al., 2017). The third-party behavior of a leader has, for example, an impact on team member's conflict relation with stress (Römer, Rispens, Giebels, & Euwema, 2012). While problem-solving behavior might boost competence and relatedness, and therefore satisfy basic needs, forcing behavior will possibly frustrate the need for autonomy. However, whether the followers will perceive these intentions similarly remains to be seen. A leader who thinks he/she is solving a conflict might be perceived as forcing the conflict. Investigating the perceptions of leaders' third-party behavior might also prove valuable in our understanding of how leaders affect conflict in teams. Investigating these leadership in combination with both conflict and wellbeing might give us more insight into what affects wellbeing during conflict. In a study with this third-party behavior, conflict, and exhaustion, all third-party behaviors were related to conflict, but only forcing behavior of a leader was related to ill-being (i.e. emotional exhaustion: Obi, Bollen, Aaldering, Robijn, & Euwema, 2020). Following the reasoning of Vansteenkiste and Ryan (2013) on basic needs satisfaction and basic need frustration, problem-solving might similarly satisfy basic needs and be related to work engagement. This could mean that it is rather the way the conflict is handled that affects well- and ill-being, than the amount and the source of the conflict that is usually measured.

Take-home messages for practitioners

We can formulate some suggestions for practitioners based on the different chapters of this dissertation. First, despite the discussion on different leadership styles and which place engaging leadership will take, it is clear that leaders who satisfy their followers' basic needs will motivate them, which will result in high levels of energy (i.e. work engagement). Leaders will see that these team members perform better and also feel better (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). While basic needs are not the only aspect leaders must focus on, they serve as a clear guideline that leaders can use during interactions with their team members. To assess these needs, leaders can use formal questionnaires, but they can also be elaborated on during one-on-one or team conversations. They can even form the core in a feedback cycle between leaders and team members. Ideally, this would be complemented by a discussion of relevant job demands and job resources to aid the leader and team members in how they can increase these needs (Rahmadani et al., 2019).

Second, in terms of wellbeing, our studies seem to suggest that the way a conflict is handled is more important than the amount of conflict. Leaders and organizations should, therefore, focus on establishing open conflict norms and supporting a shift towards constructive conflict. These norms can be developed by leaders' explicit statements that they expect everyone to deal with conflicts in this constructive way (Feldman, 1984). They will also be developed and maintained by role modeling behavior. Thus, leaders should set an example and deal with their conflicts constructively, so that team members can learn from this behavior. Moreover, team members can also influence these norms by constructively handling conflict themselves. As mentioned, team members and their leaders influence each other and thus team members can also actively participate in the development and maintenance of these norms.

For leaders and team member alike, open conflict norms and constructively managing conflicts are based on open-minded discussions. Following prior research, (Tjosvold et al., 2014; Egloibar et al., 2017) this is our suggestion on how to do so:

- *Develop and express your view:* team members in conflict need to understand what each of them wants, believe in and what their needs are. By sharing your position, your co-worker will increase his/her understanding of your point of view.

- *Question and understand your team members' views.* While it is challenging, it is necessary to listen and understand opposing views. This open discussion can point out weaknesses in each other's arguments or further strengthen them.
- *Integrate and create solutions.* Based on the arguments you developed in possibly repeated discussions, you can create new, alternative solutions. Even if these are not found, an increased understanding can be beneficial.
- *Agree and implement the solution.* Team members should look for the best reasoning behind each solution, instead of who won the argument. They should criticize ideas, not people, and listen to everyone's position with an open mind. While this seems rather logical and easy, it may not be so in practice. Being a role model and trying to do this yourself is the first step towards success.

Concluding remarks

With these conclusions and take-home messages, we can be satisfied that our research has not only answered some questions but also inspired several new ones. Through this dissertation's studies and other projects, we have increased our understanding of the impact of leadership on wellbeing and also to some extent the mechanism on how conflict and their management affects wellbeing. We hope our contribution has paved way for more research on wellbeing and the effects of conflicts in teams as well as helped practitioners to create a more healthy and productive work environments.

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