



PhD Program in Economics and Business Administration

**The role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions
during organizational change processes:
an empirical investigation on Spanish HRMs' experience**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

PhD Student

Laida Agote Errazquin

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Dr. María Dolores Aramburu Goya

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Donostia - San Sebastián, 2014



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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Every book on how to write a dissertation already warns it: writing a thesis is a long path, not exempt of difficulties and in many occasions lonely. At least, in my case, it has been so. For different reasons, I had to deal with a number of setbacks (for instance, change of the topic, the language, the structure of the document or the field work) that didn't prevent me from achieving my goal, but they did make it more complicated. Luckily, many people walked with me this path making it easier. And I'd like to thank all of them for their invaluable collaboration and support.

In the academic field I'd like to begin mentioning my directors, Nekane Aramburu and Rune Lines. Thank you both for sharing your knowledge and experience, for your precious time and dedication, for your useful recommendations and for complementing each other so well. The dissertation wouldn't have been possible without all this. Thank you Nekane for cheering me up in all your e-mails and thank you Rune for all the smiles ☺ that came with your suggestions of improvement. You both have been the best academic guide I could have and also a great source of confidence and support.

Secondly, I'd like to thank the research team "Innovación y Dirección de Organizaciones en la Sociedad del Conocimiento" because here is where I was first introduced in the research field and their help has been really valuable.

Cualquier libro sobre cómo enfrentarse a la elaboración de una tesis doctoral lo advierte: la redacción de una tesis es un camino largo, no exento de dificultades y que en muchas ocasiones resulta solitario. En mi caso desde luego así ha sido. Por diferentes razones he tenido que enfrentarme a numerosos contratiempos (por ejemplo, cambio de tema, de idioma, de estructura del documento o de trabajo de campo) que, aunque no me han impedido lograr mi objetivo, sí lo han hecho más complicado. Por suerte, muchas personas me han acompañado en este camino haciéndolo más fácil y a todas ellas me gustaría darles las gracias por su inestimable colaboración y apoyo.

En el ámbito académico me gustaría mencionar en primer lugar a mis directores de tesis, Nekane Aramburu y Rune Lines. Gracias a los dos por haber compartido vuestro conocimiento y experiencia, por vuestro valioso tiempo y dedicación, por las inestimables recomendaciones y por haberos complementado tan bien porque sin ello esta tesis no habría sido posible. Gracias Nekane por los ánimos que me enviabas al final de todos los correos electrónicos y gracias a ti Rune por las sonrisas ☺ que acompañaban siempre a las correcciones. Vosotros habéis sido la mejor guía académica y también una gran fuente de confianza y apoyo.

En segundo lugar, quiero agradecer a los miembros del equipo de investigación Innovación y Dirección de Organizaciones en la Sociedad del Conocimiento porque en él me inicié en la investigación y su ayuda ha sido muy valiosa.

I'd also like to thank the University of Deusto and all their staff for providing me the knowledge and the tools I needed to carry out this project. I'd like to express my special gratitude to both directors of the PhD program, Iñaki García and Davide Parrilli, for their useful advices; and the secretary, Idoia Retegi, for her assistance.

Thanks to the library staff for their help obtaining all the bibliography needed.

Thanks also to the Norwegian School of Economics (NHH) for their hospitality during my time in Bergen.

And I take the chance to thank all the human resource managers that answered to the questionnaire for their time and interest on this research.

Finally, I'd like to thank the Basque Government for their economic support with the "Programa de Formación de Personal Investigador del Departamento de Educación, Universidades e Investigación".

In the personal field I'd like to refer first to my lifelong friends because they always took good care of me. They shared with me many spare times that gave me the strength to successfully finish this project.

I'm glad to say that the dissertation has given me the chance to make new friendships. I made friends like Ainara and Maite, whose disposal, trust and support jumped the desk of the library. I hope that our friendship will overcome also distance and time. And I'd like to express my special gratitude to Maite Altuna.

También me gustaría expresar mi gratitud a la Universidad de Deusto y a todo su personal por haberme proporcionado el conocimiento, los medios y las facilidades necesarias para llevar a cabo este proyecto.

Quiero agradecer en especial los consejos ofrecidos por los dos directores del programa de doctorado, Iñaki García y Davide Parrilli, y a la secretaria, Idoia Retegi, por su ayuda.

Gracias también al personal de la biblioteca por su valiosa asistencia en la obtención de material bibliográfico.

Agradezco a la Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration (NHH) su hospitalidad durante mi estancia en Bergen.

Aprovecho la ocasión para agradecer a todos los responsables de recursos humanos que fueron tan amables de cumplimentar el cuestionario por su tiempo e interés en este estudio.

Y gracias también al Gobierno Vasco por su apoyo económico a través del Programa de Formación de Personal Investigador del Departamento de Educación, Universidades e Investigación.

En el ámbito personal me gustaría hacer mención en primer lugar a mis amigas de toda la vida porque siempre se han preocupado por mí y han compartido conmigo esos ratos de descanso y desconexión que tan importantes han sido para coger fuerzas y ser capaz de terminar este proyecto.

Me alegra decir que la tesis me ha dado también la oportunidad de hacer nuevas amistades.

She was first a colleague during the degree. Afterwards, we were colleagues during the doctorate program. Then, we shared office, concerns and existential doubts. But she went from being just my colleague to becoming a friend. With her I walked the path of the dissertation and shared plenty of “therapy sessions” that helped me get over all the tough moments that are an inevitably part of the dissertation process. I tell the three of you: I hope that our “bibliochascarrillos” meals last for years!

I also want to thank my family because they always had soothing words.

I can't miss of course expressing my most sincere gratitude to my parents. Among other lessons, you have taught me the relevance of a good education. Without your unconditional support I wouldn't have been able to cope with this challenge and I wouldn't be the person I'm today.

And last but not least, I'd like to thank someone very special for me. Jesu, you always encourage me to do whatever I believe is best for me and you support all my decisions. You were by my side every day during this project and I hope you share with me the path of life.

Thank you very much to all of you and I hope I don't miss anyone.

☺

Amigas como Ainara y Maite cuya disposición, confianza y ánimo han traspasado el mostrador de la biblioteca, y cuya amistad espero que traspase también la distancia y el tiempo. Pero sobretodo quiero hacer especial mención a Maite Altuna. Maite comenzó siendo compañera de carrera, después de doctorado, de despacho, de inquietudes, de dudas existenciales,... hasta dejar de ser compañera para convertirse en amiga. Junto a ella he recorrido el camino de la tesis doctoral y con ella he compartido muchas “sesiones de terapia” que me han ayudado a superar todos los momentos difíciles que inevitablemente forman parte del proceso de la tesis. A las tres os digo: ¡espero que las comidas de “bibliochascarrillos” duren muchos años!

Quiero dar las gracias también a mi familia porque siempre han tenido palabras de aliento.

Desde luego no puede faltar mi más sincero agradecimiento al aita y la ama. Entre tantas otras lecciones, vosotros me habéis enseñado la importancia de una buena educación. Sin vuestro incondicional apoyo no habría podido hacer frente a este reto y no sería quien hoy soy.

Y por último quiero darle las gracias a alguien muy especial. Jesu, tú siempre me animas a hacer lo que considere que es mejor para mí y apoyas todas mis decisiones. Tú me has acompañado en el día a día de este proyecto y espero que seas mi compañía en el camino de la vida.

Muchas gracias a todos y espero no haberme olvidado de nadie.

☺

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

CHAPTER I. Introduction

Changes have become increasingly common context in organizations. Mergers and acquisitions, new top management teams, the introduction of new products and in new markets, downsizings, layoffs, or departmental reorganizations are going on nowadays in nearly every company. These last ones (i.e. downsizings, layoffs, or departmental reorganizations) are especially common during economical crises as the one we are facing right now. Therefore, the necessity to constantly adapt to the environment in order to remain competitive, urges companies to be aware of the underlying factors that explain the success of organizational changes.

Researchers have tried for long to find the key success factors of change processes acknowledging this managerial concern. Numerous elements have been proposed and plenty of recommendations have been made taking different perspectives and approaches. For example, it has been pointed out the relevance of management involvement, leadership effectiveness, change leaders role, the procedure of the change (i.e. steps of the change process), the characteristics of the change (e.g. speed, frequency and timing), the sense of vision of the change, fluent communication, training for the change, motivation and reward systems, employees' acceptance of the change, the participation of the people affected by the change, the prevention of change resistance, etc.

Among all these proposals, we decided to focus here on employees' reaction to the change and the role of leadership in shaping these reactions. As mentioned above, employees' acceptance of the change has been found to be critical for the success of any organizational change. And it is considered that the way in which leaders treat and involve employees shape followers' responses to change.

There is a great interest on this topic and the number of papers is constantly increasing. However, many theoretical and methodological opportunities are still left to fully understand how leadership influences employees' responses to change. In order to fulfill some of these gaps researchers recommend that more investigation is needed on issues such as authentic leadership, consequences of perceived power, antecedents of emotions during change, or middle management and human resource management.

Authentic leadership. Authentic leadership (AL) is considered the root construct of all positive forms of leadership and its literature is still young since it was firstly mentioned in 2003. Authentic leadership has been linked to a number of organizational variables and the results obtained so far are promising. However, there is still work to be done. For instance, it has not been studied yet its relationship with perceived power. The influence of AL on the level of trust in the leader has been analyzed in concrete industries such as healthcare, banking, or telecommunications, but not with samples with a variety of industries. And its role during change processes is still not clear. Researchers have frequently examined transformational leadership's effect when studying leadership during change and authentic leadership is still under-researched in this context. Therefore, how authentic leadership behaviors influence employees' reactions to change requires more investigation.

Consequences of perceived power. Power is considered relevant for an effective leadership because it is believed that a primary consequence of power is the ability to influence others' behaviors, thoughts and feelings. However, few empirical researches can be found about the possible influence of perceived power on employees' reactions. Research has focused more on leaders' behavior and *forgotten* about other leadership attributes such as power. Additionally, researchers that study power usually take the perspective of the power holder while the perspective of the one being affected by it remains ignored. More in concrete, it has not been examined yet for example the influence of perceived power on employees' emotions in organizational contexts. Studies that focus on the effect of power on emotions have analyzed for example romantic couples (e.g. Langner & Keltner, 2008) but not work relationships. Therefore, more empirical investigation on the possible effect of the perception of power from the view of the one affected by it in organizational contexts is needed.

Antecedents of emotions during change. In the last years there is an increasing interest on the role of emotions during change and as a result more integrative theories (that take into account cognitions and emotions) are being developed. However, the literature has focused more on the consequences of emotions than on its antecedents. Therefore, more research on how and why emotions arise is needed. For instance, the combined effect of authentic leadership and trust in the leader on employees' emotions has not been studied before.

Middle management and human resource management. Most research on organizational change focuses on top management and what senior managers should do for the success of change processes. Whereas the role of middle managers is also considered important, few can still be found on this topic. In this sense, it is still not clear yet the role of human resource managers during organizational changes and how their response to changes influences the result of the change process.

These gaps detected in the literature lead us to some relevant research questions. In concrete, the main research question that will be addressed in this dissertation is: **which is the role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes?**

In order to be able to answer this general research question it was established that we will focus on the experience of human resource managers and consider their direct boss as the leader. Additionally, we will centre our attention on authentic leadership behavior, level of trust in the leader, and perceived power of the leader as leadership attributes to examine their possible influence on employees' responses. And we will focus on experienced positive and negative emotions, attitude towards change and intention to quit as HRMs' reactions during change processes.

We decided to focus on HRMs' experience because their strategic role as middle managers and change intermediaries can make their reactions a genuine impediment or assistance for change. Furthermore, the direct boss was chosen as the leader from whom HRMs had to report about because he/she is the most direct manager, with whom they spend more time and, for that, who can most frequently and intensely influence on them. And finally, we will take HRMs' perspective to evaluate all the factors in the research including the ones that refer to leadership. We consider that leadership attributes are better measured as perceived by those being led when trying to explain follower's response in relation to the leader.

In this way, the general research question can be divided in three more concrete ones according to specific gaps in the literature. The three specific research questions are:

- **Specific research question 1:** Do perceived authentic leadership behavior and followers' level of trust in the leader have any effect as antecedents of HRMs' emotions during organizational changes?

- **Specific research question 2:** Do perceived authentic leadership behavior, soft power bases of the leader and followers' level of trust in the leader have any influence on HRMs' attitude towards change?
- **Specific research question 3:** Do HRMs' emotions have any mediation effect between perceived hard power bases of the leader and their intention to quit during organizational change processes?

A set of goals was defined in order to answer the aforementioned research questions of the investigation. In concrete, the general aim of this dissertation is to **examine the role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes.**

And, as it happened with the research questions, to make operative the general objective we will break it down in three more specific ones.

The first goal will try to help understand how emotions arise and how can leaders influence on employees' emotion arousal. To do this we will **examine the effect of perceived authentic leadership behavior and followers' level of trust in the leader as antecedents of HRMs' emotions during organizational changes.**

The second goal will be focused on understanding the effect of different leadership attributes on employees' general perception of the change. For this to be done, we will **study the influence of perceived authentic leadership behavior, soft power bases, and followers' level of trust in the leader on HRMs' attitude towards change.**

And the last goal will try to help understand the consequences of power on employees' reactions. We will do this **analyzing the mediating role of HRMs' emotions between perceived hard power bases of the leader and their intention to quit during organizational change processes.**

Three separate studies will be carried out in order to provide a proper answer to each of these specific goals.

The following figure summarizes the general objective of the dissertation and the three specific goals in which it was divided.



Figure 1. General and specific goals of the research

Source: The author

With this research we hope to contribute to different literature streams by fulfilling several gaps that we consider remain unclosed. With this work we expect to contribute to the literature on leadership, organizational change, middle management, and emotions by using new theories, analyzing a particular set of topics that have not been addressed together in a single study before, focusing on certain targets, and studying already examined relationships differently along some dimensions.

In concrete, this investigation will try to partly close the following gaps found in the literature:

- We will study the relationship between leadership and organizational change based on new theory, authentic leadership. In this sense we will analyze relationships never considered before such as the influence of perceived authentic leadership on employees' general attitude towards change.
- The influence of perceived authentic leadership on the perception of leader's power has not been considered before either and will be present in one of our studies.

- We will analyze in a single study the possible influence of authentic leadership behavior and trust as antecedents of emotions. As far as we know, this particular set of variables has not been addressed together before.
- It has not been examined before either the combination of authentic leadership, trust in the leader and perceived power of the leader as antecedents of employees' attitude towards change; a combination included in one of our studies.
- The relationship between perceived power of the leader, employees' experienced emotions and employees' intention to quit will be evaluated here; something never done before in a single study.
- Several investigations have focused on the effect of different leadership styles on emotions in change contexts but as far as we know it has never been done with authentic leadership, as it is our case.
- The relationship between authentic leadership and trust has already been studied but no investigation has taken the perspective of the HRM, analyzed it in organizational change contexts, or with a sample that gathers multiple industries, as we do in this dissertation. Previous researches focused on non-change contexts and a single industry such as telecommunications, banking or healthcare.
- For the first time we will examine the influence of perceived power of the leader on employees' experienced emotions in an organizational context. The influence of power on emotions has been studied before, but usually from the perspective of the power holder, in non-work couples and in non-organizational contexts.
- And finally, as far as we are concerned, none of the relationships analyzed in this dissertation has been previously studied in a sample of Spanish human resource managers.

In order to give a proper answer to the objectives presented above and be able to contribute to the literature, the dissertation is structured as follows.

In Chapter II a general framework will be provided in order to present the general topics of this research. In concrete, in Chapter II the concepts and relationships between organizational change, leadership and employees' reactions will be presented. Afterwards, the relevance of human resource managers in change processes will be

addressed. And finally, all the important concepts of the dissertation and the global conceptual model will be introduced. In this way, the three leadership attributes (i.e. perceived authentic leadership, perceived power, and level of trust in the leader) and the three HRMs' responses (i.e. emotions, attitude towards change and intention to quit) included in this research will be explained, and the relationships between them that will be here analyzed will be visually represented.

In Chapter III the research method used to conduct the empirical analysis will be examined. Firstly, sample framing and data collection process will be mentioned. Secondly, a descriptive analysis of the sample will be offered. And thirdly, the statistic techniques used to obtain the results will be presented. The research method used is common to the three studies.

Chapters IV, V and VI gather the answers to the three specific goals of this dissertation. We develop and present a separate analysis for each specific goal. In this way, each of these chapters are structured as research papers and, therefore, contain their own specific introduction, theoretical background and conceptual research model, brief explanation of the research method used, the results of the investigation, main conclusions and managerial implications, and finally, the limitations and future research directions.

In Chapter VII we present the general conclusions, discussion and managerial implications that result from bringing together the main ideas of the three analyses of chapters IV to VI.

Following the same procedure, Chapter VIII gathers the main limitations and future research directions of the dissertation.

Additionally, all the bibliography mentioned in this investigation is detailed in the References section.

And, finally, some extra information is presented in the Appendices section.

CHAPTER II

General framework

CHAPTER II. General framework

In this chapter a general framework will be offered. The main topics of the dissertation will be firstly presented. That is, the concepts and relationships between organizational change, leadership and employees' reactions will be briefly explained. Secondly, the relevance of human resource managers (target of the study) in change processes will be addressed. And finally, the three leadership attributes (i.e. perceived authentic leadership, perceived power, and level of trust in the leader) and the three HRMs' reactions to change (i.e. emotions, attitude towards change and intention to quit) analyzed in this investigation will be presented, the justification of their choice offered and the relationships between them that will be here analyzed will be visually represented.

1. Organizational change, leadership and employees' reactions

The main three topics of this investigation are organizational change, leadership and employees' reactions. In order to introduce them, the following sub-section will present the concepts of leadership and organizational change, and state the relationship between them. And in the next sub-section the relationship between leadership and employees' reactions will be explained.

1.1. Leadership

"There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990:11). With these words, the authors make clear that the definition of leadership is not unique and it depends on the perspective taken. Therefore, they suggest that the definition used should depend on the purposes to be served by it.

On the other hand, Yukl (1989) considers that there are some components that can be identified as central when defining leadership: it is a process, it involves influence, it occurs within the group context, and it involves goal attainment. Based on these elements, Yukl (1989) offered one of the most accepted definitions of leadership : "*a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal*" (Yukl, 1989:3). Years later he updated this definition and proposed that

leadership is *“the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”* (Yukl, 2006:8).

We consider adequate to adopt in this dissertation this last definition of leadership provided by Yukl (2006) as it is not our intention to solve the controversy over the appropriate definition of the concept.

Leadership is commonly confused with management. However, there are significant differences between them that are worthy to mention. Management was developed to provide order and stability to make organizations run more efficiently, while the main function of leadership is to produce movement and change (Yukl, 1989). More in concrete, the differences between these two concepts can clearly be seen in the widely accepted proposal of Kotter (1990) of the main processes that make up the core of management and leadership. According to this author, management involves (1) planning and budgeting, (2) organizing and staffing, and (3) controlling and problem solving; whereas leadership involves (1) establishing direction, (2) aligning people, and (3) motivating and inspiring.

However, it is also true that managers can engage in activities of leadership, and leaders can engage in management processes. In fact, organizations need both, management and leadership. And some authors argue that the best combination is to have strong management and strong leadership, because any other combination can result in unsatisfactory outcomes (Kotter, 1990).

The study of leadership has evolved over centuries. During this time different approaches have been taken and numerous theories of leadership have been developed. Some of the most important approaches to leadership since the beginning of the 20th century are: trait, style or behavioral, situational, contingency, transactional, transformational, charismatic, and authentic leadership (Northouse, 1997). The first four will be just briefly introduced; the following three will be explained more carefully since they are nowadays the most researched ones; and the last one will be only presented as it will be further explained in following sections.

In the early 1900s it was common believe that leaders shared certain special attributes. This idea was the basis of the trait theory of leadership. People thought that leaders were born, and tried to identify the special qualities and characteristics of great social, political and military leaders.

While the trait approach emphasized the personality characteristics of the leader, the style approach or behavioral approach put the emphasis on the behaviors of the leader. It focused on what leaders do and how they act. Researchers adopting a style approach concluded that leadership is comprised of two general kinds of behaviors: task and relationship behaviors. In this way, it became the main purpose of the style approach to explain how leaders should combine both kinds of behaviors in order to reach their goals.

In the 1960s one of the most widely recognized approaches to leadership was developed, the situational approach. The basic premise of this perspective is that different situations demand different kinds of leadership. Therefore, leaders need to adapt their style to the situation, which it will be defined by the competence and commitment of the subordinates.

The contingency approach is quite similar to the situational approach because it also suggests that leaders must adapt to the situations. However, in this case researchers consider that the situation is defined by the organizational context instead of the subordinates' needs.

In the late 1970s and 1980s, new leadership approaches were developed as a result of an increasing interest in charismatic leadership, the creation of culture in organizations, and the transformation or revitalization of organizations (Yukl, 1989). In this context, and nearly at the same time, the charismatic, transactional, and transformational theories were developed.

Charismatic leadership was first coined by Max Weber (1947) and developed later as a theory by Robert J. House (1977). House not only proposed a theory on charismatic leadership, but tried to make it testable by making different propositions. According to this author, three are the main personal characteristics of charismatic leaders: extremely high levels of self-confidence, dominance, and a strong conviction in the moral righteousness of his/her beliefs (House, 1977).

At about the same time, Burns published the classic book "Leadership" (1978), in which he distinguished between two types of leadership: transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Transformational and charismatic leadership share some characteristics, what has led some authors to use the two terms interchangeably (Yukl, 1989); but they are conceptually distinct (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leadership is usually

defined more broadly than charismatic leadership (Yukl, 1989). But, according to Avolio (2010b), the main difference between a transformational and a charismatic leader is that the former focuses on developing or transforming followers into leaders. In spite of these differences, the fact that both “refer to the process of influencing major changes and building commitment for the organization’s mission or objectives” (Yukl, 1989:204), and that the construct of charisma is considered a fundamental factor in the model of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993), inevitably create a considerable overlap between the two concepts.

In 1985, Bass (1985a; 1985b) developed House’s and Burns’ work and made his own contribution to the field with a formal theory of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). On the one hand, he proposed an extension of House’s theory to include some additional antecedent conditions, leader attributes, and consequences of charismatic leadership. And on the other hand, he considered charisma a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership, but not enough to account for the transformational process by itself (Yukl, 1989).

According to Bass (1985a; 1985b), transactional leaders can be identified because they usually reach their goals exchanging rewards for effort. This type of leaders first identifies what must have to be done to achieve the desired outcomes. Then, they clarify the role and task requirements to subordinates, so they know exactly what they are expected to do. And finally, they recognize subordinates’ needs and clarify how they will be satisfied if agreed performance is achieved. On the contrary, transformational leaders motivate subordinates to do more than they originally intended to do. They set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Transformational leaders do so employing: idealized influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and/or individualized consideration.

It is necessary to clarify that transformational and transactional leaderships are not mutually exclusive. In fact, Bass (1985a; 1985b) recognizes that leaders may use both types of leadership depending on the time and the situation.

The next table presents a summary of the factors that define transformational and transactional leadership styles.

Table 1. Transformational and transactional leadership factors

Transformational leader
<p>Idealized influence or Charisma: Provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust</p> <p>Inspirational motivation: Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways</p> <p>Intellectual stimulation: Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving</p> <p>Individualized consideration: Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises</p>
Transactional leader
<p>Contingent reward: Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments</p> <p>Management by exception (active): Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective actions</p> <p>Management by exception (passive): Intervenes only if standards are not met</p>

Source: Bass (1990) and Bass & Avolio (1993)

Bass (1985b) developed all this work presenting preliminary measurement scales and quantitative analyses of a factor analytic model of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Further investigations were made over the following years with Avolio and his colleagues (e.g. Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990; 1993; 1994; Avolio & Bass, 1999) in order to refine the theory, develop a model, and create an assessment and training program in transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

However, transformational leadership is not exempt from critiques. One of the main critiques is that it does not take into account the moral dimension of leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Bass, 2004). Bass admitted the possibility of the existence of leaders able to display transformational qualities and actions, but without the moral basis for being transformational (Avolio, 2010b). He wrote an article (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) in which he attempted to differentiate the inauthentic or pseudo-transformational leaders from authentic charismatic and transformational leaders in terms of ethical discussions of character and authenticity. In this article, he clarified that “*authentic* transformational leadership must rest on a moral foundation of legitimate values. The opposite is *inauthentic* or *pseudo-transformational* leadership, that of

leaders who consciously or unconsciously act in bad faith" (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999:184).

This moral debate gave birth to a new and more positive approach to leadership, the authentic leadership, which was initially developed by Luthans and Avolio (2003). Authentic leadership will be the leadership style analyzed in this dissertation, so it will be deeply explained in following sections.

1.2. Organizational change

There is not a unique definition of organizational change and it is sometimes used interchangeably with other concepts such as organizational development or organizational transformation. For the purpose of this research organizational change will be considered as the *process by which organizations move from their present state to some desired future state in order to foster the achievement of one or more organizational objectives*.

In the literature on organizational change plenty of reasons, causes, motivational factors or change drivers have been identified. Most of the researchers agree to classify the factors that motivate the changes in two groups: factors from outside the organization (exogenous) and factors from inside the organization (endogenous) (e.g. Kanter, Stein et al., 1992; Worley, Hitchin et al., 1996; Kotter, 1997; French & Bell, 1999; Cummings & Worley, 2001; Wissema, 2001; Venard, 2002; Jamali, 2005).

Exogenous factors refer to changes that are caused by elements from outside the organization and that emerge due to the relationship between the organization and its environment. Some examples are the market demand, the increase in the competition, the globalization and internationalization of the organizations, technological advances, legislation and regulation, and social and cultural trends.

On the contrary, endogenous factors refer to changes that are caused by elements from inside the organization that drive them to change. Some examples of internal factors are growth and expansion, a new leadership vision, technology, people, and administrative structure.

As there are many reasons that can trigger organizational changes, there are also many ways of classifying organizational changes. For example, a variety of dimensions to classify changes are presented in Eales-White's (1993) work. These are:

- **Environment.** Context in which the changes take place. This can be relatively stable or highly volatile.
- **Continuity.** Level of connection of the change with the past and the present.
- **Size.** Scale of the change in terms of its impact in the organization and organization's ability to manage it.
- **Phasing.** Way in which the change is implemented. It can be gradual or suddenly implemented.
- **Frequency.** A change can be a discrete event or can be regularly repeated.
- **Duration.** Length of the implementation of the change and the impact caused. A rapidly implemented change can have long term consequences, and vice versa.
- **Initiator.** Level of consultation and participation of the ones involved.
- **Development level.** Level of development of the ones involved. Some may be fighting to survive while others may be looking for security.
- **Perceptions.** Way in which the ones involved perceive the change.
- **Expectation.** How the outcomes of the change are visualized.
- **Impact.** Level of impact of the change in the organizational. The change can be superficial, deep, temporal or permanent.

All these dimensions give birth to numerous classifications of organizational changes. Therefore, an ever higher amount of types of change can be distinguished. One of the most common classifications is probably the incremental versus radical distinction based on the size of the change. The difference between incremental and radical changes is grounded on the level of relevance of the change in terms of its impact, size, scope or depth (Nadler & Tushman, 1989; Pardo & Martínez, 2003; By, 2005).

Incremental changes are considered continuous, lineal and intentional changes that are the result of the adaptation to the environment (Smith, 2004). They are low impact changes (Clark, 2005) that improve organizational performance and that usually affect only to part of the organization (Landau, 2005). Incremental changes involve slight modifications and aim to maintain the status quo (Landau, 2005).

Radical changes are discontinuous and episodic changes (Weick & Quinn, 1999), and usually unexpected (Smith, 2004). They are multidimensional changes that involve the whole or a big part of the organization to redirect how it functions at its core (Landau,

2005). Radical change usually involves the reinvention of the organization in such a way that the equilibrium, stability and the grounds under which the organization operates are broken (Pardo & Martínez, 2003). This type of change is critical for the development of competitive advantages for the organization (Clark, 2005).

1.3. The relationship between leadership and change

The relationship between leadership and organizational change has been studied mainly from two different streams of research that are based on different assumptions: general leadership and organizational change (Herold, Fedor et al., 2008).

Researchers that take the leadership perspective usually try to find the style or behavior that leaders should engage in order to be as effective as possible. From this perspective change is a situational contingency that moderates the effectiveness of certain leadership styles. Therefore, it is assumed that some leadership styles would handle change more appropriately than others. In this sense, Bass' (Bass, 1985a; 1985b; 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993; 1994) transformational leadership has been pointed out as an adequate leadership style when facing organizational changes. It is considered especially adequate for change contexts because it "explicitly draws employees' attention to a desired future state (vision) and instills confidence in their ability to meet high expectations" (Seo, Taylor et al., 2012:134), and it is related to a variety of employee psychological and behavioral outcomes (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012) that can influence change success. Furthermore, in words of Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:348) "most change-leadership prescriptions -such as communicating the plan for the change, building a guiding coalition, developing a sense of urgency or a compelling rationale for the change, and providing support (Kotter, 1996)- can be linked to one or more dimensions of transformational leadership".

On the other hand, researchers from the organizational change perspective try to find those behaviors they consider leaders should engage in when leading change. From this perspective it would not mind which the general leadership style showed by the leader is as long as he/she engages in appropriate change-related behaviors. In this sense, Kotter's (1995; 1996a; 1996b) eight-stage process was developed to help leaders manage successfully organizational changes. Kotter's (1995; 1996a; 1996b) proposal comprises the following stages: (1) establishing a sense of urgency, (2)

creating the guiding coalition, (3) developing a vision and strategy, (4) communicating the change vision, (5) empowering employees for broad-based action, (6) generating short-term winnings, (7) consolidating gains and producing more change, and (8) anchoring new approaches in the culture. These stages are in line with the three phases that Lewin (1951) proposed years before: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Stages 1 to 4 would correspond to unfreezing the status quo; stages 5 to 7 help to adopt new practices and move to a new reality; and stage 8 grounds the change refreezing the company in a new stability (Kotter, 1996b). Further attempts to improve and develop new models have been made (Higgs & Rowland, 2005) but they are not as known as Lewin's and Kotter's proposals. These new models try to retain the assumption of linearity, but they also recognize the need for a more open view of the evolution of changes and their complexity.

Whichever the perspective adopted, it is commonly believed that leadership and change are inevitably related to each other. As pointed out above, the main function of leadership is in fact to produce movement and change (Yukl, 1989). Additionally, According to John P. Kotter (1990:13) leadership produces change and "more change always demands more leadership". Higgs and Rowland (2005:126) state that "there is clear, and growing evidence that the role of leaders in the change process does impact significantly on the success of change". And Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:355) consider that "change requires leadership, and leadership is about facilitating change".

Therefore, it seems really appropriate to study the role of leadership in organizational change contexts.

1.4. Leadership and employees' reactions

Employees' acceptance of the change is considered crucial in determining the success of any organizational change (Oreg & Berson, 2009). In this sense the literatures on resistance to change and commitment to change (especially prolific in the last years and still very active today) point out the relevance of leadership in shaping followers' responses to change. For instance, Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:348) state that "the manner in which leaders treat and involve employees during change has received the greatest amount of attention and has been shown to be a powerful determinant of individuals' reactions to organizational changes".

This should not be a surprise as the definitions of leadership already mention that it involves an individual influencing others to achieve certain goals. Yukl (1989:3) even

states that “influence is the sine qua non of leadership. Without influence, leadership does not exist”. Similarly, without followers, leaders do not exist, and vice versa. They are both part of the leadership process and both need to be understood in relation to each other. It is usually the leader who works harder trying to maintain the relationship, but followers may also be interested on having a leader. For example, the literature suggests that people increasingly look to their leaders for direction and guidance during change processes (2006). As changes involve a shift in the direction or the way things are done, employees need someone who explains which is the goal that wants to be achieved with the change. Employees can be quite independent and proactive but they also understand that some indications of the new direction and the steps that have to be taken are needed in order to move all together towards the new goal. In this way, employees may need and seek for a leader during organizational change processes.

Therefore it seems also appropriate to study the relationship between leadership attributes and employees' reactions during organizational changes.

2. The relevance of human resource managers in change processes

Scholars and practitioners increasingly point to the important role of the human element in the success of change processes (Seo, Taylor et al., 2012). And the human resource department (Shook & Roth, 2011) is probably the are most concerned on the human side of the organization. Therefore, it sounds logic that the human resource department should have a relevant role in organizational changes.

The role of human resource (HR) has changed throughout history adopting different approaches and orientations. In a similar way, the role of HR in organizational changes has also been examined from different perspectives giving birth to multiple proposals. For example, some authors like Ulrich (1997) and Caldwell (2001) claim that HR should become more visionary. On the one side, Ulrich (1997) proposes that HR should be champions of change (based on a resource based view) and, on the other side, Caldwell (2001) suggests that HR should be transformative change agents (based on a functionalist perspective) (Ogilvie & Stork, 2003; Alfes, Truss et al., 2010). Other researchers have proposed different phases that changes go through based on a process-based perspective. And some others have established a number of domains in

which HR participate during organizational changes (Alfes, Truss et al., 2010) based on a content-oriented approach.

Ogilvie and Stork (2003) make also an interesting contribution. These researchers study the conflict on whose interests HR should represent and its role in the change process, and propose that HR should have a mediating role and take a negotiations approach.

As these authors explain, traditionally human resource was oriented to the employees trying to protect them. However, different historical events moved human resource to protect management interests (adopting even a strategic position and becoming a partner with senior managers), often at the expense of the worker (Ogilvie & Stork, 2003). This movement has never been complete and human resource departments are still nowadays dealing with this orientation conflict. Employees are considered critical stakeholders and necessary to protect them, but management interests cannot be ignored either.

Ogilvie and Stork (2003) base on a negotiations approach to propose that HR should position to facilitate that the needs and interests of all the interdependent groups (e.g. workers, managers, owners) are considered during an organizational change process. However, they admit that this is not an easy position due to power and voice differences. Regarding the former, HR would have to balance the different levels of power in the organization. For instance, managers and frontline workers do not have the same level of power. So, HR would have to try to prevent that the most powerful interests dominate the negotiation. Additionally, regarding voice differences, HR would also have to facilitate the articulation of parties' needs and interests. Again, management is in a better position than frontline employees as they are better able to speak with a single voice. Therefore, HR would also have to assist when others cannot articulate their concerns in order to make sure that all relevant interests are part of the change decision process. Finally, by "articulating its values, inspiring a shared vision, and adopting a negotiations perspective, HR is in a position not only to facilitate change, but to assume an ethical role on higher ground in organizational change" (Ogilvie & Stork, 2003:269).

Summing up, whichever the approach adopted, researchers seem to agree on the relevance of the role of the human resource department and its head, the human resource manager (HRM), in organizational change processes.

Additionally, HRMs are also considered middle managers. But research on their role during change processes is still limited (Balogun, 2003) although investigators posit that a key strategic task of middle managers is implementing strategy.

In an attempt to expand the knowledge on this matter, Julia C. Balogun (2003) developed a study in which she found that middle managers (i.e. managers between the highest and lower levels who connect organization's strategy and operational levels) occupy a complex change intermediary position. More in concrete, the author found that middle managers engage in two types of activities during change processes: sensemaking and coordination and management. Sensemaking has to do with the way middle managers understand, interpret, and create sense of the change (Rouleau, 2005); while coordination and management refer to traditional middle-management tasks such as planning, budgeting, resourcing, and overseeing change-related activities. The interaction between these activities and two different orientations (i.e. peers and themselves, and teams) results in four inter-related roles that middle managers fulfill during change implementation: undertaking personal change, helping others through change, implementing necessary changes and keeping business going (see figure below).

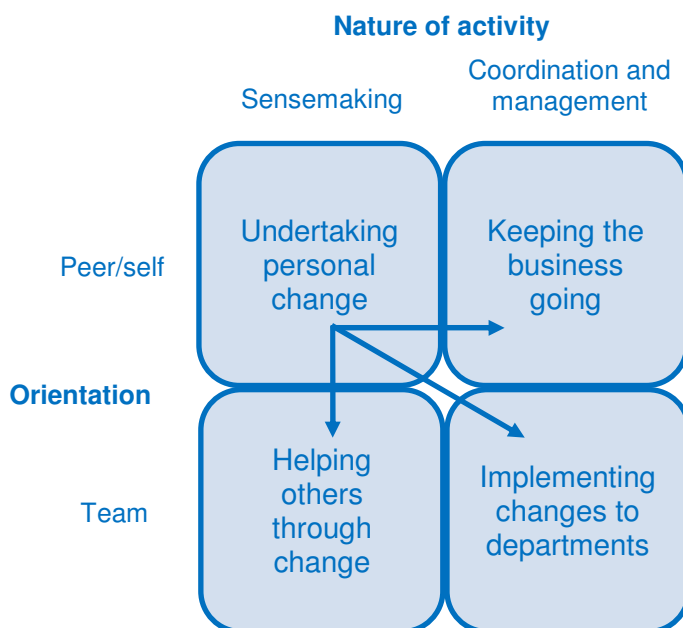


Figure 2. Roles of middle managers as change intermediaries

Source: Balogun (2003:79)

Personal sensemaking process, that is undertaking personal change, is considered by the author as the key task of middle managers since it influences all the other roles

(represented by the arrows in the figure above) (Balogun, 2003). For example, personal interpretations made by middle managers through sensemaking processes are used to help others make sense of the change. This is also known in the literature as sensegiving (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991), which is concerned with the attempt to influence the outcome, communicate own thoughts about the change to others, and gain others' support (Rouleau, 2005). Therefore, it seems that it is necessary to look at middle managers also as interpreters and sellers of strategic change (Rouleau, 2005) because those with a negative attitude can be a genuine impediment to change (Balogun, 2003) but those with a positive attitude can be of real help. In this way, middle managers could have a key impact on the eventual success or failure of major change initiatives in their organizations (Balogun, Bartunek et al., 2010).

It seems then that the way in which senior and middle managers participate in change processes is different. Considering a traditional top-down change approach, top managers formulate the strategy, consciously constructing the interpretation of the change, and provide important details about it. Given their hierarchical position, middle managers do not share the same level of consciousness of the strategy as top managers and they are left to construct their own meaning of the change (Rouleau, 2005; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010); which they will share in order to help others make sense of it. In this way, middle managers are more than change recipients or change implementers; they are both (Balogun, 2003). Therefore, middle managers play a crucial role in how change ultimately gets passed on to frontline employees (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Rouleau & Balogun, 2011). Acknowledging this relevant intermediary role, there is a growing interest on middle managers' sensemaking and sensegiving processes during organizational change (e.g. Balogun, 2003; Rouleau, 2005; Rouleau & Balogun, 2011).

Following the advices above, in this dissertation we will focus on the role of HRMs as change recipients by examining their response to leadership during change processes. Due to scope limitations we will not examine here the role of HRMs as change implementers, but we will take it into consideration for the discussion of the conclusions and future research directions. Additionally, we will focus on HRMs' direct boss as change implementers who can influence HRMs' sensemaking processes and, therefore, their reactions to change. We decided to focus on the direct boss because, among managers, it is the nearest one, with whom HRMs spend more time and, for

that, who can most frequently and intensely influence them. Although it might not be the only one making the decisions, the direct boss is usually the one in charge of translating the guidelines from the top in the daily basis, in charge of supervising and supporting HRM's work, and with whom they usually most interact. Therefore, the relationship between a HRM and his/her direct boss is expected to be stronger than with any other manager in the company.

Summing up, based (1) on the consideration that there is a tight relationship between the success of organizational changes, leadership and employees' reactions; (2) on the role of HRMs during change processes; and (3) on the relevance of the direct boss in HRM's sensemaking processes; in this dissertation we will focus on how direct bosses, through different leadership attributes, can influence HRMs' reactions to change.

3. Main concepts of the research and the global conceptual model

Three leadership attributes and three possible employees' reactions will be the focus of this investigation after taking into account the literature review, the gaps found in it and the main goals of this research. These six concepts will be deeply explained in their corresponding articles. So, with the aim of not sounding repetitive, here they will be just presented and a brief justification of their choice will be offered. Additionally, a representation of the global conceptual model of this research will be provided.

In concrete, the three leadership attributes that have been chosen for their analysis in this research are: perceived authentic leadership, trust in the leader and perceived power of the leader.

The main reasons why these leadership attributes were chosen for their investigation is that authentic leadership behavior, power and trust are important attributes of leadership during organizational change processes; they may be really helpful to explain employees' reactions; and they reflect employees' perceptions but are not beyond managerial control as leaders can actively influence on these perceptions.

The authentic leadership approach to leadership style was the chosen one for this investigation for different reasons. Although it is quite recent, it is well theory based. Additionally, it represents the root construct underlying all positive forms of leadership,

and a kind of leadership required nowadays by the organizations that are fighting to success in turbulent and extremely competitive markets. Society demands today more ethics and researchers “highlight the importance of promoting the ethical dimension of change as a means of ensuring that leaders and their followers act in the interests of the many rather than the few. (...) Leaders must be instilled with a moral compass fitting the organization of which they are in charge” (By, Burnes et al., 2012:3). Furthermore, the last investigations about the influence of authentic leadership on followers’ outcomes provide a clue of a very promising future for this topic. In this sense, human resource managers will be asked about the perceived authentic leadership behavior of their direct boss during the change process.

The adoption of more participative management styles and the implementation of work teams (Mayer, Davis et al., 1995) is generating increased interest in the study of trust organizational contexts. With these new practices control mechanisms are reduced and interaction increased, what raises the relevance of trust. Likewise, the interest on trust also lies on the belief that it has a significant impact on a variety of outcomes relevant to organizations such as attitudes, behaviors and performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Additionally, trust has been chosen for its analysis because during organizational changes (usually a very uncertain situation), trust in the leader can be fundamental for the success of the change implementation (Oreg, 2006; Sørensen & Hasle, 2009). As pointed out by Dirks (2000), under high levels of perceived uncertainty, trust in the leader may be crucial for getting individuals work towards a common goal. On the one side, uncertainty increases the risk. And on the other side, the trustor is expected to engage in risk taking behaviors when the level of trust is higher than the level of perceived risk in a situation (Mayer, Davis et al., 1995). So, the riskier the situation is, the higher the level of trust needed to engage in it.

For the purpose of this research it will be measured the level of trust that human resource managers had in their direct boss during the change process.

Power was chosen for this research because leader effectiveness always requires the use of power (Elias, 2008) and a primary consequence of power is the ability to influence others’ behaviors, thoughts and feelings (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002). Moreover, the study of power in organizational change contexts is especially relevant because some situations, like change processes, require more power than others (Yukl, 1989). Although power is considered a relevant leadership attribute, the literature

that analyzes the influence of perceived power on employees' reactions during change is still scarce.

In this sense, human resource managers will be asked to evaluate the level of power they perceived their direct boss had over them during the change process.

Two types of employees' reactions, were chosen for their analysis in this study: emotions and attitudes. These reflect two of the three possible reactions of employees (i.e. emotions, attitudes and behaviors). On the side of emotions, positive and negative emotions will be examined. And on the side of attitudes, attitude towards change and intention to quit will be included. Due to scope limitations, it was decided that behaviors will not be included in this research.

Traditionally, the theory associated with organizational contexts has been influenced by rational perspectives in which cognition was favored over emotion (Callahan & McCollum, 2002). Emotions were seen as human frailty or cause for interference (Kiefer, 2002), while attitudes and behaviors were considered relevant consequences of sense-making processes (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009). Under this cognitive perspective, emotions have been considered till recently an obstruct, a sign that something is going wrong, as part of resistance, and as a generator of negative consequences (Kiefer, 2002). This way of thinking easily drove managers to the conclusion that emotions needed to be avoided or controlled somehow because they complicated even more organizational processes. However, rationality is not longer the only approach. Researchers have recently recognized that employee affect provides a perspective missing from early views (Barsade & Gibson, 2007) and, therefore, it is important to understand the role of emotions in organizations.

Moreover, there is still a lack of integration of emotions in the literature of organizational change to fully understand individuals' reaction to change although change processes are considered emotional due to the increased likelihood of experiencing challenging and potentially threatening issues (Kiefer, 2005). Most of the research on the implementation of strategic change has so far focused on thinking and behavior (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010) underemphasizing, once again, emotional processing (Huy, 2005). That is why some authors consider that "more research on emotions in organizations, and more specifically, the antecedents and consequences of emotions during strategic change, can add to our understanding of the factors underlying successful strategy implementation" (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010:21).

For these reasons it was decided that emotions should be included in the research as a possible reaction of employees to change.

In this sense, human resource managers will be asked to evaluate how frequently they experienced certain positive and negative emotions during the change process.

Finally, attitude towards change and intention to quit have been included in this investigation because they are considered to be affected by leadership and emotions. Additionally, they are relevant to understand and predict social behavior during organizational change processes. Both attitudes were considered adequate as a representation of employees' possible attitudes because attitude towards change will appropriately gather employees' general perception of the change, whereas intention to quit will represent a negative behavioral tendency.

Regarding attitude towards change, human resource managers will be asked to evaluate to what extent they agree with several affirmations about their attitude towards the change during the change process.

And regarding intention to quit, human resource managers will be asked to evaluate to what extent they agree with several affirmations about their intention to quit several situations related to the change during the change process.

The examination of the relationships between the aforementioned concepts will provide the answer to the main goals of this research (which were presented in the introduction section). These relationships define the global conceptual model of the dissertation, which is visually represented in the following figure. This model will be analyzed in three separate studies although it is here represented as a whole. The contribution of each study to the general model is shown in the figure by using different types of arrows and colors in the representation of the relationships between variables.

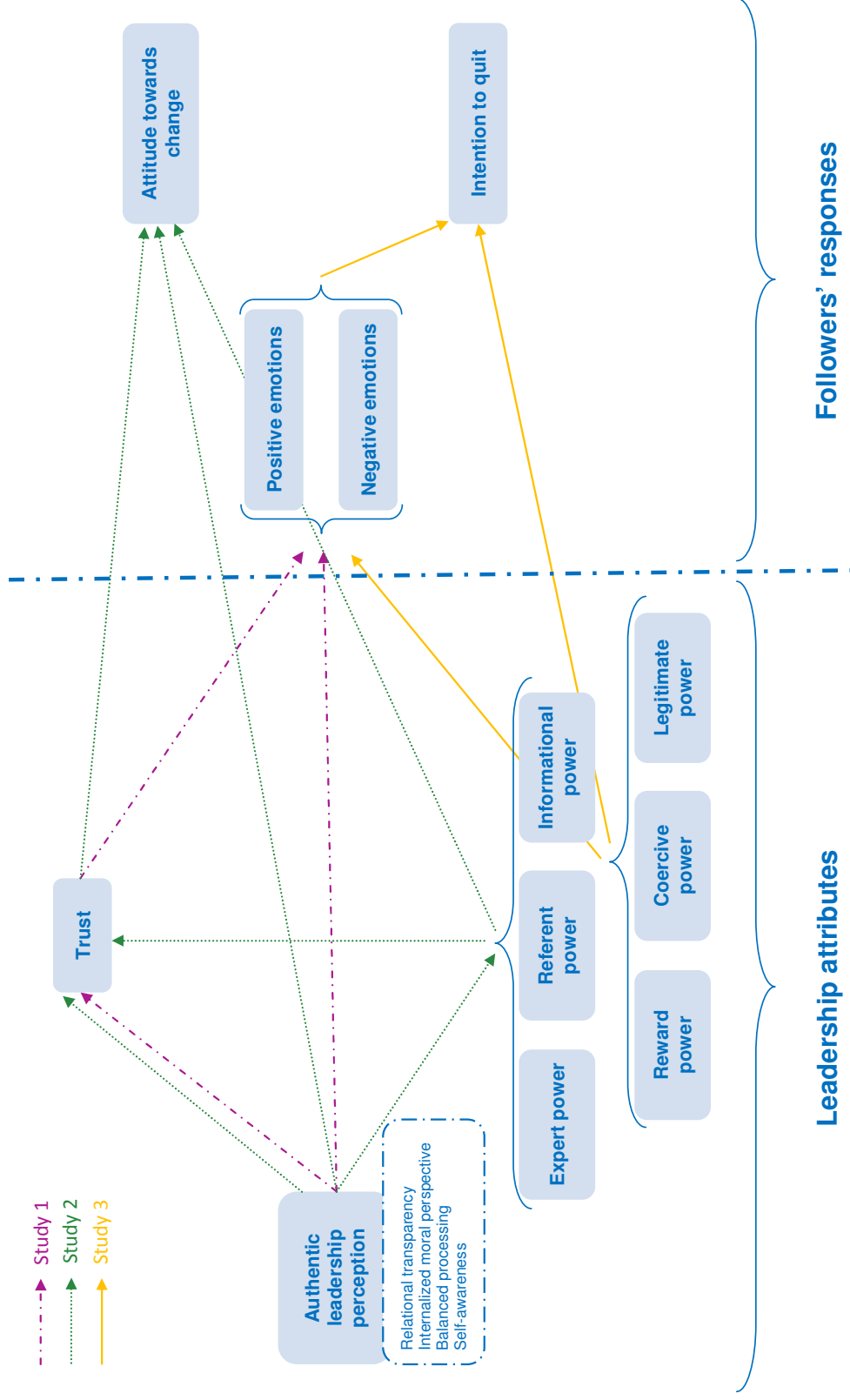


Figure 3. Representation of the global conceptual model

Source: The author

CHAPTER III

General research method

CHAPTER III. General research method

In this chapter the research method used to conduct the empirical analysis will be explained. Firstly, sample framing and data collection processes will be mentioned. Secondly, a descriptive analysis of the sample will be offered. And thirdly, the statistic techniques used to obtain the results will be presented.

1. Sample framing and data collection

The empirical analysis of this dissertation is based on a cross-sectional study which gathers information of Spanish HRMs that belong to multiple organizations with more than fifty employees and that have gone through an organizational change process.

The cross-sectional study solution used in this dissertation is in line with similar investigations on the field. Cross-sectional studies present the inconvenience that memory bias can inflate the results (overestimating for example the frequency and intensity of experienced emotions) and the reported relationships can be contaminated by reverse causality because the answers are collected at a unique time and refer to past events. On the other hand, they are easier and quicker to carry out because the collaboration of the respondent is required just once. An alternative approach was to carry out a longitudinal investigation but this option was rejected due to the difficulty in obtaining the participation of organizations during long periods and to the time and budget limitations of the PhD student.

Additionally, we decided to develop a multi-organizational study. In order to gather information from a wide variety of experiences we decided that each HRM should belong to a different organization. In this way, numerous industries, company sizes, and company cultures would be represented in the investigation.

Furthermore, we decided to center our attention on companies with more than fifty employees because it was considered that smaller companies would not probably have the human resource manager figure.

Moreover, we decided to focus our research in Spain because there is scarce number of investigations in this country on the topics analyzed in this research. For example,

only two studies on authentic leadership have been found to use a Spanish sample. Additionally, Spain is the place of interest of the PhD student.

And finally, we decided to focus on highly dynamic industries because we were interested on analyzing HRMs experience during change processes and we considered necessary to narrow down the population. In this way, in a first phase we gathered information from HRMs in industries such as manufacturing of pharmacy products, aeronautic building, air transport, editing, or telecommunications. However, given the few results obtained, we decided to include new industries such as food, paper, chemistry or textile industries.

In order to obtain the necessary information to identify the companies that met these characteristics and contact their HRMs, we used the database SABI¹.

The first contact with the company was made by telephone. After explaining the matter of the call, it was asked to talk to the HRM of the organization, the target of the survey. During this conversation the purpose of the research was explained, participation in the study solicited and a report with the results offered as a compensation for their effort (report that has already been sent to the participants). Additionally, an e-mail address was requested for sending further information of the research and access to the questionnaire (see Appendix 1 for the cover letter and the questionnaire). When necessary, several attempts to reach the HRM were made in each company. But when this was not possible we asked for the electronic address of the HRM in order to send the information. However, the provided address did not always correspond to the HRM. Sometimes the only way to send the information was through assistant's or company's addresses. Once an electronic address was available, the information of the research and access to the questionnaire was sent and a remainder one week later.

This process went on from February to December 2012 and it resulted in 146 answers (which means a response rate of 4.3%) but only 102 (70%) of them were usable. The reason for most of the rejections is that the change implementation process was not finished at the moment of fulfilling the questionnaire, although it was notified several times and highlighted that it was essential to respond recalling a recent but already finished organizational change. Otherwise the answers would not be useful for the investigation, as it was the case.

¹ SABI: Sistema de Análisis de Balances Ibéricos (Iberian System of Balance Sheet Analysis)

2. Descriptive analysis of the sample

In this section a descriptive analysis of the sample will be presented. In concrete, information about the (1) characteristics of the organizations and the role of the HRMs on them, (2) characteristics of the changes and the role of the HRMs on them, (3) characteristics of the HRMs, and (4) characteristics of the reported direct bosses will be provided.

2.1. Characteristics of the organizations and the role of the HRMs on them

The distribution of the companies in the different industries is quite irregular as can be seen in the table below. Most of the answers correspond to companies in the manufacturing industry (57.8%). This is followed in number by the information and communication industry (17.6%); wholesale and retail trade, motor vehicle and motorcycle repair (9.8%); professional, scientific and technical activities (6.9%); administrative activities and support services (2.9%). And finally, with just 1% of the answers, the following five industries: electric energy, gas, vapor and air conditioning supply; financial and insurance activities; real estate activities; public administration and defense, compulsory social security; and artistic, leisure and entertainment activities.

Table 2. Industry

Industry (CNAE 2009 ²)	Frequency	Percentage ³
Section C: Manufacturing (10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 20-33)	59	57.8%
Section D: Electric energy, gas, vapor and air conditioning supply (35)	1	1.0%
Section G: Wholesale and retail trade; motor vehicle and motorcycle repair (45–47)	10	9.8%
Section J: Information and communication (58, 59, 61-63)	18	17.6%
Section K: Financial and insurance activities (65)	1	1.0%
Section L: Real estate activities (68)	1	1.0%
Section M: Professional, scientific and technical activities (69-71)	7	6.9%
Section N: Administrative activities and support services (78, 81, 82)	3	2.9%
Section O: Public administration and defense; compulsory social security (84)	1	1.0%
Section R: Artistic, leisure and entertainment activities (93)	1	1.0%

Source: The author

The size of the company was measured using the number of employees. Nearly two thirds of the companies in the sample (64.7%) can be considered large companies as they have more than 149 employees. And the rest, 35.3%, are small or medium size companies as they have between 50 and 149 employees.

Table 3. Number of employees in the organization

Number of employees	Frequency	Percentage
Between 50 and 149 employees	36	35.3%
More than 149 employees	66	64.7%

Source: The author

When asked for the scope of their responsibility, 39.2% of the respondents reported being the HRM of a company which did not belong to any business group; 36.3% were the HRM of one or more divisions of a business group; and 23.5% reported being the HRM of a business group. Additionally to human resource management, 44.1% of those that were surveyed reported to hold at least another responsibility, duty or

² CNAE 2009: Clasificación Nacional de Actividades Económicas para 2009 (Spanish Standard Industrial Classification for 2009). In parenthesis () the two digit code of the industries that had at least one response. Industries with no responses are not included.

³ Percentages that do not add up to 100% in the “Descriptive analysis of the sample” section are due to decimal rounding.

position in the company in areas such as communication, quality management, risk prevention, finances, or operations chief.

Table 4. HRM's area of responsibility

HRMs' area of responsibility	Frequency	Percentage
Company human resource manager (which DOES NOT belong to any business group)	40	39.2%
One or more divisions' human resource manager (which belongs to a business group)	37	36.3%
Business group human resource manager	24	23.5%
Not answered	1	1.0%

Source: The author

2.2. Characteristics of the changes and the role of the HRMs on them

According to the type of change in which the answers were based, 38.2% of the respondents referred to departmental reorganizations; 24.5% to a change in the strategic orientation of the organization; 12.8% to company mergers; 9.8% to important modifications of processes; 4.9% to the introduction in new markets; 3.9% to the introduction of a new business line; 1% to technological changes; and 4.9% to other kind of changes. Among the latter, changes in the chief executive committee, new management systems, new ownership, and a combination of changes due to a joint venture were mentioned.

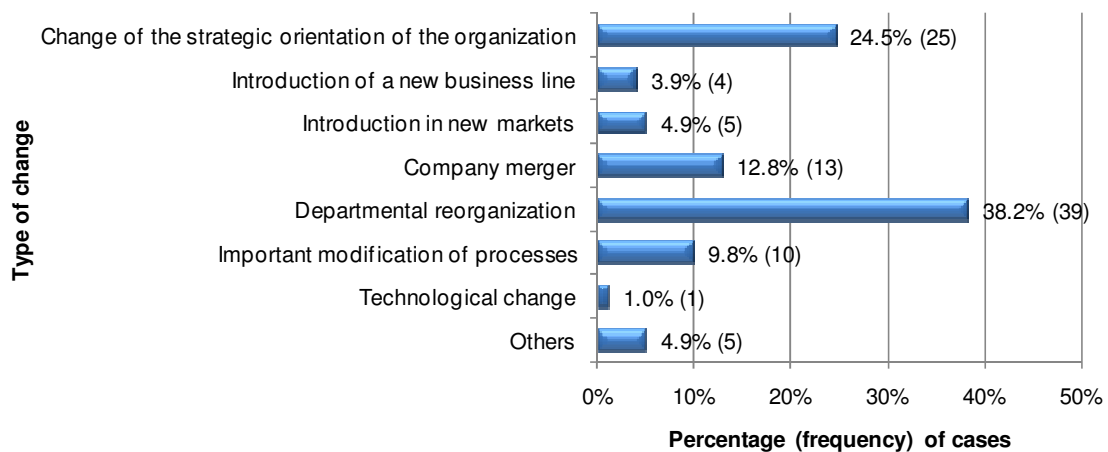


Figure 4. Type of change

Source: The author

After providing a brief explanation of the meaning of radical and incremental change, 52% of the respondents considered that the change they went through was radical, while 48% of the respondents considered it an incremental change.

Table 5. Type of change: incremental or radical

Type of change	Frequency	Percentage
Incremental	49	48%
Radical	53	52%

Source: The author

A brief definition was also provided so the respondents could classify the reported change as reactive, adaptive or proactive. In 43.1% of the cases the change was considered adaptive, in 31.4% proactive, and in 25.5% of the cases the change was considered to be reactive.

Table 6. Type of change: reactive, adaptive or proactive

Type of change	Frequency	Percentage
Reactive	26	25.5%
Adaptive	44	43.1%
Proactive	32	31.4%

Source: The author

According to the different areas that the change affected, the most frequent one was people (89.2%), followed in order by structure (81.4%), processes (78.4%), strategy (62.7%), culture (55.9%), service (53.9%), and finally technology (45.1%). As can be observed, most respondents considered that the change affected several areas.

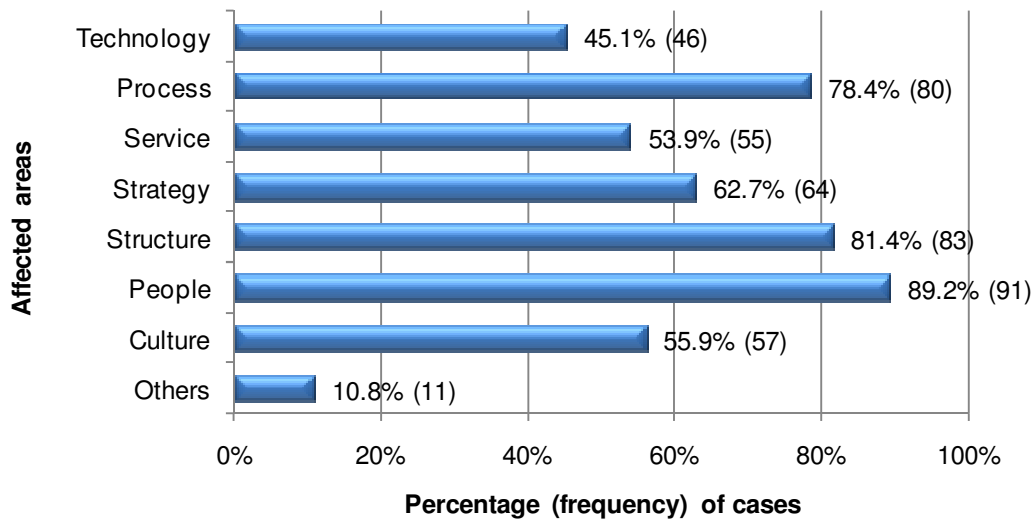


Figure 5. Areas affected by the change

Source: The author

Regarding the people affected by the change, the answers show that in 49% of the reported cases the change affected to less than 50 employees. In 30.4% it affected to more than 149 employees. And in 20.6% of the cases the change affected to between 50 and 149 employees of the organization. The average number is 366 affected employees.

Table 7. Number of employees affected by the change

Number of employees affected	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 50 employees	50	49.0%
Between 50 and 149 employees	21	20.6%
More than 149 employees	31	30.4%

Source: The author

Additionally, the results indicate that the change did not always affect the whole company. In 46.1% of the cases, the change affected to 20% or less of the employees in the organization; in 10.8% of the cases it affected to between 21 and 40% of the employees; in 8.8% to between 41 and 60% of the employees; in 6.9% to between 61 and 80% of the employees; and in 27.5% of the cases more than 80% of the employees in the organization were affected by the changes. The lowest percentage of employees affected is 1.3% and the average percentage of employees in the organization affected by the change is 72.2%.

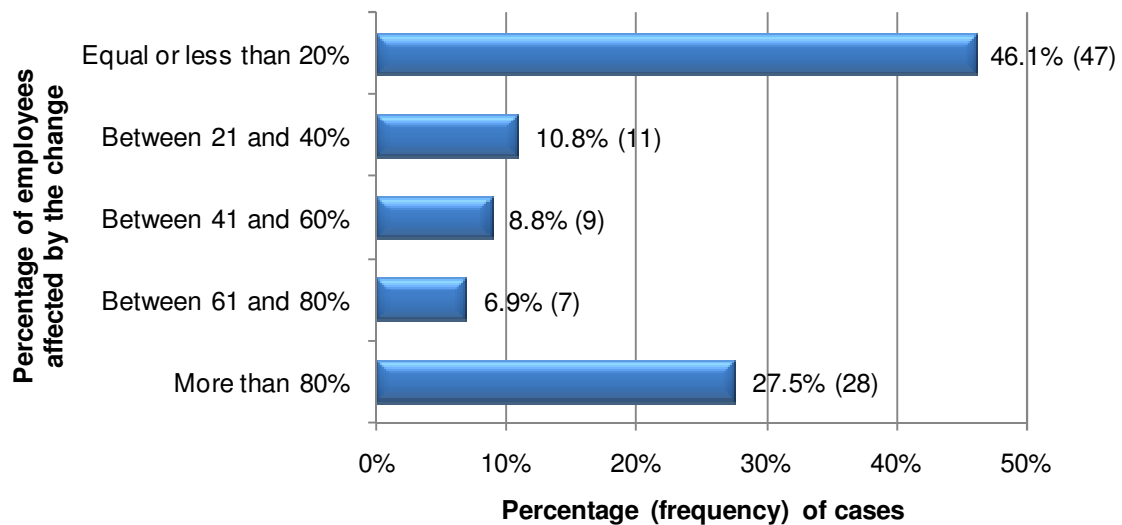


Figure 6. Percentage of employees affected by the change

Source: The author

Asked for the duration of the change, in 55.9% of the reported cases the change implementation process lasted less than one year; in 22.5% of the cases it took between 1 and 2 years; in 6.9% of the cases between 2 and 3 years; in 3.9% of the cases the change needed between 3 and 4 years to be implemented; and in 8.8% of the cases it took more than 4 years to be fully implemented. The average duration of the change was 18 months.

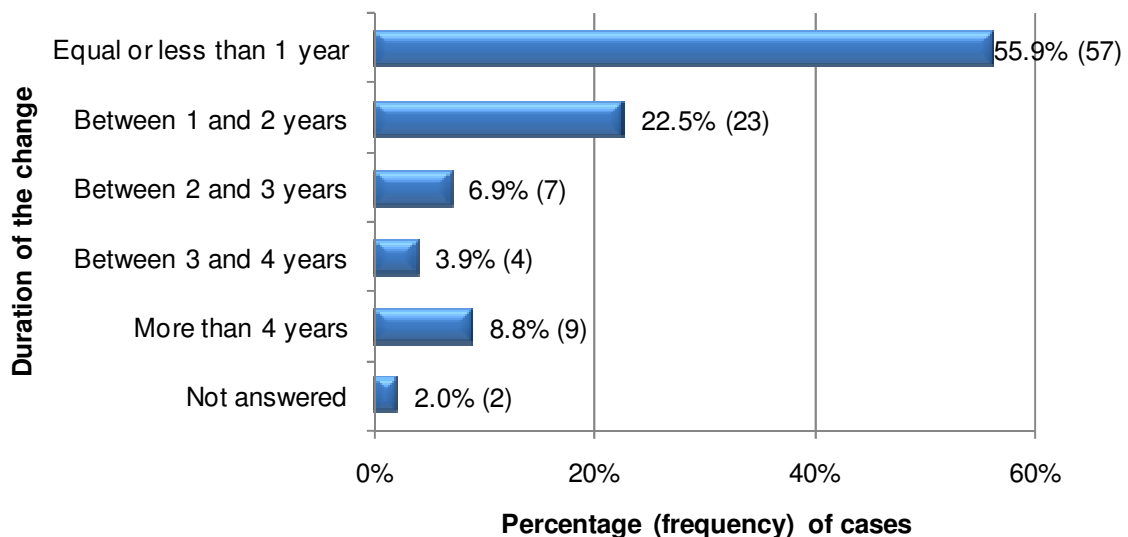


Figure 7. Duration of the change

Source: The author

Three different questions were made regarding the outcomes of the change. Most of the respondents considered that the goals that were set for the change were achieved (60.8% agreed and 10.8% totally agreed with this statement); believed that the change had positive consequences (54.9% agreed and 25.5% totally agreed with this statement); and thought that the results of the change was approximately what was hoped for prior to the change (64.7% agreed and 8.8% totally agreed with this statement).

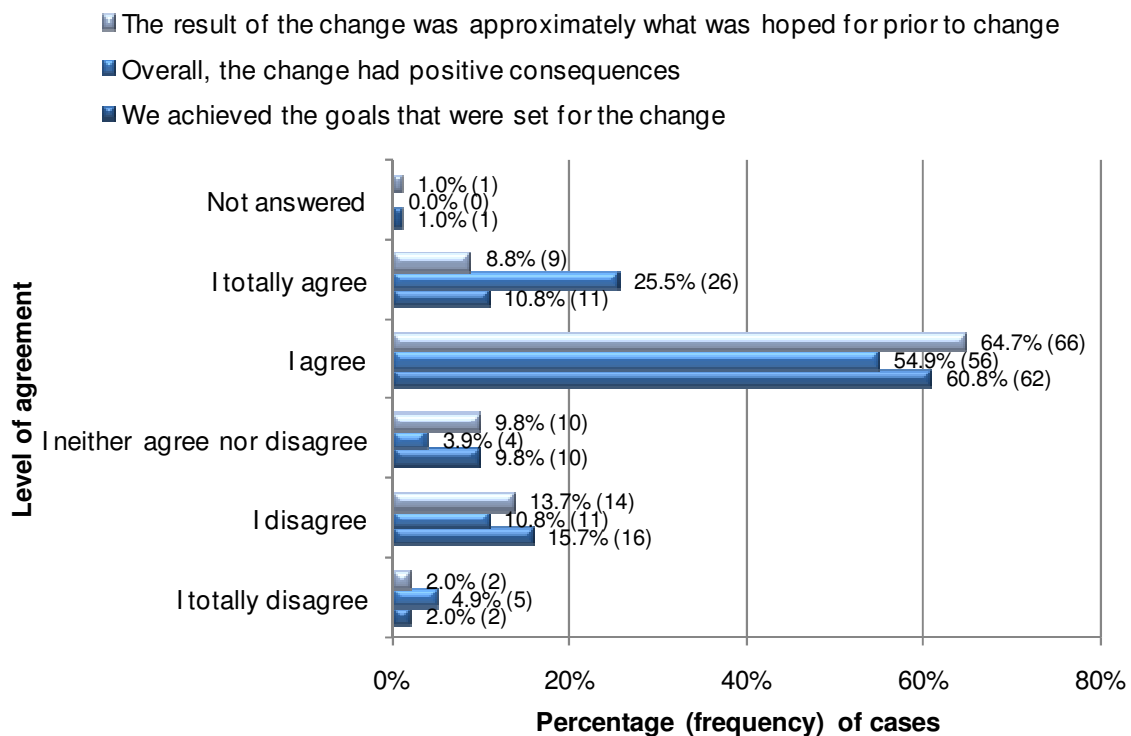


Figure 8. Outcomes of the change

Source: The author

According to the role of the HRMs during the change process, 66.6% of the respondents agreed (52.9%) or totally agreed (13.7%) with the affirmation of having an active role in the decision process about the content of the change (i.e. what should be changed); in 14.7% of the cases they neither agreed nor disagreed; and in 18.6% of the cases they did not agree with the affirmation (13.7% disagreed and 4.9% totally disagreed).

And asked for their level of agreement with the affirmation of having an active role in the decision process about the implementation of the change (i.e. how should the change be managed), 75.5% of the HRMs agreed (53.9%) or totally agreed (21.6%)

with it; 8.8% neither agreed nor disagreed; and 15.6% of the HRMs disagreed with the affirmation (8.8% disagreed and 6.8% totally disagreed).

During the change, I had an active role in the decision making process about the...

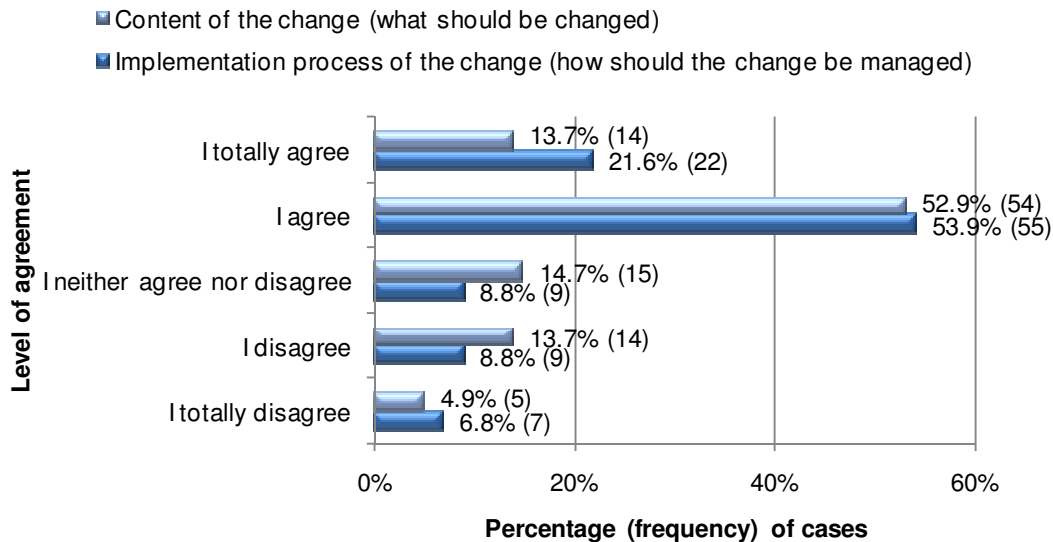


Figure 9. Role of the HRM during the change

Source: The author

2.3. Characteristics of the HRMs

Regarding the age of the HRMs, most of them reported being between thirty-one and fifty years old. Most in concrete, the most frequent age range is between forty-one and fifty years (43.1%), followed in order by between thirty-one and forty years (36.3%), between fifty-one and sixty years (14.7%), between twenty-one and thirty years (2.9%), and twenty or less years (1%).

The youngest HRM reported being 20 years old, and the oldest 60 years, with an average of 42.4 years old.

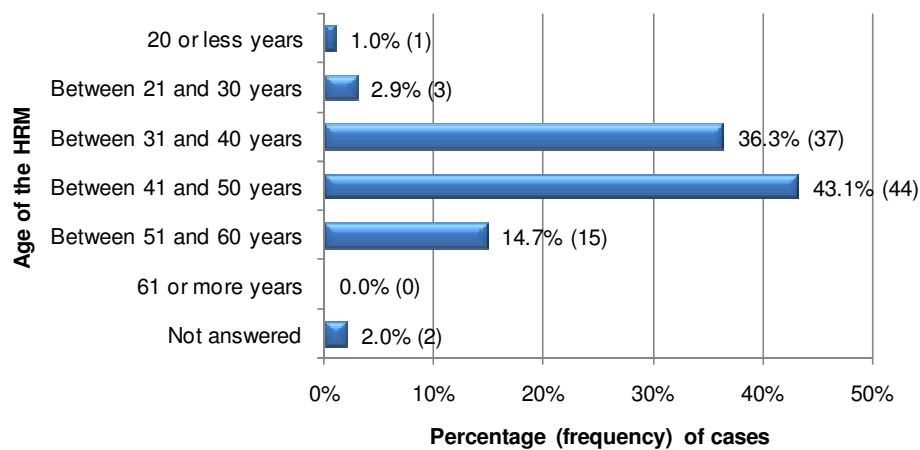


Figure 10. Age of the HRM

Source: The author

Asked for their gender, 56.9% of the HRMs reported being a man, while 41.2% of them reported being a woman.

Table 8. Gender of the HRM

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	58	56.9%
Female	42	41.2%
Not answered	2	2.0%

Source: The author

When HRMs were asked for their education level, 51% of the respondents reported having a master or doctorate degree, 46.1% a bachelor's degree, and 2% a baccalaureate or vocational studies.

Table 9. Education level of the HRM

Education level	Frequency	Percentage
Compulsory education	0	0.0%
Baccalaureate or vocational studies	2	2.0%
Bachelor's degree	47	46.1%
Master or doctorate degree	52	51.0%
Not answered	1	1.0%

Source: The author

According to the respondents' experience, 30.4% of them reported having an experience of between eleven and fifteen years as HRM, 28.4% between six and ten years, 27.4% more than fifteen years, and 12.7% five or less years.

Table 10. Experience as HRM

Experience as HRM	Frequency	Percentage
5 or less years	13	12.7%
Between 6 and 10 years	29	28.4%
Between 11 and 15 years	31	30.4%
More than 15 years	28	27.4%
Not answered	2	2.0%

Source: The author

2.4. Characteristics of the reported direct bosses

The information of this section may not be as accurate as the rest because HRMs reported about the characteristics of their direct boss and they may be confused. For example, they may not know the exact age or education level of their direct boss.

When asked about the age of their direct boss, 45.1% of the HRMs reported that their direct boss was between forty-one and fifty years old; 26.5% between fifty-one and sixty years; 16.7% between thirty-one and forty years and 8.8% sixty-one or more years.

The minimum age reported by the HRMs of the direct boss was 35 years and the maximum 67, with an average of 48.6 years.

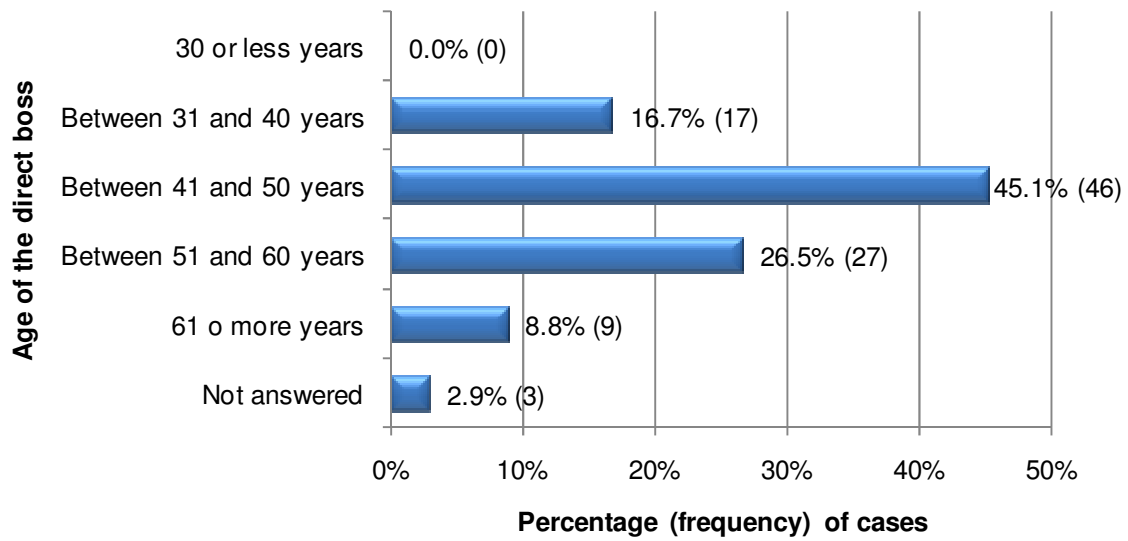


Figure 11. Age of the direct boss

Source: The author

HRMs' direct bosses were mainly males. In 88.2% of the cases they reported having a man as their direct boss, and a woman in 10.8% of the cases.

Table 11. Gender of the direct boss

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	90	88.2%
Female	11	10.8%
Not answered	1	1.0%

Source: The author

According to the education level, HRMs reported that their direct boss had a bachelor's degree in 58.8% of the cases, master or doctorate degree in 30.4% of the cases, baccalaureate or vocational studies in 6.9% of the cases, and compulsory education in 2.9% of the cases.

Table 12. Education level of the direct boss

Education level	Frequency	Percentage
Compulsory education	3	2.9%
Baccalaureate or vocational studies	7	6.9%
Bachelor's degree	60	58.8%
Master or doctorate degree	31	30.4%
Not answered	1	1.0%

Source: The author

In reference to the position of the direct boss, 42.6% of the HRMs reported that the direct boss was chief executive officer; 18.6% business manager; in 13.7% of the cases he/she was human resource manager⁴; 5.9% plant manager; general secretary, chief financial officer, or operations chief in 2% of the cases; and process manager, division manager, or vice-president in 1% of the cases.

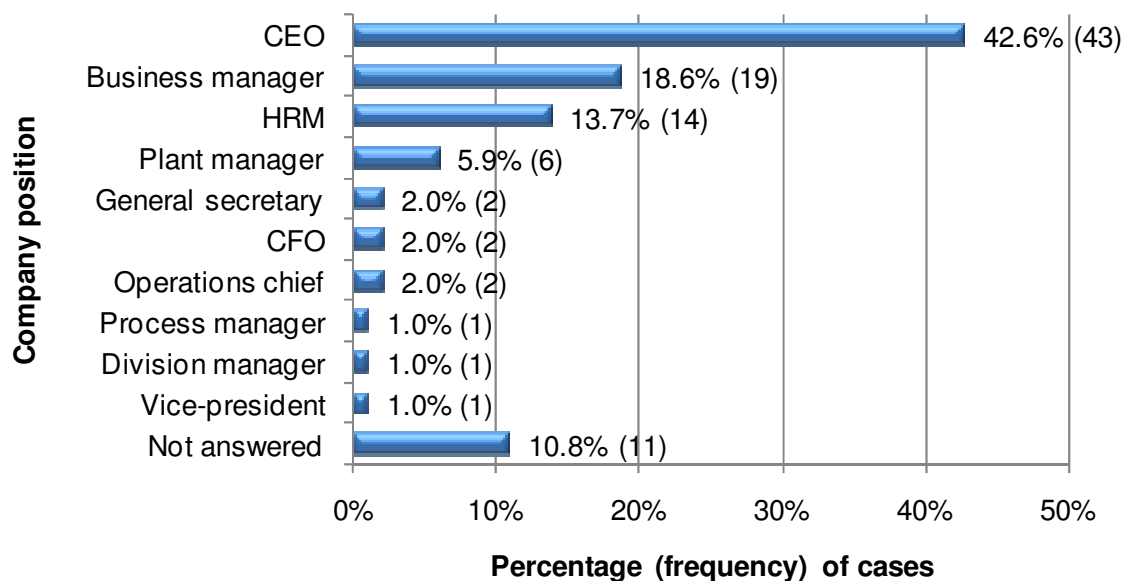


Figure 12. Position of the direct boss

Source: The author

Regarding their experience, 36.3% of the HRMs reported that their direct boss had been in his/her position for more than fifteen years, 25.5% for five or less years, 20.6% between six and ten years, and 15.7% for between eleven and fifteen years.

⁴ This is possible because the respondent could be the HRM of a company, division or group and, therefore, some could have a higher degree HRM.

Table 13. Experience of the direct boss in his/hers position

Experience in the actual position	Frequency	Percentage
5 or less years	26	25.5%
Between 6 and 10 years	21	20.6%
Between 11 and 15 years	16	15.7%
More than 15 years	37	36.3%
Not answered	2	2.0%

Source: The author

Finally, when asked for how long had their direct boss actually been their direct boss, 56.9% of the HRMs reported that for less than five years, 25.5% between six and ten years, 14.7% between eleven and fifteen years, and 2% for more than fifteen years.

Table 14. Experience as the direct boss of the HRM

Experience as the direct boss	Frequency	Percentage
5 or less years	58	56.9%
Between 6 and 10 years	26	25.5%
Between 11 and 15 years	15	14.7%
More than 15 years	2	2.0%
Not answered	1	1.0%

Source: The author

3. Multivariate analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS) will be used to test the hypotheses of the investigation. SEM is considered a second generation multivariate analysis technique because, on the one hand, it recognizes that scientific theory involves both empirical and abstract variables and, on the other hand, its goal is to link data to theory (Fornell, 1982). SEM considers the accumulative development of theory, so prior knowledge is incorporated to the empirical analysis (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004).

There are two different approaches to SEM: the covariance-based approach and the partial least squares approach. The main difference between these two approaches is their goal (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). Covariance-based methods try to estimate the parameters of the model minimizing the discrepancies between the initial empirical

matrix of covariance data and the covariance matrix deduced from the model and the estimated parameters. In other words, it uses the model to explain the covariation of all the indicators. Conversely, PLS is a variance-based or components-based approach and it tries to predict the dependent variables. This means that PLS tries to maximize the explained variance (R^2) of the dependent variables. In other words, the estimation of the parameter is based on the capacity to minimize the residual variances of the endogenous variables.

Some of the benefits of PLS that made us decide to use it are:

- PLS is a technique oriented to the prediction of dependent variables, whether latent or manifest, which is something that we intend to do in this investigation.
- PLS fits better to predictive applications and theory development (exploratory analysis), although it can also be used for theory confirmation (confirmatory analysis) (Jöreskog & Wold, 1982). It is primarily oriented to predictive analysis in situations in which the theory is not well developed and the information is scarce (Wold, 1979), especially when the hypotheses come from a macro level theory in which not all relevant variables are known (Falk & Miller, 1992) as it is the case of this investigation.
- PLS is a strong technique even when small data samples are used (Fornell, 1982) something required in our case.
- PLS works adequately when complex models with a large number of constructs and indicators are used (Falk & Miller, 1992). In this investigation not only first but also second order constructs are used, what complicates the model.
- PLS allows the use of several types of measures or indicators, including the use of Likert scales as it will be our case.
- PLS can be used in non-experimental researches (Falk & Miller, 1992) as it is the case of this investigation.
- PLS avoids an important problem of the covariance-based approach, the one related to non-unique or otherwise improper solutions (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982).

To sum up, the main reasons to use PLS instead of the covariance-based approach are the adequacy of its purpose and its minimum requirements according to the variables measurements scales, sample size and residual distributions (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003).

To perform a statistical study based on a partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling by means of PLS-Graph software (Chin & Frye, 2003) the minimum sample size required is that which would support the most complex multiple regression of the model. To identify this regression it is necessary to observe which of the following options is greater: (a) the number of indicators of the most complex formative construct or (b) the largest number of antecedent constructs leading to an endogenous construct in the structural model. Whichever is greater has to be multiplied by ten in order to obtain the minimum sample size required (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995; Chin & Newsted, 1999).

PLS analysis consists of two consecutive stages although measurement and structural parameters are concomitantly estimated (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). First, the measurement model must be evaluated in order to assess its validity (i.e. it really measures what it wants to be measured) and reliability (i.e. it does it in a stable and consistent way). This will guarantee that the theoretical concepts are properly measured through the observed variables. Afterwards, the structural model evaluation can take place in order to analyze the weight and the extent of the relation between constructs, testing the research hypotheses.

3.1. Measurement model evaluation

Different verifications have to be made according to the formative or reflective nature of the constructs. However, since this research includes only reflective constructs, it will be just explained the verifications needed for this kind of constructs. In a construct with reflective indicators these reflect the construct, which is the origin or cause of the indicators. In other words, the construct precedes the indicators in a causal sense.

For the assessment of reflective constructs the following should be confirmed: individual item reliability, construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

The individual item reliability analyzes if a particular reflective indicator of a construct actually measures the latent variable to which it has been linked. Loadings (λ) or simple correlations of the indicators with their respective constructs should be checked in order to assess individual item reliability. The most accepted and used rule is the one proposed by Carmines and Zeller (1979), who posit that in order to accept an indicator as part of a construct, the former loading should be 0.707 or above. This will

indicate that the shared variance between the indicator and the construct is greater than the error variance. However, some researchers consider that this rule should not be that rigid in the initial stages of measures development (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995; Chin, 1998), as it can be the case of experimental researches or when the indicators are used in a different context from the one that they were designed for. All those indicators that do not satisfy the established criteria should be removed (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004).

Once the individual item reliability is assessed, construct reliability, or what is the same internal consistency, should be checked. In this case, the intention is to know the extent to which the reflective indicators of a construct measure the same latent variable, which would involve a high correlation among indicators. To measure construct reliability two options are available: Chronbach's alpha and composite reliability (ρ_c) of the construct. This last one was developed by Werts, Linn et al. (1974) and to be obtained the following equation should be filled in:

$$\rho_c = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum_i var(\varepsilon_i)}$$

Where:

λ_i = Standardized loading of the indicator i

ε_i = Measure error of the indicator i

$Var(\varepsilon_i) = 1 - \lambda_i^2$

Figure 13. Composite reliability equation

Source: Werts, Linn et al. (1974)

Composite reliability is similar to Chronbach's alpha as a measure of the internal consistency. However, composite reliability is considered a better measure than Chronbach's alpha because it does not assume that each indicator of a construct contributes equally, and it is not influenced by the number of indicators. Composite reliability is a more general measure than Chronbach's alpha (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) although the interpretation of both of them is similar. Therefore, Nunnally's (1967) suggestion that 0.70 is a modest rate in early stages of the research, whereas later on, values higher than 0.80 are preferable is still valid.

Convergent validity is based on the fact that if the indicators that are supposed to measure a construct really measure the same thing, the adjust of those indicators will be significant and will be highly correlated (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004). The convergent validity is assessed by means of the average variance extracted (AVE), which indicates which part of the total variance of a construct is due to its indicators, relative to the

amount of variance due to the measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE of each construct should be over 0.5 as this means that more than 50% of the variance of the construct is due to its own indicators. The following is the formula of the average variance extracted:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum \lambda_i^2}{\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum_i var(\varepsilon_i)}$$

Where:

λ_i = Standardized loading of the indicator i

ε_i = Measure error of the indicator i

$Var(\varepsilon_i) = 1 - \lambda_i^2$

Figure 14. Average variance extracted equation

Source: Fornell y Larcker (1981)

Finally, discriminant validity of the constructs indicates the extent to which the constructs are different from each other and, therefore, they measure different realities. For discriminant validity to exist there must be weak correlations between the construct and other latent variables that measure different phenomenon. That is, each construct should share more variance with its indicators than with the rest of the constructs of the model (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommend to use the average variance extracted to assess the discriminant validity. The AVE should be higher than the variance shared between the construct being analyzed and the rest of the remaining constructs of the model (i.e. the squared correlation between two constructs). Given the outputs provided by PLS-Graph software (Chin & Frye, 2003), to verify this it is also possible to substitute the diagonal of the correlation matrix of the constructs with the square root of the average variance extracted of each construct, and check if the values in the diagonal are higher than the off-diagonal values in the corresponding rows and columns (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009).

3.2. Structural model evaluation

Once the quality of the measurement model is guaranteed, the structural model can be evaluated, what raises two questions: (1) to what extent the predictive variables contribute to the explained variance of the endogenous variables? And (2) how much of the variance of the endogenous variables is explained by the constructs that predict them? (Falk & Miller, 1992). In order to give a proper answer, the strength of the hypotheses should be analyzed and the predictive capacity of the model tested.

The strength of the hypotheses is evaluated through path coefficients level, which should be interpreted the same way as the β in traditional regression models. Additionally, the degree of stability and accuracy of the path coefficients should also be tested in order to complete the verification of the strength of the hypotheses. To do this, a nonparametric technique of re-sampling called bootstrap can be used. Bootstrap is basically a re-sampling procedure in which the original data of the investigator is treated as it was the population. N groups of samples are created in order to obtain N estimations of each parameter in the PLS model (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004). Each sample is obtained by means of sampling with replacement of the original data (Chin, 1998). In concrete, bootstrapping provides a "t" value for each relation in the model, which should be compared with a Student "t" distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom ("n" being the number of subsamples analyzed: 500). In case that the hypothesis states the sign of the relation, a one-tailed distribution should be used; otherwise, a two-tailed distribution should be used⁵.

To measure the predictive capacity of the model PLS provides R^2 value of the endogenous constructs (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). Like β , R^2 should be interpreted the same way as in multiple regression analysis. R^2 indicates the explained variance of the endogenous constructs by the model, and it should be equal or over 0.1 (i.e. 10%). Lower rates can be statistically significant, however they provide very little information and, therefore, the predictive capacity of the hypotheses that include the latent variable being analyzed is very low.

The predictive capacity of the model can also be tested through Q^2 , which was developed by Stone (1974) and Geisser (1975). Q^2 offers a measure of the goodness with which the observed values are reconstructed by the model and its parameters (Chin, 1998). To calculate the Q^2 a blindfolding procedure has to be run. During the parameters estimation process, the data of the analyzed construct are left out, in order to try to predict straightaway what has been omitted using the estimated parameters (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003). In the blindfolding process an omission distance between 5 and 10 is used and it is considered that the model has predictive relevance if Q^2 is higher than 0; otherwise, it does not have predictive relevance.

⁵ For a one-tailed distribution critical values would be: $t(0.1; 499) = 1.282$; $t(0.05; 499) = 1.648$; $t(0.01; 499) = 2.334$; $t(0.001; 499) = 3.107$. However for a two-tailed distribution critical values would be: $t(0.1; 499) = 1.648$; $t(0.05; 499) = 1.965$; $t(0.01; 499) = 2.586$; $t(0.001; 499) = 3.310$.

The following figure summarizes all the aforementioned verifications that need to be done when analyzing a model using PLS.

Stage 1. Measurement model evaluation

- **Constructs with reflective indicators**
 - Individual item reliability
 - Construct reliability
 - Convergent validity
 - Discriminant validity

Stage 2. Structural model evaluation

- **Strength of the research hypotheses**
 - Path coefficients (β)
 - Bootstrap analysis (t-Student)
- **Predictive power of the model**
 - R^2 or Stone-Geisser test (Q^2)

Figure 15. PLS analysis procedure

Source: The author

All these verifications are the ones needed in a basic procedure for an analysis with PLS. However, PLS allows many other possibilities that can substantially enrich an investigation. Higher order constructs, mediations effects, moderation effects, or multi-group analysis are some examples. Here, second order constructs and mediations effects will be explained since they are used in this research.

3.3. Second order constructs

Authentic leadership perception is a second order construct. Second order constructs are built with non-observable variables or first order factors and, therefore, they are not directly connected to any indicator (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003). Second order constructs can in turn be gathered (and even with first order factors) to create a third order construct, or above.

In order to create second order constructs it is always necessary to create previously the model with first order factors only and make all the basic verifications (Chin, 2000; Cepeda & Roldán, 2004). The model has to include only first order factors and, the factors to be included in the second order construct have to be linked to all the

constructs to which the second order construct would be related. After making the basic verifications in the first order model, the data base needs to be adapted because new second order constructs have to be included. Factor scores of the first order constructs included in the second order constructs (obtained from the outputs of PLS-Graph) will be used as the indicators of second order constructs. Once this is complete, the operational with PLS is similar to any other model.

3.4. Mediation tests

Several mediating effects are suggested in this study. For their analysis two different approaches are available: the traditional approach (James & Brett, 1984; Baron & Kenny, 1986) and the Sobel test (1982).

In the traditional approach, two models have to be run. First, it has to be checked that the relation between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variable is significant in a model in which the mediator variable is excluded. And in a second stage, a model in which all the variables are included, the following should be checked:

1. the relation between the mediator variable and the endogenous variable is significant;
2. the path value (β) of the relation between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variable in the complete model is lower than the one in the model without mediators (model 1); and
3. if the relations between the exogenous and the endogenous variable is significant there is partial mediation, but if this relation is no longer significant there is full or complete mediation (i.e. the exogenous variable influences the endogenous variable only through the mediator variable).

And the Sobel test involves calculating the following equation for each of the exogenous variables of the endogenous variable being analyzed:

$$z = \frac{ab}{\sqrt{a^2\sigma_b^2 + b^2\sigma_a^2 + \sigma_a^2\sigma_b^2}}$$

Where:

a = Coefficient corresponding to the effect of the independent variable over the mediator.

b = Coefficient corresponding to the effect of the mediator variable over the dependent variable (taking out the effect of the independent variable).

ab = Product of a and b (i.e. indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent one through the mediator).

σ_a = Variance of the coefficient for path a

σ_b = Variance of the coefficient for path b

Figure 16. Sobel test equation

Source: Sobel (1982)

The results of this equation can be compared with a standard normal distribution⁶ (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to establish statistical significance.

In this research, both methods, the traditional approach and the Sobel test, will be used to establish if mediation relationships exist.

⁶ $z(0.1) = 1.282$; $z(0.05) = 1.645$; $z(0.01) = 2.327$; $z(0.001) = 3.08$

CHAPTER IV

The relationship between authentic leadership perception, trust in the leader and followers' emotions:

the experience of HRMs' during organizational change processes

CHAPTER IV. The relationship between authentic leadership perception, trust in the leader and followers' emotions: the experience of HRMs during organizational change processes

Despite the increasing interest in emotions at work, there is still a need for more investigations focused on the antecedents of emotions in organizational change contexts. Moreover, literature considers leadership and trust fundamental when dealing with change processes. Taking into account both ideas, it is proposed here that authentic leadership perception can influence followers' trust and emotions during change. In order to test these hypotheses, we gathered and analyzed the experience of 102 Spanish human resource managers using structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS). Findings show that authentic leadership is directly and positively related to followers' trust in the leader and the experience of positive emotions. Furthermore, we found that trust mediates the relation between authentic leadership perception and the experience of negative emotions.

Introduction

Changes have become increasingly common context in organizations (Kiefer, 2005). Mergers and acquisitions, new top management teams, the introduction of new products and in new markets, downsizing, layoffs, or departmental reorganizations; are going on nowadays in nearly every company. The last ones (i.e. downsizing, layoffs, or departmental reorganizations) are especially common during economical crises as the one we are facing right now. Therefore, the necessity to constantly adapt to the environment in order to remain competitive, urges companies to be aware of the underlying factors that explain the success of organizational changes.

Researchers have tried for long to find the key success factors of change processes acknowledging this managerial concern. But they have mainly taken a cognitive perspective. Traditionally, the theory associated with organizational contexts has been influenced by rational perspectives in which cognition was favored over emotion (Callahan & McCollum, 2002). Emotions were seen as human frailty or cause for interference (Kiefer, 2002), while attitudes and behaviors were considered relevant

consequences of sense-making processes (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009). Under this cognitive perspective, emotions have been considered till recently an obstruct, a sign that something is going wrong, as part of resistance, and as a generator of negative consequences (Kiefer, 2002). This way of thinking easily drove managers to the conclusion that emotions needed to be avoided or controlled somehow because they complicated even more organizational processes. Emotions were considered irrational and they were supposed to hinder organizational changes by opposing resistance (Kiefer, 2002). However new integrative alternatives are arising in order to fulfill the gaps that rational theories left. Researchers currently recognize that “affect is inherent to the human experience, and thus inherent to any situation in which humans interact with each other and their environment, including at work” (Barsade & Gibson, 2007:51). It is now considered that emotions guide people when adapting to new environments; so they are a vital part of change that do not always have negative consequences as it used to be thought (Kiefer, 2002). In fact, Liu and Perrewé (2005) argue that positive emotions arise if workers perceive that the change is congruent with their personal goals and has high potential for success and growth. Furthermore, it is well established that positive affectivity is associated to prosocial behavior, also in the work context (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), what is really useful when dealing with changes. It is such the relevance that emotions are taking in the study of organizations that some authors even claim that an “affective revolution” has taken place (Barsade, Brief et al., 2003). For this reason, emotions are nowadays considered especially relevant in change contexts (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005) and are being analyzed as a factor that can help explain the outcomes of organizational changes. For example, the literature suggests that employees' emotions can indirectly influence the success of change implementations by affecting their behaviors during the change process. Several proposals, such as the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) or informational theories (Forgas, 1995; 2002), posit that people not only engage on behavior rooted in conscious thinking and deliberation, but also in more spontaneous emotion-based behavior, especially in uncertain and ambiguous contexts (e.g. organizational changes) or when they lack sufficient interest, motivation, or resources to create a more elaborate response (Forgas, 1995; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Forgas, 2002; Bartunek, Balogun et al., 2011). Additionally, workers' behaviors have demonstrated to be fundamental to explain the success and failure of strategy implementations.

The interest on emotions in the organizational context has been intense and increasingly popular, however there are still many theoretical and methodological opportunities left (Brief & Weiss, 2002). In particular, research has focused more on the consequences of emotions than on explaining how and why they occur and how they can be explained (Giæver, 2009a). Thus, it is proposed that more research on antecedents of emotions during organizational change is needed in order to understand better the factors underlying successful change implementation (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010). And this is exactly what this investigation attempts to do.

In addition to emotions, leadership style and level of trust in the leader are considered fundamental elements for the success of change processes, and have also been proposed to influence emotions. On the one side, few articles have tried to demonstrate the general belief that leaders' behavior is a fundamental source of employees' emotions at work. The number of investigations diminishes if our interest is on a relatively new leadership style, authentic leadership. And it gets even smaller if we focus on organizational change contexts. On the other side, trust is considered an important element in the effectiveness of leadership; however the role of trust and emotions in leading and following is still under-researched. Therefore, questions concerning whether and how authentic leaders may influence followers' emotions, how they can build trust in the leader, or whether trust plays any role in the relationship between leaders' behaviors and followers' emotions remain to be unanswered.

This research addresses all these gaps in the leadership and emotions literatures by examining why authentic leadership behavior matters, and how it may influence followers' level of trust in the leader and emotions during organizational change processes. In concrete, this empirical study will be centered on human resource managers and their direct boss' authentic leadership behaviors. Direct boss' leadership attributes will be considered triggering events of HRMs' emotional reactions based mainly on appraisal theories of emotions. In particular, their perceptions of their direct boss' authentic leadership behavior and the level of trust in their leader will be analyzed as antecedents of HRMs' positive and negative emotions during organizational change processes. To the best of our knowledge this is the first attempt to explore the relation between followers' authentic leadership perception, trust and emotions in organizational change contexts.

Theoretical background and conceptual model development

Emotions during organizational change

The literature on emotions can be traced back to its ancient philosophy origins. Since the Greeks' began the philosophy tradition about emotions, this topic has been analyzed from multitude perspectives (e.g. philosophy, literature, biology, psychophysiology, etc.), and with a lot of different purposes (Bisquerra, 2009). Thus, it is not surprising that a definitive definition of emotion has not been achieved yet, although they are intuitively well understood (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Some researchers try to define emotions explaining its characteristics, while others specify its components, and some others just differentiate it from related concepts.

Adopting this last option, many authors try to make clear the difference between emotions and moods, and they do it in terms of intensity, length and origin. Although they do not use the exact same words, researchers (e.g. Forgas, 1995; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Lee & Allen, 2002; Cole, Bruch et al., 2006; Smollan, 2006; Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Giæver, 2009a) tend to agree that discrete emotions are relatively intense, short-lived and usually emerge as a consequence of a specific cause or event. On the contrary, moods tend to be diffuse as they do not need to have a clear motivation, and are less intense and longer lasting than emotions.

Emotions will be considered here as *relatively intense and short-living affective reactions to a specific event* based on previous definitions of the concept and taking into account the purpose of this research.

Emotions are usually classified in positive and negative according to their valence. Positive emotions are the result of a favorable appraisal towards the approach or achievement of own goals (e.g. happiness, pride, relief, hope). Conversely, negative emotions are the result of an unfavorable appraisal towards the approach or achievement of own goals (e.g. anger, disappointment, frustration, rage) (Bisquerra, 2009).

Emotions are expected to surface more frequently and intensely during change processes than in non-change situations (Kiefer, 2002). Organizational changes, defined for the purpose of this investigation as the *process by which organizations move from their present state to some desired future state in order to foster the achievement of one or more organizational objectives*, are considered emotional due to the increased likelihood of experiencing challenging and potentially threatening

issues (Kiefer, 2005) explained by the uncertainty inherent to change processes. Organizational changes are a context of uncertainty for all the ones involved especially in the beginning, mainly because of the lack of information about the situation and the impossibility to predict every potential outcome of each change-related decision. This often makes employees feel vulnerable and insecure; being sometimes even more concerned about the uncertainty than the change itself (Bartunek, Balogun et al., 2011). Hence, organizational change seems to be an appropriate context for understanding emotions at work.

In fact, the number of papers that study emotions in organizational change contexts has increased in the last years. With different goals, methodologies, and theories, these papers aim to contribute to a better understanding of the field.

Some of the investigations focus on resistance to change (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001b; Szabla, 2007; Balogun, Bartunek et al., 2010) or justice (e.g. Matheny & Smollan, 2005), the two first and main topics when talking about affectivity during change processes. Some authors narrow their investigation to negative emotions (e.g. Fugate, Kinicki et al., 2002; Kiefer, 2005; Giæver & Hellesø, 2010); while others prefer to take a positive perspective (e.g. Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008). Qualitative techniques, mostly case studies, have been very popular (e.g. Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2002; Turnbull, 2002; Huy, 2005; Bartunek, Rousseau et al., 2006; Vince, 2006; Smollan & Sayers, 2009; Giæver, 2009b; Balogun, Bartunek et al., 2010; Giæver & Hellesø, 2010; Smollan, Sayers et al., 2010; Stam & Stanton, 2010; Bartunek, Balogun et al., 2011). However, quantitative studies are also present in the literature (e.g. Seo, Taylor et al., 2007; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010). Some articles are mainly interested on managers' emotions (e.g. Mossholder, Settoon et al., 2000; Huy, 2002; Kiefer, 2002; Vince, 2006; Balogun, Bartunek et al., 2010) and others in the relation between emotion and time (e.g. Fugate, Kinicki et al., 2002; Giæver, 2009b; Smollan, Sayers et al., 2010). Finally, some authors aim to build new theory by integrating different perspectives such as psychodynamic (e.g. Carr, 2001), or psychoanalytic (e.g. Antonacopoulou & Gabriel, 2001); offering new approaches (e.g. Kiefer, 2002; Liu & Perrewé, 2005; Balogun, Bartunek et al., 2010); creating new concepts such as emotional balancing (e.g. Huy, 2002); or new theories such a multilevel theory of emotion and change (e.g. Huy, 1999).

Many of these investigations have in common that they are grounded on appraisal theories of emotions (e.g. Huy, 2005; Kiefer, 2005; Liu & Perrewé, 2005; Fugate,

Kinicki et al., 2008; Giæver, 2009b; Giæver & Hellesø, 2010), especially if they analyze emotions' antecedents and consequences (e.g. Huy, 2005; Kiefer, 2005; Bartunek, Rousseau et al., 2006; Smollan, 2006; Seo, Taylor et al., 2007; Szabla, 2007; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Fugate, Kinicki et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010; Stam & Stanton, 2010). In these cases it is outstanding the number of papers that mention the affective events theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) AET takes Lazarus' (1991) appraisal theory and other cognitive theories into the organizational context and proposes that the emotional reactions lived at work generally begin with the appraisal of an event occurred in the organization. A change in the circumstances, in what the employee is currently experiencing becomes the triggering event of the emotional experience. Affective events have been described in the work context as incidents, the consequence of the interaction between the employee and his labor environment that stimulates the individual assessment processes, triggering an emotional experience (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Bisquerra, 2009). For example, when a person is excited about a recent promotion, the promotion would be the work event that triggers the emotion of excitement.

Some authors argue that changes can be viewed as trigger events with the capacity to evoke powerful emotions (Isabella, 1992; Huy, 2005; Matheny & Smollan, 2005). Downsizings, mergers, job redesigns, organizational restructurings, or fundamental changes in strategy, personnel, organizational identity, or established work roles and interests often trigger intense emotions (Isabella, 1992; Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Huy, 2005) that may affect involuntarily the change receptors in different ways (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009). However, other researchers are more specific and when they say that changes are affective events, they refer to everyday events related to different aspects of work (e.g. work tasks, personal situations, social relationships, and relationships with the organization) that are more likely to occur in ongoing changes (Kiefer, 2002; 2005). In this case, as organizational changes can be seen as multidimensional events, a mixture of positive and negative emotions can be elicited during change implementation (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009). Additionally, not all emotions experienced during an organizational change are necessarily related to the ongoing change. Emotions result from individual evaluations of the meaningfulness of specific events at work, and these events may or may not be related to the change (Kiefer, 2005)

Investigations about work events as elicitors of emotions during change are not very common in the literature. Even though, there are remarkable exceptions. Based on earlier work on emotions at work, Kiefer (2005) proposes three categories of events that can trigger negative emotions during change: issues relating to working conditions, issues relating to one's personal status, and organizational issues (e.g. acts of management, and values and fairness of the organization). "The first issue refers to the consequences of organizational change for the experience work itself and the work conditions. The second issue relates to either experienced negative outcomes from changes for one's own position and status in the company or the anticipation of such in the near future. The third issue relates to the way employees feel treated by the company and its managers" (Kiefer, 2005:879). After carrying out an empirical analysis, Kiefer accepts the mediating role of these three issues between ongoing change and everyday negative emotions. The present investigation would fall into Kiefer's "organizational issues" category as HRMs report their leader's behaviors during a change process. Falling in the same category, change agents' actions and managers' transformational leadership behavior have demonstrated to be antecedents of emotions during change in Huy's (2005) and Seo, Taylor et al.'s (2007) investigations respectively. Also, in this category can be included Szabla's (2007) analysis of the cognitive, emotional and intentional reactions to three different leadership strategies of planned change: rational-empirical, normative-reeducative, and power-coercive change strategy; finding that significant relationship exists between the perception of the change strategy and the response to change along these three dimensions. Furthermore, participating in the change initiative demonstrated to increase nurses' experience of gains, which were linked with pleasant feelings; therefore affecting emotions during change (Bartunek, Rousseau et al., 2006).

This paper takes into consideration previous work and suggestions on what it is still left to investigate to focus on HRMs' perception of their direct boss' authentic leadership behavior and trust in the leader as antecedents of emotions during change.

We decided to focus on the direct boss because, among managers, it is the nearest one, with whom workers spend more time and, for that, who can most frequently and intensely influence them. The direct boss might not be the only one making the decisions, but he/she is usually the one in charge of translating the guidelines from the top in the daily basis, in charge of supervising and supporting employee's work, and with whom employees usually most interact. Therefore, the relationship between an

employee and his/her direct boss is expected to be stronger than with any other manager in the company.

The influence of authentic leadership perception on emotions

Luthans and Avolio (2003) introduced the idea of authentic leadership development to offer a more positive way for conceptualizing leadership development (Avolio, Walumbwa et al., 2009). Shortly later, Avolio and colleagues (2004) provided some initial foundation work for a broader theoretical framework of how authentic leaders influence follower attitudes, behavior and performance. This paper, together with a special issue of the *Leadership Quarterly* published in June 2005⁷ and the book “*Authentic leadership theory and practice: origins, effects and development*” (Gardner, Avolio et al., 2005), became the foundation for exploring authentic leadership and related concepts (Avolio, 2010a). Fred Luthans and Bruce J. Avolio (2003) popularized authentic leadership in the academic community, while Bill George (2003) did the same for the general practice community (Avolio, Walumbwa et al., 2009).

Authentic leadership is considered the root construct underlying all positive forms of leadership. It can incorporate transformational, charismatic, servant, spiritual, ethical or other forms of positive leadership (Avolio, Gardner et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005), but it has been empirically demonstrated that it is significantly distinguishable from ethical and transformational leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008).

In words of Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004:802) authentic leaders “know who they are, what they believe and value, and they act upon those values and beliefs while transparently interacting with others”. And in words of Luthans and Avolio (2003:243) “The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders. The authentic leader is true to him/herself and the exhibited behavior positively transforms or develops associates into leaders themselves. The authentic leader does not try to coerce or even rationally persuade associates, but rather the leader’s

⁷ The special issue of the *Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3) included papers such as “*Authentic leadership development: getting to the root of positive forms of leadership*” (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), “*Can you see the real me? A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development*” (Gardner, Avolio et al., 2005), “*Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: understanding leader-follower outcomes*” (Ilies, Morgeson et al., 2005), or “*Looking forward but learning from our past: potential challenges to developing authentic leadership theory and authentic leaders*” (Cooper, Scandura et al., 2005).

authentic values, beliefs, and behaviors serve to model the development of associates”.

Based on these previous descriptions and including the latest advances in the topic, in 2008, Walumbwa, Avolio et al. (2008:94) defined authentic leadership as follows: “A pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development”.

This definition reflects the four underlying dimensions of the construct of authentic leadership (i.e. balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness) that have been generally accepted after its empirical validation (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008). These are explained in the following table.

Table 15. Components of authentic leadership

Balanced processing	Refers to objectively analyzing relevant data before making a decision. Such leaders also solicit views that challenge their deeply held positions.
Internalized moral perspective	Refers to being guided by internal moral standards and values, which are used to self-regulate one's behavior. Such leaders try to avoid group, organizational, and societal pressures when they make their decisions.
Relational transparency	Refers to presenting one's authentic self through openly sharing information and feelings as appropriate for situations. Such leaders try to avoid the display of inappropriate emotions and their behavior promotes trust.
Self-awareness	Refers to the demonstrated understanding of one's strengths, weaknesses, and the way one makes sense of the world.

Source: Walumbwa, Avolio et al. (2008) and Avolio, Walumbwa et al. (2009)

According to Gooty, Connelly et al.'s (2010) literature review on leadership, affects and emotions are deeply intertwined with the process of leading, leader outcomes and follower outcomes. In fact, Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004) presented a framework in which they suggested that emotions could be a key variable to explain the process by which authentic leaders influence followers' outcomes. Most researchers try to explain the relation between leaders' behaviors and followers' emotions based on one of the

following theories: (1) the affective events theory, which is grounded on appraisal theories; and (2) emotional contagion.

When trying to understand how and why emotions arise, most researchers base their proposals on Lazarus' (1991) appraisal theory of emotions; as Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) did to develop the AET, a theory of emotions at work. The appraisal theory of emotions considers that these are specific reactions to events, indicating the importance of the episode to the individual. However, the stimulus that activates the appraisal process does not need to be literally an event, but can also be a stable feature that is salient (Elfenbein, 2007). As previously mentioned, events related to interactions with coworkers, customers, and supervisors are among the greatest emotional impact for workers, with leaders' behaviors looming particularly large (Elfenbein, 2007). Therefore, leader's behaviors can be the event that activates the appraisal process giving birth to emotional experiences.

According to Lazarus' (1991) appraisal theory of emotions, two appraisal stages take place before an emotion arises. First, there is an automatic appraisal in which the possible consequences of a situation are taken into consideration. After this, a secondary appraisal takes place in which cognitive processes evaluate the personal capacity to cope with the situation. In other words, in the primary appraisal the person asks him/herself: does this affect my survival or wellbeing? If the answer is affirmative, emotional response activates and the secondary appraisal drives the person to ask him/herself: am I able to cope with this situation? If the answer is again affirmative, the emotional response intensity is reduced. But if it is negative, the person has a sense of loose of control that activates even more the physiologic response. Taking this general theory into an organizational change context, and considering the change the eliciting event, the emotion arising process could be the following: first, primary appraisal occurs when an employee evaluates whether the announced change is relevant to his/hers well-being or personal goals; and if it is so, secondary appraisal takes place. In this stage, the employee receives more information about the change; information that can be influenced by the degree of congruence between individual's goals and change's goals, confidence on the success of the change, or confidence on the organization (Klarner, By et al., 2011). The result of this secondary appraisal will determine which emotion arises and its intensity. Authentic leaders can play an important role during the secondary appraisal. With their behavior they can make the employee perceive that he/she is able to cope with the situation. If they support the change, authentic leaders can make their own and their organizations' goals become

also the goals of the followers through personal identification with the leader and social identification with the organization (Avolio, Gardner et al., 2004). Besides, authentic leadership behaviors based on relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing and self-awareness can help to increase employee's confidence on the organization and on the success of the change.

In a similar way, the emotion arising process can be described when the authentic leader's behavior during organizational change is considered as the eliciting event, as it is proposed in this investigation. Firstly, the primary appraisal occurs when an employee evaluates whether the authentic leader's behavior during the change is relevant to his/hers well-being or personal goals. If this is the case, secondary appraisal follows. In this stage, the employee receives more information about the leader and experience his/hers behavior in a daily basis. This information is influenced by the degree of congruence between individual's goals and authentic leader's goals, trust in the leader, or emotional ties to the leader. Generally speaking, as authentic leadership is considered a positive form of leadership, it is expected that authentic leaders' behaviors have positive consequences and elicit primarily positive emotions. More in concrete, authentic leaders expected behaviors such as: sharing information, asking for others thoughts, making decisions based on high moral values and not biased by external pressures, taking into account others viewpoints, and willing to rectify standpoints when necessary; are expected to make their own goals become also the goals of their followers, enhance trust in the leader, and develop emotional ties to the leader. In this way, it is favored the emergence of positive emotions and the reduction of negative emotions during the secondary appraisal.

Emotional contagion has also been used to explain the relation between authentic leadership and emotions (e.g. Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson et al., 2005). The basis of the emotional contagion process is that emotions are shared and become social, creating collective emotions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Authentic leaders are expected to experience more positive affective states through self-awareness. And, according to emotional contagion, followers are expected to emotionally converge with the leader's emotional expressions. In this way, the more positive emotions the leader exhibits the more positive emotions the follower experiments. But, followers' emotions, in a feedback loop, can also influence leaders' emotions through emotional contagion, creating a positive emotional atmosphere (Ilies, Morgeson et al., 2005). In addition to foster positive emotions, the literature proposes that authentic leaders can also reduce the experience of negative emotions. "Positive emotions have an undoing effect, and

loosen the hold that negative emotions have gained on the person" (Peterson, Walumbwa et al., 2012).

The idea that leader's behavior can have a great influence on follower's emotions has led some researcher as far as to say that management's job has become the management of emotion, or that the modern leader is an emotional manager (Elfenbein, 2007). Notwithstanding, few articles have tried to empirically demonstrate the widespread belief that leadership behaviors are a key source of employees' emotions at work. In an investigation of Bono, Foldes et al. (2007) employees who worked for supervisors rated high on transformational leadership reported experiencing more positive emotions. In the same year, Seo, Taylor et al. (2007) found that managers' affect-focused leadership behavior had a significant and positive effect on positive affect and a significant and negative effect on negative affect during large scale organizational change. Liang and Chi (2013) also found that follower perception of transformational leadership had a positive relationship on their positive emotions; a relation that was moderated by the susceptibility of the follower to positive emotions. Rowold and Rohmann (2009) demonstrated that transformational leadership was positively related to followers' positive emotions and negatively related to negative emotions; while transactional leadership was positively related to positive emotions but not related to negative emotions. Leaders' charisma was also positively associated with group members' post-task positive affect and negatively associated with the post-task negative affect in Erez, Misangyi et al.'s (2008) investigation. Finally, Peterson, Walumbwa et al. (2012) demonstrated that authentic leadership is positively associated with followers' positive emotions and negatively associated with followers' negative emotions, which in turn partially mediate the relationship between authentic leadership and follower job performance. This research was based on a field study in a potentially extreme context (i.e. a police organization). All these investigations offer promising results, but they do not analyze the relationship between authentic leadership and emotions during organizational change processes, as it is our purpose. Hence, we propose:

- H1a: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the experience of positive emotions during organizational change.
- H1b: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is negatively related to the experience of negative emotions during organizational change.

The influence of trust on emotions

Rousseau, Sitkin et al. (1998:395) widely defined trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" based on Mayer, Davis et al.'s (1995) definition of trust as "willingness to be vulnerable" and considering a cross-discipline perspective. This definition has been adopted by many authors such as Dirks and Ferrin (2001; 2002), Gillespie (2003), Lines, Selart et al. (2005), Sørensen and Hasle (2009), Kelloway, Turner et al. (2013), and Zhu, Newman et al. (2013); and it will be the one used in this research.

Trust in the leader is considered a relevant factor for the successful implementation of organizational changes (Zhu, May et al., 2004; Oreg, 2006; Sørensen & Hasle, 2009) because it is considered crucial for getting individual work towards a common goal (Dirks, 2000), especially under high levels of perceived uncertainty. Moreover, trust in the leader is also considered a fundamental element in the effectiveness of leadership (Bass, 1990). This idea is supported in Dirks and Ferrin's (2001; 2002) meta-analysis, in which they found that leadership style can increase trust in the leader, which is in turn associated to attitudes, perceptions, and important organizational outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, or intention to quit. Based also on past investigations on trust, Schoorman, Mayer et al. (2007) considered the study of the relationship between trust and emotions a very interesting area of research. In response to this call, Ballinger, Schoorman et al. (2009) demonstrated that work group members affective reactions to the departure of a leader were partly based on the quality of the relationship they had with the leader. These affective reactions influenced group members' trust judgments of the new leader, unless they had access to previously formed judgments about the leader's ability. Yet, the role of trust and emotions in leading and following is under-researched (Gooty, Connelly et al., 2010).

It is here proposed that trust in the leader can enhance positive emotions and reduce negative emotions considering the research antecedents and the need for more investigation. A follower that really trusts the leader can be willing to do what the leader asks for and even give the leader the benefit of the doubt because he/she trusts the leader's intention (Gardner, Avolio et al., 2005). If the follower really trusts the leader, whatever the leader says or does could probably be interpreted by the follower in a more positive way than if trust did not exist. For example, if the leader states that it is

essential to modify how things are done to improve the performance of the organization, the follower would probably agree with the leader, perceive the change as positive and do whatever it takes to make it happen. In this situation, hope and enthusiasm for an improvement with the change are likely to arise, while anger and frustration may be reduced. On the contrary, if the follower does not trust the leader, any proposal coming from the leader could be suspicious for the follower, who would look for any undercover loss or harm. In this case, although the change may be positive, negative emotions such as anger may arise if there is any sense of loss or harm. Therefore, followers that trust the leader will probably experience more positive emotions and less negative emotions, and vice versa. Hence, we propose:

H2a: Trust in the leader is positively related to the experience of positive emotions during organizational change.

H2b: Trust in the leader is negatively related to the experience of negative emotions during organizational change.

The mediating role of trust

Leaders can gain or lose followers' trust with their behavior. Leaders who do not show consistency between words and actions, or who frequently lie are hardly trusted by their employees. On the contrary, authentic leaders are expected to build trust in their followers with their supporting behavior. Transparency is a main characteristic of authentic leader and it is considered central to building trust. That is why it is proposed that authentic leadership relational transparency can build followers' trust in the leader (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Wong & Cummings, 2009; Norman, Avolio et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011). Leaders that are self-aware, whose values are based on high moral principles and who act upon their values, have no reason for not openly sharing information and expressing their true thoughts and feelings to followers (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008). Authentic leaders are transparent, congruent between their beliefs, words, and actions, honest, they show concern for employees, they have high ethical standards, integrity and credibility, and are willing to give and receive feedback. All these characteristics are proposed to help authentic leaders to build followers' trust in them. In fact, it has been empirically found before that authentic leadership influences trust directly at an individual level (Wong & Cummings, 2009; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Zamahani, Ghorbani et

al., 2011) and at a group level (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), and indirectly at an individual level through personal identification (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010). Hence, it is proposed:

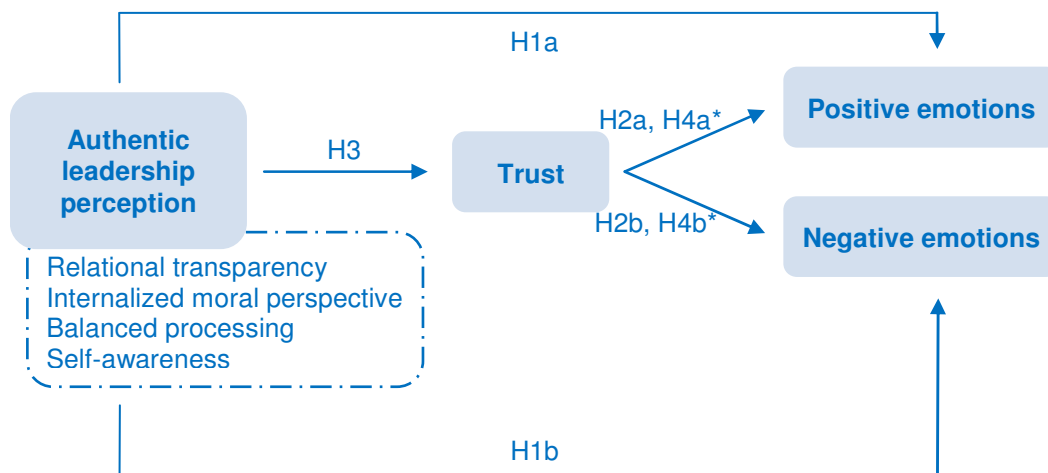
H3: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the level of trust in the leader during organizational change.

In their proposed framework, Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004) posited that identification, hope, trust and emotions could be the processes by which authentic leaders exert their influence on followers' attitudes and behaviors. Since then, the relationship between authentic leadership, trust in the leader and different followers' attitudes and behaviors has been successfully researched (Peus, Wesche et al., 2012). It has been empirically confirmed for example that trust mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and performance (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), voice behavior (Wong & Cummings, 2009), organizational citizenship behaviors (Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), or work engagement (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). These are promising results that let us think trust might also mediate the relation between authentic leadership and a different kind of followers' outcomes; that is followers' emotions. In fact, Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004) suggested there could also be a relation between authentic leadership, trust and positive emotions and although they did not presented an explicit proposition. According to Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al. (2009:232), and in reference to authentic leaders, "followers may be more willing to place trust in the leader's future actions because they can use past experiences to predict future responses". In other words, demonstrated authentic leadership relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing and self-awareness make employees feel more comfortable and secure about leader's future behavior. Positive past behavior provides behavior predictability, which "seems to be a particularly relevant facet of trust in the examination of its relation with authentic leadership" (Peus, Wesche et al., 2012:335). Moreover, trust enables followers to perceive leader's actions to be genuine (Zhu, Newman et al., 2013). In this way, trust helps followers to judge the leader in a favorable light, favoring in turn the experience of more positive emotions and less negative emotions. As authentic leaders are expected to behave in a manner perceived as trustworthy, followers are expected to demonstrate more positive emotions and less negative emotions. Therefore, we propose:

H4a: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and the experience of positive emotions is mediated by the level of trust in the leader.

H4b: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and the experience of negative emotions is mediated by the level of trust in the leader.

The following figure represents the conceptual model being tested.



*Hypotheses H4a and H4b refer to the following mediation effects:
H4a: AL → Trust → Positive emotions
H4b: AL → Trust → Negative emotions

Figure 17. Representation of the conceptual model

Source: The author

Research method

Sample framing and data collection

A multi-organizational approach for data gathering was chosen because we decided to center out attention on different HRMs' experience during organizational changes. The research focused on Spanish companies with more than fifty employees because it was considered that smaller companies would not probably have the human resource manager role.

The information gathering process went on from February to December 2012. HRMs were first contacted by telephone, and afterwards further information and access to the questionnaire was sent by e-mail. This process resulted in 146 answers (which means

a response rate of 4.3%) but only 102 (70%) of them were usable. The reason for most of the rejections is that the change implementation process was not finished at the moment of fulfilling the questionnaire, although it was notified several times and highlighted that it was essential to respond recalling a recent but already finished organizational change.

When asked for the scope of their responsibility, 39.2% of the respondents reported being the HRM of a company which did not belong to any business group, 36.3% the HRM of one or more divisions of a business group, and 23.5% reported being the HRM of a business group⁸. Additionally to human resource management, 44.1% of those that were surveyed reported to hold at least another responsibility, duty or position in the company such as communication manager, quality manager, or operations chief.

According to the type of change in which the answers were based, 38.2% of the respondents referred to departmental reorganizations, 24.5 % to a change in the strategic orientation of the organization, 12.8% to company mergers, 9.8% to important modifications of processes, 4.9% to the introduction in new markets, 3.9% to the introduction of a new business line, 1% to technological changes, and 4.9% to other kind of changes such as the management team.

Constructs and measures

Authentic leadership perception is the exogenous construct of the model. It is a second order construct as it comprises four first order constructs (i.e. balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness). The specific measures used have been obtained from the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)⁹ developed by Avolio, Gardner et al. (2007). This questionnaire captures the degree of authentic leadership behavior of a person, which in our case is HRMs' perception of their direct boss authentic leadership behavior. HRMs were asked how frequently each of the statements presented fitted their direct boss' leadership style during the change process using a 5-point Likert scale¹⁰. Examples of the

⁸ The 1% missing corresponds to a respondent who did not answer to the question.

⁹ Access to the full questionnaire and permission to use it had to be asked to the authors. Additionally, the publication of only three sample items to measure authentic leadership behavior was allowed by the authors. Permission to use the ALQ can be found in Appendix 2.

¹⁰ There were basically two types of questions: frequency and level of agreement. In **frequency** questions HRMs were asked to answer how frequently each of the statements presented were true using the following scale: (1) Not at all; (2) Once in a while; (3) Sometimes; (4) Fairly often; (5) Frequently, if not always. In **agreement** questions HRMs were asked to answer to what extent they agreed each of the statements presented using the following scale: (1) I totally disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I totally agree.

measures used are: “sought feedback to improve interactions with others” for self awareness dimension; “demonstrated beliefs that were consistent with actions” for internalized moral perspective; and “listened carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions” for measuring balanced processing.

Trust in the leader is the first endogenous construct of the model and it refers to the extent to which the HRM is willing to be vulnerable (i.e. voluntarily take risk) at the hands of his/her direct boss. Trust was measured with 6 items based on Schoorman & Ballinger's (2006) proposal, which was possibly the most promising measure of trust till that moment according to Schoorman, Mayer et al. (2007). HRMs reported to what extent they agreed with each of the statements referred to their trust in their direct boss during the change process. Some examples of the questions used for measuring trust are: “my direct boss kept my interests in mind when making decisions” and “if my direct boss would have asked why a problem occurred, I would have spoken freely even if I was partly to blame”.

Finally, positive and negative emotions are the second group of endogenous constructs of the investigation. Fiebig and Kramer's (1998) research presented a list of positive and negative emotions that respondents reported feeling as a reaction to organizational incidents. Based primarily on this research, positive emotions construct was measured with 7 items (i.e. relief, gratitude, hope, happiness, energized, confirmed, and pride) whereas negative emotions was measured with 10 items (i.e. rage, frustration, anger, hopelessness, shame, disappointment, disgust, contempt, anxiety, and surprise). HRMs were asked to judge how frequently each of the emotions fitted with what they felt during the change process.

The nature of all the constructs in the model is reflective. In a construct with reflective indicators these reflect the construct, which is the origin or cause of the indicators. In other words, the construct precedes the indicators in a causal sense. Reflective indicators are determined by the construct and, therefore, if the level of the construct changes the indicators covary in the same level and direction (Chin & Gopal, 1995; Chin, 1998).

The constructs, codes and measures used in this research can be found in Appendix 3.

Multivariate analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS) will be used to test the hypotheses of the investigation. This particular analysis technique was chosen because it recognizes that scientific theory involves both empirical and abstract variables and, on the other hand, its goal is to link data to theory (Fornell, 1982). It allows to incorporate prior knowledge to the empirical analysis (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004).

In comparison to the covariance-based approach (an alternative SEM approach), PLS fits better to predictive applications and theory development (exploratory analysis) (Wold, 1979); and it avoids two important problems of the covariance-based approach: those related to non-unique or otherwise improper solutions (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982), and to the use of small data samples (Fornell, 1982). Thus, PLS can be a powerful analysis method due to its minimum requirements according the variables measurements scales, sample size and residual distributions (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003). As this is an exploratory analysis and the data sample is not very large, PLS was considered more adequate than the covariance-based approach.

The sample size obtained is large enough to perform a statistical study based on a partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling by means of PLS-Graph software (Chin & Frye, 2003). The sample required is that which would support the most complex multiple regression of the model. To identify this regression it is necessary to observe which of the following options is greater: (a) the number of indicators of the most complex formative construct or (b) the largest number of antecedent constructs leading to an endogenous construct in the structural model. Whichever is greater has to be multiplied by ten in order to obtain the minimum sample size required (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995; Chin & Newsted, 1999).

In our case only option "b" makes sense because all the constructs of the model are reflective in nature. Positive and negative emotions are the endogenous constructs with the largest number of antecedent constructs having an influence on them: 5 each in the first order model (i.e. authentic leadership balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, self-awareness, and trust) and 2 in the second order model (i.e. authentic leadership perception and trust). Following the rule

explained above, 50 is the minimum sample size required for the first order model and 20 for the second order model¹¹.

PLS analysis consists of two consecutive stages although measurement and structural parameters are concomitantly estimated (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). First, the measurement model must be evaluated in order to assess its validity (i.e. it really measures what it wants to be measured) and reliability (i.e. it does it in a stable and consistent way). This will guarantee that the theoretical concepts are properly measured through the observed variables. Afterwards, the structural model evaluation can take place in order to analyze the weight and the extent of the relation between constructs, testing the research hypotheses. (For a complete explanation of the multivariate analysis review Chapter III Section 3).

Results

First order model evaluation

Authentic leadership perception is a second order construct, which gathers four first order factors: relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing, and self-awareness. Therefore, it is necessary to create a first order model and make all the basic verifications before running all the tests in the second order model.

The first verification to do for the measurement model evaluation is the individual item reliability, which showed that 9 out of 39 items loaded under 0.707. From these, four had to be excluded because of their low loadings (i.e. ALTRANS5 with 0.490, TRUST5 with 0.042, NEGEMO1 with 0.498, and NEGEMO9 with 0.557) and five were kept because they loaded above 0.65, very close to the limit. Once these items were excluded, the model was run again and confirmed that all the remaining items loadings were above 0.707 or close to this limit. Afterwards, we checked out construct reliability (composite reliability Min. ALBALAN 0.850; Max. ALAWARE 0.904; minimum limit 0.7), convergent validity (AVE Min. POSEMO 0.565; Max. LSAWARE 0.701; minimum limit

¹¹ As it has been explained in Chapter III Section 3.3, authentic leadership is a second order construct; which makes necessary to run a first order factors model before the definitive second order structural model evaluation can be performed.

0.5), and discriminant validity; confirming that everything was correct and therefore the quality of the measurement model is adequate.

A more detailed explanation of the first order measurement model evaluation can be found in Appendix 4.

According to the first order structural model evaluation, Table 16 shows the path coefficients linking exogenous and endogenous constructs, together with their degree of significance (which has been tested through bootstrapping techniques), the correlation between constructs, and the contribution of each exogenous construct to the amount of variance explained of each endogenous construct. This last rate was calculated multiplying in each case the path coefficient by the correlation. It also includes the cross validated redundancy measure (Q^2) for each endogenous construct.

As can be seen, authentic leadership factors relational transparency, internalized moral perspective and balanced processing have a significant and positive impact on trust; and contribute quite equally (13.5%, 17.2%, and 18.3% respectively) to the amount of variance explained of trust. Self-awareness however does not seem to significantly influence on trust.

Internalized moral perspective is the only authentic leadership factor that has a significant influence on positive emotions, explaining by itself 35% of the amount of variance explained of positive emotions. The relationship between trust and positive emotions is not strong but significant (path coefficient is 0.146 at a 90% confidence level). Trust contributes to explain 7.4% of the amount of variance explained of positive emotions.

Nevertheless, trust's effect on negative emotions is far more important than on positive emotions. Trust mitigates negative emotions and contributes to explain nearly 24% of the amount of variance explained of negative emotions. Finally, none of the authentic leadership factors has a significant influence on negative emotions.

According to the predictive capacity of the model, this is adequate for the three endogenous constructs. The total amount of variance explained (R^2) is above 10% and cross validated redundancy (calculated by means of a blindfolding process with an omission distance of 7) is positive for trust, positive emotions and negative emotions.

Table 16. First order structural model evaluation

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	ALTRANS	ALMORAL	ALBALAN	ALAWARE	TRUST	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)	Cross validated redundancy (Q ²)
TRUST	Path	0.202 ^T	0.265*	0.281*	0.065	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.667	0.649	0.650	0.644	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	13.47%	17.20%	18.27%	4.19%	N.A.	53.12%	0.2292
POSEMO	Path	-0.06	0.538***	-0.061	0.137	0.146 ^T		
	Correlation	0.511	0.654	0.434	0.554	0.504		
	Contribution to R ²	-3.07%	35.19%	-2.65%	7.59%	7.36%	44.42%	0.1623
NEGEMO	Path	-0.036	0.034	0.082	-0.228	-0.442***		
	Correlation	-0.417	-0.405	-0.388	-0.449	-0.537		
	Contribution to R ²	1.50%	-1.38%	-3.18%	10.23%	23.74%	30.92%	0.0367

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

Second order measurement model evaluation

Once the first order model was validated, second order model was created and the measurement model evaluated.

For this to be done, individual item reliability was checked, verifying that all the 23 items loaded above 0.707 or close to this limit, so there was no need to drop out of the research any other item. Construct reliability showed to be very good since all the constructs rated high in composite reliability. Being the lowest acceptable value 0.7 in early stages of investigation, the lowest value obtained was 0.869 for trust, and the highest 0.944 for authentic leadership. And convergent validity values were also good as they were above the limit of 0.5 for AVE, being the lowest value obtained 0.566 for positive emotions and the highest 0.808 for authentic leadership. Finally, discriminant validity was also confirmed.

A more detailed explanation of the second order measurement model evaluation can be found in Appendix 5.

Second order structural model evaluation

Table 17 shows the results obtained for the evaluation of the structural model in order to analyze the strength of the research hypotheses and the predictive capacity of the model.

Table 17. Second order structural model evaluation - Influence of trust on positive and negative emotions, and authentic leadership on trust, positive and negative emotions

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	TRUST	AL	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)	Cross validated redundancy (Q ²)
TRUST	Path	N.A.	0.725***		
	Correlation	N.A.	0.725		
	Contribution to R ²	N.A.	52.56%	52.56%	0.2419
POSEMO	Path	0.144	0.499***		
	Correlation	0.506	0.603		
	Contribution to R ²	7.29%	30.09%	37.38%	0.1201
NEGEMO	Path	-0.428***	-0.151		
	Correlation	-0.538	-0.462		
	Contribution to R ²	23.03%	6.98%	30.00%	0.0374

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, †p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

As predicted, the positive effect that authentic leadership exerts on trust is statistically significant, therefore hypothesis H3 is accepted. In fact, this effect is quite high. As can be seen, authentic leadership explains 52.6% of the variance of trust.

Authentic leadership exerts also a significant positive impact on positive emotions, but has no impact on negative emotions. Therefore hypothesis H1a is accepted, while hypothesis H1b is not. The contribution of authentic leadership to the amount of variance explained of positive emotions is slightly above 30%.

Finally, trust mitigates negative emotions, but it does not have any significant impact on positive emotions. Thus, hypothesis H2b is accepted, while H2a is not. Trust explains 23% of the amount of variance explained of negative emotions.

As can be seen, the predictive capacity of the model is doubly checked. On the one hand, all three endogenous constructs' total amount of variance explained are above the 10% quality threshold advocated by Falk and Miller (1992) and, on the other hand, cross validated redundancy measures are above zero.

Mediation test

Two different approaches can be used for mediation test: the traditional approach and the Sobel test. Following the traditional approach two models have to be run for mediation to be tested. In the first model the mediator variable should be excluded (i.e. trust) and independent (i.e. authentic leadership) and dependent variables (i.e. positive and negative emotions) should be linked in order to check that the relations between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variables are significant.

Table 18. Mediation test - Influence of authentic leadership on positive and negative emotions

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	AL	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)
POSEMO	Path	0.607***	
	Correlation	0.607	
	Contribution to R ²	36.84%	36.84%
NEGEMO	Path	-0.464***	
	Correlation	-0.464	
	Contribution to R ²	21.53%	21.53%

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, †p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

As shown in Table 18, authentic leadership exerts significant impact on emotions: positive influence on positive emotions and negative influence on negative emotions. Therefore, the first condition for mediation to exist is fully satisfied in both cases.

And the second is a model in which all the variables are included. In fact, this is the model analyzed in the previous section (see Table 17). In this model it should be checked that the relation between the mediator variable (i.e. trust) and the endogenous variable (i.e. positive and negative emotions) is significant. The relationship between trust and positive emotions is not statistically significant. Therefore, trust does not mediate the relation between authentic leadership and positive emotions, so hypothesis H4a cannot be accepted. However, the relation between trust and negative emotions is statistically significant, satisfying the second condition established for mediation to exist.

And the third condition for mediation is that the path value (β) of the relation between the exogenous variable (i.e. authentic leadership) and the endogenous variable (i.e. negative emotions) in the complete model should be lower than the one in the model without mediators (see Table 18). The association between authentic leadership and negative emotions increases from -0.151, in the complete model, to -0.464, in the model without mediators. And since the relation between this two constructs in the complete model is non-significant, trust fully mediates the relation between authentic leadership and negative emotions. Therefore, hypothesis H4b is accepted.

These mediation results have also been confirmed by means of the Sobel test. $z_{AL-TRUST-POSEMO} = 1.169$ and $z_{AL-TRUST-NEGEMO} = 3.426$; which were compared with a standard normal distribution¹² (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to establish statistical significance.

To finish with mediation, Table 19 shows the total effect of authentic leadership on emotions as a sum of the direct and indirect effects. As can be seen, the effect of authentic leadership on positive and negative emotions is quite different. Authentic leadership has a positive and mainly direct effect on positive emotions, while it has a negative and mainly indirect effect on negative emotions through trust.

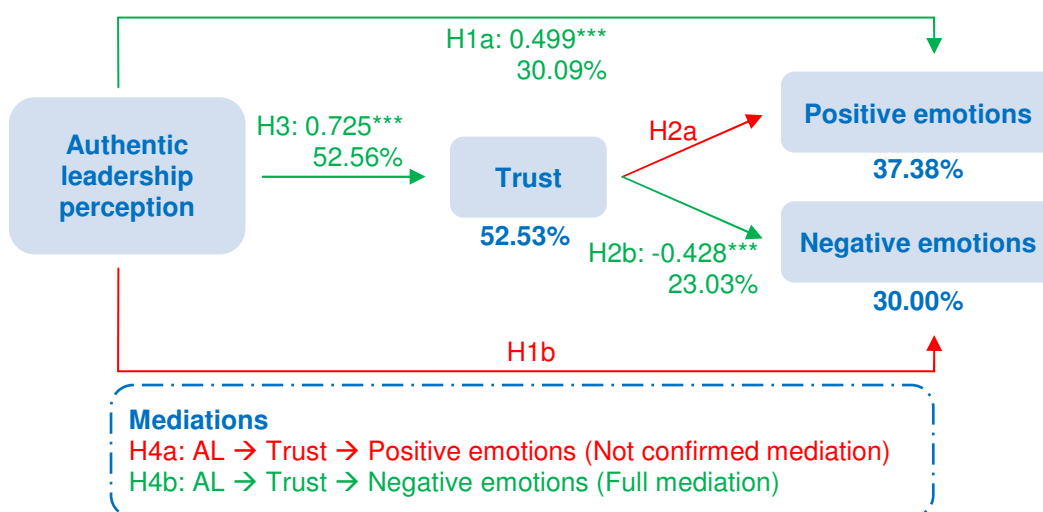
¹² $z(0.1) = 1.282$; $z(0.05) = 1.645$; $z(0.01) = 2.327$; $z(0.001) = 3.08$

Table 19. Total effect of authentic leadership on positive and negative emotions

Endogenous Construct	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
POSEMO	0.499	0.104	0.603
NEGEMO	-0.151	-0.310	-0.461

Source: The author

As a summary of this section, the following figure visually represents the results obtained.



Note: Path coefficients (β) and contributions to the amount of variance explained of the endogenous constructs (R^2) are provided for accepted hypotheses. Additionally, the total amount of variance explained by the model of each endogenous construct is provided. $^{***}p < 0.001$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{\dagger}p < 0.1$ (based on t_{499} , one-tailed test)

Figure 18. Representation of the results

Source: The author

Conclusions, discussion and managerial implications

The study of emotions in organizational contexts is increasingly popular in the last years, especially since it is considered inherent to the human experience and a missing piece in past theories. Despite this increasing interest on emotions at work, still few investigations have focused on emotions' antecedents during organizational changes.

This paper is a first attempt to explore the relation between authentic leadership perception, trust and followers' emotions during organizational change. The influence of different leadership styles on trust and emotions has been studied earlier but to the

best of our knowledge none of them linked followers' authentic leadership perception, trust and emotions in organizational change contexts. We proposed and found that HRMs' perception of their direct boss' authentic leadership behavior exerts an influence on the level of trust in the boss and the emotions experienced during organizational change processes.

More specifically, we found that authentic leadership perception is tightly linked to HRMs' trust in their boss. The results indicate that authentic leadership behavior influences follower's trust in the leader, which is in line with previous results as indicated by Gardner, Cogliser et al. (2011). These authors published a literature review on authentic leadership (with the cut-off date of December 31st, 2010) in which they indicated that the three papers contained in the review that empirically studied this relationship supported the positive influence of authentic leadership on trust in the leader¹³. Since then, more articles supporting this relation have been published (e.g. Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011; Zamahani, Ghorbani et al., 2011); however there is still more theoretical than empirical support for this relation.

Literature considers transparency a key element to build trust in the leader (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010). In fact, Wong and Cummings (2009) found that relational transparency was the only authentic leadership dimension that had a significant impact on trust. And Norman, Avolio et al. (2010) made an experiment in which they observed that relational transparency influenced followers' perceived trust. However, the present investigation shows that, besides relational transparency, internalized moral perspective and balanced processing dimensions of authentic leadership also contribute to generate trust. In this sense, Zamahani and Ghorbani (2011) found that balanced processing was the authentic leadership dimension that best explains trust in the leader. In light of the results, it seems that not only sharing information and expressing true thoughts and feelings builds trust; but that thoughtful decisions which are based on core values can also help to foster followers' trust in the leader. All these characteristics of authentic leaders make followers have positive expectations on the leaders' behaviors and be willing to accept some vulnerability based upon these expectations.

Followers' trust in their organizational leaders has become an important issue (Norman, Avolio et al., 2010) and managers should be aware of the important consequences their behavior has on employees' level of trust. If managers lie, if they

¹³ These three papers are: Clapp-Smith, Volgelgesang et al. (2009); Wong & Cummings (2009); and Wong, Laschinger et al. (2010).

act unfairly, if they do not keep their word, if their decisions are biased by own interests or others' pressures and employees know it; they will expect managers to act the same way in the future. This behavior is expected to destroy trust because employees will not be willing to accept any more vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the managers' behavior, because there will not be positive expectations. Conversely, since trust is fundamental for the effectiveness of leadership (Bass 1990; Dirks and Ferrin 2001; 2002) and authentic leadership builds trust; managers should be sincere and honest, stand on high moral values, and act objectively when making decisions if they want employees to trust them.

Moreover, we found that authentic leadership perception was also significantly and positively related to the experience of positive emotions. In other words, direct boss' authentic leadership behavior directly affects the emotional reaction of HRMs by fostering positive emotions. This result is in line with the ones obtained by Peterson, Walumbwa et al. (2012) as they also found that authentic leadership is positively associated with followers' positive emotions. In their investigation, Peterson and colleagues argue that authentic leadership influences followers' emotions based on social support theory. They posit that each dimension of authentic leadership can influence followers' emotions differently: self-awareness through an empathetic response of the leader towards the follower; relational transparency through honesty and openness; balanced processing through taking into account followers' contributions; and internalized moral perspective through followers' encouragement to act upon their values. Therefore, each dimension should significantly impact on positive and negative emotions. However, the authors do not provide results of these independent relations, so they cannot be analyzed. Going deeper in our analysis, we found that internalized moral perspective is the only authentic leadership dimension included in the study that significantly impacts on positive emotions. Relational transparency, balanced processing and self-awareness dimensions of authentic leadership do not seem to have an important influence on positive emotions. Therefore, this study reveals that boss' behavior based on his/hers core values and congruency with his/hers thoughts especially matters to employees, triggering positive emotional reactions. Curiously, it was the lack of ethical conduct of today's leaders what called for a new, genuine, values-based leadership (Gardner, Cogliser et al., 2011), giving birth to authentic leadership. Considering the results, it seems that it is precisely this moral perspective what most influences followers' positive emotions. This fact makes us think that authentic leadership could be more tightly linked to followers' positive emotions

than other leadership styles such as charismatic, transformational or transactional. It was mentioned in the hypotheses development section that independent investigations have found positive results relating transactional, transformational and charismatic leadership to followers' emotions, especially to positive emotions. However, it would be interesting to compare these relations in a single investigation in order to determine if there is any leadership style that can better explain followers' positive and/or negative emotions.

Additionally, it was found that trust mediates the relation between authentic leadership perception and negative emotions. Authentic leadership behavior seems to build trust in the leader, which in turn diminishes the experience of negative emotions. Conversely, and contrary to predicted, trust does not seem to contribute explaining positive emotions, and does not mediate either the relation between authentic leadership and positive emotions. However, in the first factor model trust was slightly but significantly related to positive emotions.

These results point out that the relation between authentic leadership, trust, positive emotions and negative emotions is quite complex and needs further investigation. An explanation for the results obtained could lie on the consideration of trust as dynamic (Rousseau, Sitkin et al., 1998), which is developed along the time, mainly as a response to leader's behaviors. Additionally, as suggested by Gooty, Connelly et al. (2010), beside cognitive influences, emotions could also influence the level of trust. As affect-as-information theory (Forgas, 1995; 2002) proposes, positive emotions could be used as information and, therefore, help build trust, while negative emotions could destroy it. However, given a concrete time and specific situation (as is the case of this research), the level of trust that a follower has in the leader could act as a filter to interpret leader's behavior, affecting in turn follower's emotions. Trust in the leader could help to interpret in a positive way leader's behavior, even giving the leader the benefit of the doubt when negative behaviors (such as injustice or unfairness) are perceived. On the contrary, the lack of trust could have negative consequences by interpreting leader's behavior in a negative way due to suspiciousness and skepticism. In order to confirm this proposal new longitudinal investigations that make possible to capture the evolution of trust and the experience of positive and negative emotions as response to leadership behaviors are needed.

In light of the results obtained and the discussion presented above, we would like to offer a couple of managerial advices in an attempt to contribute to evidence-based management as demanded by Rousseau (2006).

Firstly, we consider that, given the benefits of authentic leadership, it would be advisable to develop and deliver training programs to explain managers the foundations of this leadership style, to address its importance and benefits, and to help managers engage in authentic leadership behaviors. Authentic leadership is still young in the investigation domain and quite unknown in the management field, so its diffusion could be really helpful for improving organizational management. Although authentic leadership development is a life's task (Jensen & Luthans, 2006), programs that foster authentic leadership could help to enhance trust in the leaders, generate positive emotions, and diminish negative emotions on employees. Besides, authentic leadership has a cascading and contagion effect (Jensen & Luthans, 2006) because authentic leaders lead by example and care about developing authentic followers that will eventually become authentic leaders themselves. In this way, successfully working today with a small group of managers could have important outcomes in the future as the company can benefit from a snowball effect.

And secondly, companies should be aware that leaders' emotions can have numerous and important downstream consequences. In the literature it is considered that emotions can affect, among other factors: *job satisfaction and involvement* (Mossholder, Settoon et al., 2000; Fisher, 2002); *organizational commitment* (Fisher, 2002; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009); *attitude towards change* (Lines, 2005; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010); *organizational citizenship behaviors* (e.g. altruism, civic virtue) (Lee & Allen, 2002; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Rodell & Judge, 2009); *helping* (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2002; Tsai, Chen et al., 2007); *motivation* (Kiefer, 2002; Seo, Barrett et al., 2004); *workplace deviance behaviors* (Lee & Allen, 2002; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008); *counterproductive behaviors* (Rodell & Judge, 2009; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009); *intention to leave and withdrawal behaviors* (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2002; Kiefer, 2002; 2005); *absenteeism and turnover* (Weiss & Beal, 2005; Barsade & Gibson, 2007); and *resistance to change* (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010). Furthermore, when managers share their emotions, these can, through emotional contagion, affect other employees' emotions; which can in turn have their own consequences on employees. Besides, managers' emotions, attitudes, words and behaviors are especially relevant during organizational changes because employees use them as information for sensemaking (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991 for further information on sensegiving and

sensemaking). Therefore, as can be seen, it would be advisable to foster positive emotions on managers, so the resulting consequences remain positive for the company and the change. Once again, authentic leadership can help to obtain this goal.

Limitations and future research directions

This research makes an interesting contribution but it is not without important limitations that should be kept in mind when interpreting the results and the conclusions. In order to address these limitations and to continue investigating on the relationships between authentic leadership, trust and emotions, some future research directions are provided.

First of all, the variables used in this study are logically and theoretically ordered with respect to time, however it remains cross sectional. This raises important concerns regarding the direction of causality (Lazarus, 2003). Memory bias can inflate the results and the reported relationships be contaminated by reverse causality since the answers are a recall of past events, thoughts and feelings. Longitudinal investigations could help to address this limitation. As mentioned in a previous section, longitudinal investigations can help to capture the effects of leadership on the evolution of trust and the experience of emotions in order to understand the relationship between these variables. Also, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods might advance the study of these relationships. For example, a case study research which combines the use of questionnaires to gather the experience of all the employees in an organization (and not only HRMs as it was the case in this investigation), and some interviews to be able to understand better the context of the study, the experience of the people involved, and the results obtained could provide interesting conclusions.

Secondly, the list of positive and negative emotions included in the investigation is not exhaustive. Other emotions could be experienced during change processes. Therefore, new discrete emotions could be included in future investigations and the effects of each of them analyzed. Additionally, instead of treating emotions as a whole or in groups according to their valence, individualized examination of emotions' relationships could provide valuable information. For example, two different positive emotions may

respond differently to authentic leadership behaviors or have a different relation with trust.

Furthermore, the generalization of the results is limited due to the characteristics of the sample. This study collected the experience of Spanish HRMs during organizational changes. Therefore, differences in culture, context or organizational position can result in different conclusions. Future investigations could focus on different targets, cultures and organizational contexts in order to determine if the results are similar to the ones obtained here.

Moreover, although authentic leadership is considered a higher order construct, information about the relationship of each dimension with other variables can provide interesting information. For instance, it has already been suggested here that analyzing the effect of each authentic leadership dimension on trust could help understand better the underlying mechanisms that build trust. Unfortunately, very few investigations detail the results of first order factor models.

Finally, analyzing in a single investigation the effect of different leadership styles could be really useful in order to compare their relationship to emotions and trust building. Positive leadership styles such as charismatic, transformational and authentic are proposed to influence trust and emotions; however we still do not know if there is any one more effective than the rest to build trust, enhance positive emotions, and avoid or minimize negative emotions.

CHAPTER V

Leaders' role on employees' attitude
towards change:
the HRMs' experience

CHAPTER V. Leaders' role on employees' attitude towards change: the HRMs' experience

The aim of this research is to analyze leaders' role on employees' reaction to change. More in concrete, the goal is to study the effect of perceived authentic leadership behavior, power and trust in the leader on HRMs' attitude towards change. In order to do so, we gathered and analyzed the experience of 102 Spanish human resource managers using structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS). Findings show that authentic leadership behavior is directly and positively related to expert, referent and informational power, trust and attitude towards change. Furthermore, we found that referent and informational power partially mediate the relation between authentic leadership and trust in the leader; and that all three types of power partially mediate the relation between authentic leadership perception and attitude towards change.

Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted over time with the aim of identifying the key success factors of organizational change processes. For example, employees' acceptance of the change is considered crucial in determining the success of any organizational change (Oreg & Berson, 2009). In this sense the literatures on resistance to change and commitment to change have been especially prolific in the last years and are still very active today (e.g. Bovey & Hede, 2001a; Bovey & Hede, 2001b; Szabla, 2007; Furst & Cable, 2008; Herold, Fedor et al., 2008; Oreg & Berson, 2009; Jaros, 2010; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010; Choi, 2011; Hill, Seo et al., 2012; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012). From both of these areas of research the relevance of leadership in shaping followers' responses to change is pointed out. For instance, Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:348) state that "the manner in which leaders treat and involve employees during change has received the greatest amount of attention and has been shown to be a powerful determinant of individuals' reactions to organizational changes". However, it seems that there is a lack of integration between the organizational change literature and the more general leadership literature (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Herold, Fedor et al., 2008; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012) despite the fact that the elements of leadership that both perspectives consider fundamental sometimes overlap. For

example, most change leadership prescriptions can be linked to transformational leadership behavior, although it is considered that the latter has a higher level of abstraction, lower level of situational specificity, and they sometimes use different labels (Herold, Fedor et al., 2008).

Following this integrative perspective, we will take several attributes of the leader considered relevant in both literatures (i.e. organizational change and general leadership), and we will examine their influence on employees' reactions to a change process. More in concrete, the aim of this research is to study the effect of perceived authentic leadership (AL), power and trust in the leader on human resource managers' (HRM) attitude towards change. Direct effect of authentic leadership behavior on attitude towards change and indirect effect through expert power, referent power, informational power, and trust in the leader will be examined.

With this investigation we hope to contribute to the literatures on leadership, power, organizational change and middle management. On the one side, little empirical evidence exists on the relation between authentic leadership behavior and follower work attitudes due to the novelty of authentic leadership construct (Peus, Wesche et al., 2012), and because researchers have focused more their attention on the influence of transformational leadership when examining change contexts (e.g. Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Herold, Fedor et al., 2008; Hill, Seo et al., 2012; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012). However, the results obtained so far provide preliminary evidence that supports the initial propositions made by Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004). On the other side, literature that relates leader behavior and power is also scarce and, when done, it is usually from the perspective of the power holder. The relationship between leader behavior and perceived leader power has not been fully examined yet (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Yukl, 1989; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990) although it is considered theoretically important. Accordingly, it has not been examined either the mediating role of power between AL and followers' attitude towards change. Therefore, we attempt to fill in these gaps and provide preliminary evidence of the relationships between authentic leadership behavior, power, trust and attitude towards change.

We will look into these relationships from the human resource managers' eyes to better understand how middle managers perceive their direct bosses and how this perception affects their attitude towards change. We decided to look from the lenses of the perceiver because we consider that leadership attributes are better measured as

perceived by those being led (Gioia & Sims Jr, 1983; Atwater & Yammarino, 1996). As the perception that the leader has of his/her behavior or level of power may differ from those of followers (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990), we consider that taking into account what the follower perceives and beliefs is more important than what the leader actually does when trying to explain follower's response in relation to the leader.

Furthermore, we decided to focus on the middle management perspective because their strategic role as change intermediaries can make their negative attitudes a genuine impediment for change (Balogun, 2003; Rouleau & Balogun, 2011). Balogun (2003) suggests that middle managers engage in two types of activities during organizational change (i.e. sensemaking, and coordination and management) that give rise to four different roles (i.e. undertake personal change, keep the business going during the transition, implement the changes needed and help others through change). Among these roles, undertaking personal change is especially relevant because the interpretation that occurs as part of it serves the rest of the roles.

Additionally, we decided to focus on the direct boss because, among managers, it is the nearest one, with whom workers spend more time and, for that, who can most frequently and intensely influence them. The direct boss might not be the only one making the decisions, but he/she is usually the one in charge of translating the guidelines from the top in the daily basis, in charge of supervising and supporting employee's work, and with whom employees usually most interact. Therefore, the relationship between an employee and his/her direct boss is expected to be stronger than with any other manager in the company.

Theoretical background and conceptual model development

Leadership during change

According to John P. Kotter (1990:13) leadership produces change and "more change always demands more leadership". Higgs and Rowland (2005:126) state that "there is clear, and growing evidence that the role of leaders in the change process does impact significantly on the success of change". And Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:355) consider that "if successful organizational change requires leadership, and leadership is about facilitating change, then we need to more closely marry these concepts in our

investigations of leadership and change". These quotations clearly point out that leadership and change are inevitably related to each other.

However, this relationship has been studied mainly from two different streams of research: organizational change and general leadership. As Herold, Fedor et al. (2008) reason out, researchers from the organizational change perspective consider that there is a number of behaviors leaders should engage in when leading change, they focus on a particular change episode and there is an underlying belief that any leader can successfully handle change if certain change-related behaviors are adopted. Conversely, from the leadership literature perspective, change is seen as a situational contingency in which certain leadership styles are especially effective and there is an underlying belief that certain leaders can successfully handle any situation.

More in concrete, and taking an example from the organizational change perspective, Kotter (1995; 1996a; 1996b) proposed an eight-stage process to help leaders develop successfully organizational changes, which comprises the following stages: (1) establishing a sense of urgency, (2) creating the guiding coalition, (3) developing a vision and strategy, (4) communicating the change vision, (5) empowering employees for broad-based action, (6) generating short-term wing, (7) consolidating gains and producing more change, and (8) anchoring new approaches in the culture. These stages are in line with the three phases that Lewin (1951) proposed years before: unfreezing, moving, and refreezing. Stages 1 to 4 would correspond to unfreezing the status quo; stages 5 to 7 help to adopt new practices and move to a new reality; and stage 8 grounds the change refreezing the company in a new stability (Kotter, 1996b). Further attempts to improve and develop new models have been made (Higgs & Rowland, 2005) but they are not as known as Lewin's and Kotter's proposals. These new models try to retain the assumption of linearity, but they also recognize the need for a more open view of the evolution of changes and their complexity.

And from the leadership perspective, Bernard M. Bass developed a formal theory of transformational leadership proposing that it was particularly important when facing organizational changes (Bass, 1985a; 1985b; 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993; 1994). Transformational leadership is considered to engage four dimensions, namely: *idealized influence or charisma* (provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust), *inspirational motivation* (communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways), *intellectual stimulation* (Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving),

and *individualized consideration* (gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises).

Bringing together these two streams of research, it is outstanding the number of empirical investigations that consider transformational leadership behavior especially adequate for change contexts because “transformational leadership explicitly draws employees' attention to a desired future state (vision) and instills confidence in their ability to meet high expectations” (Seo, Taylor et al., 2012:134); and it is related to a variety of employee psychological and behavioral outcomes (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012) that can influence change success. Furthermore, in words of Herold, Fedor et al. (2008:348) “most change-leadership prescriptions -such as communicating the plan for the change, building a guiding coalition, developing a sense of urgency or a compelling rationale for the change, and providing support (Kotter, 1996)- can be linked to one or more dimensions of transformational leadership”.

In spite of this overlap and the last attempts to overcome the lack of integration between organizational change and leadership literatures (e.g. Herold, Fedor et al., 2008; Seo, Taylor et al., 2012), more research is still needed.

One of the main critiques to transformational leadership is that it does not take into account the moral dimension of leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Bass, 2004). Bass admitted the possibility of the existence of leaders able to display transformational qualities and actions, but without the moral basis for being transformational (Avolio, 2010b). However, society demands today more ethics and researchers “highlight the importance of promoting the ethical dimension of change as a means of ensuring that leaders and their followers act in the interest of the many rather than the few. (...) Leaders must be instilled with a moral compass fitting the organization of which they are in charge” (By, Burnes et al., 2012:3).

As a response to this demand, the general leadership literature offers a new and more positive approach: authentic leadership. Luthans and Avolio (2003) integrated the work on transformational leadership and ethical leadership theories with the work on positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002a; 2002b), and life-span leadership development (Avolio, 1999), to introduce the concept of authentic leadership development (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). They thought that the theoretical work on

positive psychology, such as the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions¹⁴ (Fredrickson, 2001), could offer a more positive way for conceptualizing leadership development (Avolio, Walumbwa et al., 2009).

As stated above, due to the novelty of authentic leadership construct (Peus, Wesche et al., 2012) little empirical evidence exists yet on the relation between this leadership style and follower's reactions during organizational change. But, considering the theories on which it is grounded, its investigation may offer interesting information.

The influence of authentic leadership perception on power and trust

Authentic leadership is considered the root construct underlying all positive forms of leadership and can be defined as *"a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development"* (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008:94).

This definition reflects the four underlying dimensions of the construct of authentic leadership (i.e. balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness) that have been generally accepted after its empirical validation (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008). *Balanced processing* refers to objectively analyzing relevant data before making a decision. Such leaders also solicit views that challenge their deeply held positions. *Internalized moral perspective* refers to being guided by internal moral standards and values, which are used to self-regulate one's behavior. Such leaders try to avoid group, organizational, and societal pressures when they make their decisions. *Relational transparency* refers to presenting one's authentic self through openly sharing information and feelings as appropriate for situations. Such leaders try to avoid the display of inappropriate emotions and their behavior promotes trust. And *self-awareness* refers to the demonstrated understanding of one's strengths, weaknesses, and the way one makes sense of the world (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Avolio, Walumbwa et al., 2009).

¹⁴ The broaden-and-build theory suggests that positive emotions expand cognition and behavioral tendencies, and encourage novel, varied, and exploratory thoughts and actions (Avolio, Walumbwa et al., 2009).

Authentic leadership has been empirically related to a variety of leader, follower and organizational outcomes (for a literature review see Gardner, Cogliser et al., 2011). In concrete, and regarding its influence on follower outcomes, AL has been found to be significantly related to: *identification with the leader* (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010); *trust in the leader* directly (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Wong & Cummings, 2009; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011; Zamahani, Ghorbani et al., 2011) and indirectly through the mediation of personal identification with the leader (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010); *followers' psychological capital* directly (Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011; Woolley, Caza et al., 2011) and indirectly through the mediation of work climate (Woolley, Caza et al., 2011); *followers' empowerment* (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010); *followers' work engagement* directly (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011) and indirectly through the mediation of trust in the leader (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011), identification with the supervisor (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010) and follower empowerment (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010); *organizational citizenship behavior* directly (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010; Edú Valsania, Moriano León et al., 2012) and indirectly through the mediation of trust and psychological capital (Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), and the mediation of identification with the supervisor and follower empowerment (Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010); *work happiness* (Jensen & Luthans, 2006); *job satisfaction* (Jensen & Luthans, 2006); *satisfaction with the supervisor* (Moriano, Molero et al., 2011; Peus, Wesche et al., 2012); *perceived efficacy of the leader* (Moriano, Molero et al., 2011); *followers' extra effort* (Moriano, Molero et al., 2011; Peus, Wesche et al., 2012); *organizational commitment* directly (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Leroy, Palanski et al., 2012; Peus, Wesche et al., 2012) and indirectly through the mediation of leader behavioral integrity (Leroy, Palanski et al., 2012); and *team affective commitment* indirectly through the mediation of team virtuousness (Rego, Vitória et al., 2013).

Table 20. Followers' outcomes of authentic leadership (empirical studies)

Outcome	Direct relationship	Indirect relationship (through...)
Identification with the leader	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010) Wong, Laschinger et al. (2010)	
Trust in the leader	Capp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al. (2009) Wong & Cummings (2009) Wong, Laschinger et al. (2010) Hassan & Ahmed (2011) Walumbwa, Luthans et al. (2011) Zamahani & Ghorbani et al. (2011)	Wong, Laschinger et al. (2010) (personal identification)
Psychological capital	Walumbwa, Luthans et al. (2011) Woolley, Caza et al. (2011)	Woolley, Caza et al. (2011) (work climate)
Empowerment	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010)	
Work engagement	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010) Hassan & Ahmed (2011)	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010) (identification with the supervisor and empowerment) Wong, Laschinger et al. (2010) (trust) Hassan & Ahmed (2011) (trust)
Organizational citizenship behaviors	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010) Edú Valsania, Moriano León et al. (2012)	Walumbwa, Wang et al. (2010) (identification with the supervisor and empowerment) Walumbwa, Luthans et al. (2011) (trust and psychological capital)
Work happiness	Jensen & Luthans (2006)	
Job satisfaction	Jensen & Luthans (2006)	
Satisfaction with the supervisor	Moriano, Molero et al. (2011) Peus, Wesche et al. (2012)	
Perceived efficacy of the leader	Moriano, Molero et al. (2011)	
Extra effort	Moriano, Molero et al. (2011) Peus, Wesche et al. (2012)	
Organizational commitment	Jensen & Luthans (2006) Leroy, Palanski et al. (2012) Peus, Wesche et al. (2012)	Leroy, Palanski et al. (2012) (leader behavioral integrity)
Team affective commitment		Rego, Vitória et al. (2013) (team virtuousness)

Source: The author

In addition to leadership style, power and trust are two important attributes of leadership during organizational change processes. Change requires power and trust in the leaders. On the one side, leader effectiveness will require enough power to overcome opposition and persuade people to actively participate in the change (Yukl,

1989). And on the other side, under high levels of perceived uncertainty trust in the leader may be crucial for getting individuals work towards a common goal (Dirks, 2000). Therefore, leaders need followers to trust them in order to get their collaboration during the change.

Regarding the former, leadership behavior is considered by most researchers to be related to power, but yet independent (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Furthermore, taking the target's perspective, it has been suggested that perceived leader behavior has significant effects on subordinate perceptions of leader social power (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990).

Social power "*can be conceived as the resources one person has available so that he or she can influence another person to do what the person would not have done otherwise*" (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998:307). French and Raven's paper (1959) "The bases of social power" has undoubtedly become a classic paper on social power, and their taxonomy of bases of power the most popular one (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Yukl, 1989; Elias, 2008). In this article, the authors focused on the ways in which a superior can influence an employee in a work situation and proposed that five different types of power bases can be distinguished, namely: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power. Raven (1965) suggested a few years later that a sixth power base (i.e. informational power) should be included because he considered that informational power should be separated from expert power. Informational power can also be found in the literature under different terms (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998) such as rational persuasion (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) or persuasiveness (Yukl & Falbe, 1991).

The following table presents the definitions and examples of the 6 categories of power described by French and Raven (1959; 1965).

Table 21. French and Raven's (1959) and Raven's (1965) power taxonomy

Reward power
Definition: The target person complies in order to obtain rewards he/she believes are controlled by the agent
Example: A subordinate may complete a task that is not part of his/her job description in exchange for a monetary incentive to be provided by his/her supervisor
Coercive power
Definition: The target person complies in order to avoid punishments he/she believes are controlled by the agent
Example: A subordinate may comply with a certain request in order to avoid his/her manager's threat to terminate the contract
Legitimate power
Definition: The target person complies because he/she believes the agent has the right to make the request and the target person has the obligation to comply
Example: Subordinates may comply with a supervisor's request simply because the supervisor has a right to ask them to do their work in a certain way
Referent power
Definition: The target person complies because he/she admires or identifies with the agent and wants to gain the agent's approval
Example: An employee wishing to move up the organizational hierarchy will likely comply with requests made by managers due to his/her wanting a similar position as those managers in the future
Expert power
Definition: The target person complies because he/she believes that the agent has special knowledge about the best way to do something
Example: A subordinate may follow the advice of his/her manager because he/she is perceived as possessing a high-level expertise in the field
Informational power
Definition: The target person complies because the agent has explained why compliance is desired
Example: A subordinate may comply with a request because his /her manager persuaded him/her with a logical argument

Source: French and Raven (1959; 1965), Hinkin & Schriesheim (1989), Yukl (1989), Elias (2008) and the author

Several investigations propose that power strategies can also be categorized in hard versus soft (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998; Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008; Pierro, Kruglanski et al., 2012). The hard-soft distinction "refers to differences in the amount of freedom that the target feels in choosing whether or not to comply" (Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008:1923) with a request or demand. Hard power types are based on enforceable rules (or norms), supported by threats or promises of punishments and rewards and, therefore, are experienced as disagreeable by the target. On the contrary, soft power

types leave the target freer to decide whether or not to accept the agent's requests, thus they are expected to have positive effects on the attitudes and motivation of the target (Steensma & Visser, 2007; Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008; Pierro, Kruglanski et al., 2012).

Taking into account French and Raven's (1959; 1965) six power base taxonomy and the hard-soft distinction; coercive, reward and legitimate power would fall into the hard category, while expert, referent and informational power would be considered soft power bases. The follower can only decide whether to comply or deal with the negative consequences of disobedience when facing coercive, reward and legitimate power. These hard power bases usually come with the position hold in the company (Yukl, 1989), and the target cannot do anything to change it. However, the target is freer to decide if he/she considers the agent has expert, referent or informational power. The target can assess if the agent has any special knowledge, if he/she admires or identifies with the agent, and if the rational explanations given by the agent are good enough to persuade him/her to do what is requested. Expert and referent power are also considered personal power (Yukl, 1989) because the power stems from the individual's personal attributes. Finally, informational power is considered to share characteristics with both position and personal power (Steensma & Visser, 2007).

When interacting with followers, leaders can choose which power bases they use according to their leadership style, characteristics, or the situation (Yukl, 1989). For instance, and according to their leadership style, managers were mainly subjected to their legitimate and coercive power to persuade people to do what they were told before transactional and transformational leadership theories were developed in the late 1970s and 1980s (Yukl, 1989). When legitimate and coercive power seemed not to be enough, managers began to engage in transactions with the employees (Bass, 1990). Transactional leaders try to reach their goals exchanging rewards for effort (Bass, 1985a; 1985b), that is, using reward power. On the contrary, transformational leaders (and other kind of positive leadership styles such as charismatic and authentic leadership) try to motivate subordinates to do more than they originally intended to do by setting more challenging expectations and typically achieving higher performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). But to obtain these results legitimate, coercive and reward power are not enough or even appropriate. Hard power strategies are not longer the power bases that positive leadership styles in general, and authentic leaders in particular, use in their relations with employees. Authentic leaders are expected to build

and use mainly soft power bases. They may also have reward, coercive or legitimate power due to the kind of resources they have access to or their position in the company; but they are not expected to make use of them frequently. Authentic leaders prefer followers to freely accept their requests in order to obtain not just compliance, but also commitment. The skillful use of hard power bases can result in compliance but rarely in commitment. Commitment is more likely to be the result of the use of soft power bases, provided that the timing and the execution of the influence are well handled (Yukl, 1989).

Only soft power bases will be included in this research (i.e. expert, referent and informational power) because authentic leaders are expected to build and use more soft tactics than hard tactics due to their positive standpoint and given the scope of this investigation. Hard tactics are relatively unfriendly, controlling and coercive (Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008), characteristics that are not compatible with authentic leadership and, therefore excluded from this investigation.

As suggested above, depending on their behavior, leaders can build different power bases. For example, Gioia and Sims (1983) carried out an experiment in which they observed that specific behaviors by a manager (reward, punitive and goal-setting behaviors) influence the perceptions of his managerial power. Yukl (1989) proposed that treating followers in a fair, considerate and supportive manner can increase leader's referent power; or that leaders gain expert power demonstrating competence in solving problems that are important to the organization. Similarly, Bass and Stogdill (1990) suggested that leaders build expert and referent power over time by showing that they are confident, decisive, considerate, and protective of the interests of subordinates. Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) tested the relationship between subordinate perceptions of supervisor influence tactics and attributed bases of supervisory power. Among other relationships, they empirically demonstrated that rationality is positively and assertiveness negatively related to expert and referent power. The statistic techniques used in this study did not allow testing the causal relationship; however, they considered reasonable to think that the perceived leader behavior exerts an influence over the perceived leader power. And Atwater and Yammarino (1996) analyzed the relationship between bases of power and transactional and transformational leadership, and the portion of variance in perceptions of power that leader's behavior could account for. In line with previous researches, they actually found several relationships between leader's behavior and attributed power. Besides,

the behaviors included in the investigation accounted for significant portions of variance in four of the five attributed power bases. For instance, they found that transformational behavior was positively related and the best unique predictor of referent and expert power.

In light of these investigations and the characteristics of authentic leaders, it is proposed here that perceived authentic leadership behavior can positively influence expert, referent and informational power perception. Leaders' behaviors such as asking for others thoughts and viewpoints, making thoughtful decisions, knowing own strengths and limitations, rectifying when necessary, and sharing relevant information (Avolio, Gardner et al., 2007) can make followers perceive that the leader works hard to do his/her job as good as possible, attributing him/her the knowledge about the best way to do his/her job. Therefore, mainly relational transparency, balanced processing, and self-awareness dimensions of authentic leadership could contribute to followers' perception of their leader's expert power. Moreover, all four dimensions of authentic leadership behavior can contribute somehow to build referent power: relational transparency by being sincere, honest and sharing information; internalized moral perspective by standing on high moral values, being coherent between words and acts, and not accepting external pressures; balanced processing through the use of objectivity and making thoughtful decisions, which they take into account others opinions; and self-awareness by knowing oneself and willing to rectify when necessary. All these authentic leadership behaviors can contribute to gain followers' respect and admiration, to identify with the leaders and their values, and to become a referent (Avolio, Gardner et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio et al., 2005; Ilies, Morgeson et al., 2005; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008); in the end, building referent power. Finally, mainly through balanced processing and relational transparency, authentic leaders are expected to build informational power. Authentic leaders make thoughtful decisions in which they take into account others' points of view, openly share information, and seek for feedback usually providing followers all the information and explanations they need to comply with a request. In addition to these effects of authentic leadership behaviors on the perceived expert, referent and informational power; the so called "halo effect" can also contribute to the attribution of power. According to several authors (e.g. Gioia & Sims Jr, 1983; Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985), there can be a power halo associating the perception of one type of power with other bases of power. For example, the halo effect can make the target attribute expertise to the agent in fields that he/she may not be an expert just because he/she likes the agent (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998).

Hence, we propose:

- H1a: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the perception of expert power of the leader during organizational change.
- H1b: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the perception of referent power of the leader during organizational change.
- H1c: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the perception of informational power of the leader during organizational change.

As it happens with many other concepts, trust has been defined in a number of ways in the literature, but the proposals made by Mayer, Davis et al. (1995) and Rousseau, Sitkin et al. (1998) have been repeatedly chosen.

Mayer, Davis et al. (1995) defined trust as "willingness to be vulnerable", a proposal used for example by Gillespie (2003), Mayer & Gavin (2005), or Joseph & Winston (2005). Also based on this definition, and taking a cross-discipline view of trust, Rousseau, Sitkin et al. (1998:395) widely defined trust as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another". This definition has been adopted by many authors such as Dirks and Ferrin (2001; 2002), Gillespie (2003), Lines, Selart et al. (2005), Sørensen and Hasle (2009), Kelloway, Turner et al. (2013), and Zhu, Newman et al. (2013); and it will also be the one used in this investigation.

As stated above, along with leader's behavior and power, trust in the leader is considered a relevant aspect of leadership (Bass, 1990; Yang & Mossholder, 2010) and for the success implementation of organizational changes (Zhu, May et al., 2004; Oreg, 2006; Sørensen & Hasle, 2009) because it is considered crucial for getting individual work towards a common goal (Dirks, 2000); especially under high levels of perceived uncertainty such as during organizational changes. Dirks and Ferrin's (2001; 2002) found in their meta-analysis that leadership style can increase trust in the leader, which is in turn associated to important organizational outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, or intention to quit.

Leaders can gain or lose followers' trust with their behavior. Leaders who do not show consistency between words and actions, or who frequently lie are hardly trusted by their employees. On the contrary, authentic leaders are expected to build trust in their followers with their supporting behavior. Transparency is a main characteristic of authentic leadership and it is considered central for building trust. For this reason, it is proposed that authentic leadership relational transparency can build followers' trust in the leader (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Norman, Avolio et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010). Leaders that are self-aware, whose values are based on high moral principles and who act upon their values, have no reason for not openly sharing information and expressing their true thoughts and feelings to followers (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008), which is expected to contribute to build trust. Moreover, internalized moral perspective is also expected to generate trust in the leader. According to Leroy, Palanski et al. (2012) authentic leadership behavior and leader behavioral integrity [defined as "the perceived pattern of alignment between the leader's words and deeds or, in other words, the extent that leaders are seen as practicing what they preach" (Leroy, Palanski et al., 2012:256)] are very close concepts, although distinct. These authors argue that previous research has confirmed that both concepts influence followers' performance through the mediation of trust and empirically demonstrate that authentic leadership influences behavioral integrity. Therefore, since both concepts have been related to trust before, and since the internalized moral perspective dimension of authentic leadership is close to the definition of behavioral integrity; it would be reasonable to think that this dimension will be also related to the level of trust in the leader. In addition to these two dimensions, overall authentic leaders characteristics are proposed to help them build followers' trust in them. Authentic leaders are transparent; congruent between their beliefs, words, and actions; honest; they show concern for employees; they have high ethical standards, integrity and credibility; and are willing to give and receive feedback (Avolio, Gardner et al., 2007; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008). All these characteristics together are expected to generate trust. According to the empirical evidence, it has been found before that authentic leadership influences trust directly at an individual level (Wong & Cummings, 2009; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Zamahani, Ghorbani et al., 2011) and at a group level (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), and indirectly at an individual level through personal identification (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010).

Hence, it is proposed:

- H2: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to the level of trust in the leader during organizational change.

In addition to directly, authentic leadership behaviors are proposed here to be indirectly related to trust through the perception of soft power bases. According to Brauer and Bourhis' (2006) review on recent contributions to the body of research on social power, members of powerful groups are evaluated more positively than members of low power groups. In concrete, powerful people are attributed positive traits, perceived as competent, seen as dispositionally motivated, and are the center of attention for perceivers. This positive evaluation of powerful people can contribute to increase the level of trust in the power holder. The more positive traits are attributed to the leader and the more competent he/she is perceived, due to the perception of his/her expert, referent and informational power; the more willing will be the follower to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions and behavior of the leader. Therefore, as authentic leadership behavior is proposed to influence the perception of soft power bases, and these are proposed to influence the level of trust in the leader; we propose:

- H3a: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and the level of trust in the leader is mediated by the perception of expert power during organizational change.
- H3b: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and the level of trust in the leader is mediated by the perception of referent power during organizational change.
- H3c: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and the level of trust in the leader is mediated by the perception of informational power during organizational change.

The influence of authentic leadership perception on attitude towards change

An attitude is a "psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993:1). The evaluated object can be described such as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, or likable-dislikable (Ajzen, 2001). Taking these ideas into the

organizational change context and following Lines' (2005:10) proposal attitude towards change will be here defined as *a person's overall evaluation of the change*.

According to the most popular positions, attitudes arise spontaneously and inevitably, influenced by cognition and affect. Salient beliefs and affects relevant to the evaluated object that are readily accessible in memory influence the attitude formation (Ajzen, 2001). Therefore, attitudes towards an organizational change are formed early in the change process, when employees are firstly informed about the forthcoming change (Lines, 2005). The formation of attitudes toward the change is a key event because may be extremely difficult to alter once they are formed (Lines, 2005). Three different reasons for this are: "(1) the tendency to selectively pick up attitude-consistent information from the environment, (2) the selective recall of attitude-consistent material stored in memory, and (3) active cognitive resistance mediated by generating arguments against the validity of attitude inconsistent information" (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010:8). In these ways, attitudes bias information processing and memory in favor of attitude consistent material (Ajzen, 2001).

Therefore, it is fundamental to favor a positive attitude from the beginning given that attitudes towards an organizational change may be hard to change. Moreover, if a negative attitude arises in the first place, negativity bias would difficult the transition from a negative to a positive attitude.

Sensemaking and sensegiving processes (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991) can help understand the formation of employees' attitude towards change. When an organizational change is announced all the ones involved seek to understand the new situation. Sensemaking processes drive employees to gather information and process it cognitively in an attempt to create meaning of the change (Bartunek, Rousseau et al., 2006). Employees frequently seek for information about the change in interaction with others (Balogun, 2003; Bartunek, Balogun et al., 2011), especially individual's in the immediate work environment such as coworkers or managers. The organization can influence employees' sensemaking with sensegiving when trying to help employees satisfy their need for understanding. Change agents and managers can help employees understand the change providing them information about the reasons of the change or the expected outcomes, favoring at the same time a positive overall evaluation of the change. In this way, the company can positively influence employees' attitude towards change. The direct boss is particularly well positioned to help the subordinates make sense of the change and foster a positive attitude towards since

he/she is the manager with whom employees most interact and the one that is usually in charge of translating the guidelines of the change from the top in a daily basis (Balogun, 2003; Yang & Mossholder, 2010). As a matter of fact, the relevance of sharing information about the change is not actually new. It is well established in the organizational change literature that formal and informal communication helps change implementation processes (e.g. Vanfleet & Smith, 1993; Kotter, 1995; Worley, Hitchin et al., 1996; Abraham, Fisher et al., 1997; Clarke & Manton, 1997; Oxtoby, McGuinness et al., 2000; Ströh & Jaatinen, 2001; Szamosi & Duxbury, 2002; Venard, 2002; Victor & Franckeiss, 2002; Stewart & Kringas, 2003) by reducing the level of perceived uncertainty inherent to change processes, strengthening employees' sense of control, and avoiding or minimizing resistance (Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001; Kramer, Dougherty et al., 2004; Liu & Perrewé, 2005). Furthermore, Fox and Amichai-Hamburger (2001:86) posit that "managers are encouraged to talk about the change as openly as possible, as early as possible, and as much as they can in order to minimize or eliminate resistance". Similarly, Lines (2005) suggests that this communication should be realistic, sharing favorable and unfavorable consequences prior to the change and prior to the formation of an attitude towards it in order to be able to foster a positive attitude from the beginning.

This communicating process is expected to be especially effective when the message is delivered by a credible, likeable, and attractive source (Fox & Amichai-Hamburger, 2001), like authentic leaders. If authentic leaders support the change they can contribute to create a positive attitude towards it on their followers based mainly on internalized moral perspective, balanced processing and relational transparency dimensions. Authentic leaders exhibit their concern for sharing relevant information with their followers (i.e. demonstrating relational transparency), who are expected to consider this information true and honest since they perceive that the leader acts based on his/hers core values without yielding to external pressures (i.e. demonstrating internalized moral perspective), takes into account others perspectives, and is less susceptible to denial, distortions and exaggerations (i.e. demonstrating balanced processing). Additionally, self-awareness dimension can also contribute by reframing followers' perceptions of the change to view it as an opportunity rather than a threat (Oreg & Berson, 2009). Authentic leaders they are expected to favor a culture that accepts new ideas and reforms and that challenges the status quo because they are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, willing to rectify when necessary, and encourage their followers to do the same. In this way, authentic leaders can help the

followers to see the forthcoming change as an opportunity to improve, favoring again a positive attitude towards the change. Therefore, we propose:

H4: The perception of authentic leadership behavior is positively related to a positive attitude towards change during organizational change.

It is here proposed that authentic leadership is indirectly related to attitude towards change through the perception of soft power bases following the same argument mentioned above to suggest the mediation effect of power bases between authentic leadership behaviors and trust. We recall that according to Brauer and Bourhis' (2006) members of powerful groups are evaluated more positively than members of low power groups, what can contribute to have a positive attitude towards change. Similarly as stated before, the more positive traits are attributed to the leader and the more competent he/she is perceived, due to the perception of his/her expert, referent and informational power; the more positive attitude towards change will followers present. Therefore, as authentic leadership behavior is proposed to influence the perception of soft power bases, and these are proposed to influence followers' attitude towards change, we propose:

H5a: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and a positive attitude towards change is mediated by the perception of expert power during organizational change.

H5b: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and a positive attitude towards change is mediated by the perception of referent power during organizational change.

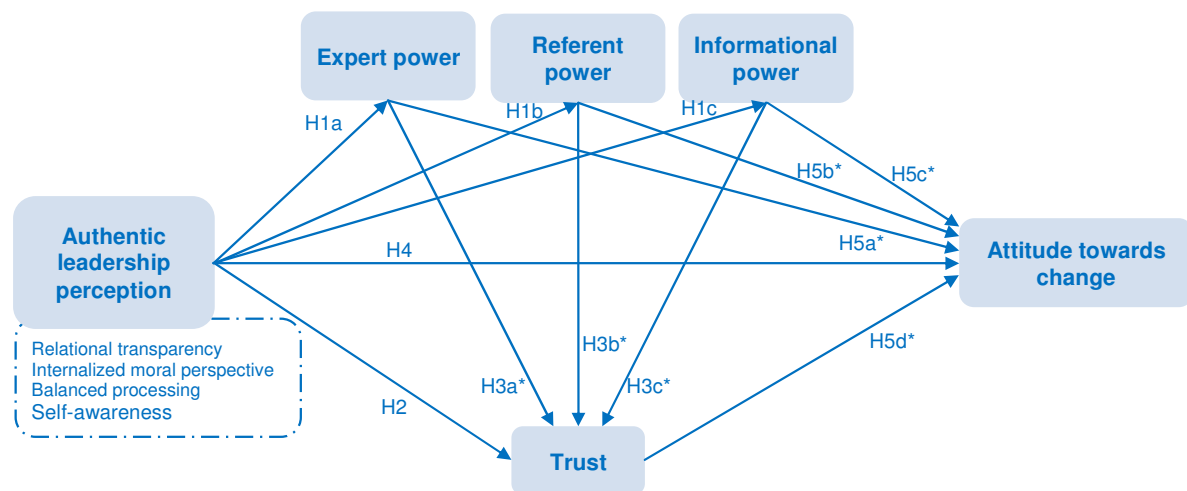
H5c: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and a positive attitude towards change is mediated by the perception of informational power during organizational change.

In addition to power, trust can also mediate the relationship between authentic leadership behavior and followers' attitude towards change. In fact, in one of their initial papers on authentic leadership, Avolio, Gardner et al. (2004) already suggested this relationship proposing that authentic leaders build trust and that trust in leadership is in turn associated to followers' positive attitudes. Furthermore, Fox and Amichai-Hamburger (2001:90) posit that "the most important element contributing to effective communication is the trust employees feel toward the leader, and, as a result, toward

the change process" focusing on the importance of communication in forming a positive attitude towards change. The effect of trust on followers' attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment or intention to quit has already been found before (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; 2002), what makes us think it can also be related to attitude towards change. Additionally, it has already been empirically confirmed that trust acts as a mediator between AL and different outcomes such as work engagement (Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011), organizational citizenship behaviors (Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011), or performance (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011). Hence, since authentic leaders are expected to build trust, which can be in turn associated to positive attitudes towards change, we propose:

H5d: The relationship between the perception of authentic leadership behavior and a positive attitude towards change is mediated by the level of trust in the leader during organizational change.

The following figure represents the conceptual model being tested.



* Hypotheses H3a, H3b, H3c, H5a, H5b, H5c and H5d refer to the following mediation effects:
 H3a: AL → Expert power → Trust
 H3b: AL → Referent power → Trust
 H3c: AL → Informational power → Trust
 H5a: AL → Expert power → Attitude towards change
 H5b: AL → Referent power → Attitude towards change
 H5c: AL → Informational power → Attitude towards change
 H5d: AL → Trust → Attitude towards change

Figure 19. Representation of the conceptual model

Source: The author

Research method

Sample framing and data collection

A multi-organizational approach for data gathering was chosen because we decided to center out attention on different HRMs' experience during organizational changes. The research focused on Spanish companies with more than fifty employees because it was considered that smaller companies would not probably have the human resource manager role.

The information gathering process went on from February to December 2012. HRMs were first contacted by telephone, and afterwards further information and access to the questionnaire was sent by e-mail. This process resulted in 146 answers (which means a response rate of 4.3%) but only 102 (70%) of them were usable. The reason for most of the rejections is that the change implementation process was not finished at the moment of fulfilling the questionnaire.

When asked for the areas that the change affected, in 45.1% of the cases respondents reported that the change affected technology, 78.4% processes, 53.9% service, 62.7% strategy, 81.4% structure, 89.2% people, and 55.9% culture. According to their role during the change process, 66.6% of the respondents agreed with the affirmation of having an active role in the decision process about the content of the change (i.e. what should be changed), in 14.7% of the cases they neither agreed nor disagreed, and in 18.63% of the cases they did not agree with the affirmation. Asked by the affirmation of having an active role in the decision process about the implementation of the change (i.e. how should the change be managed), 75.5% of the HRMs agreed with it, 8.8% neither agreed nor disagreed, and 15.7% of the HRMs disagreed with the affirmation.

Constructs and measures

Authentic leadership perception is the exogenous construct of the model. It is a second order construct as it comprises four first order constructs (i.e. balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness). The specific measures used have been obtained from the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)¹⁵ developed by Avolio, Gardner et al. (2007). This questionnaire

¹⁵ Access to the full questionnaire and permission to use it had to be asked to the authors. Additionally, the publication of only three sample items to measure authentic leadership behavior was allowed by the authors. Permission to use the ALQ can be found in Appendix 2.

captures the degree of authentic leadership behavior of a person, which in our case is HRMs' perception of their direct boss authentic leadership behavior. HRMs were asked how frequently each of the statements presented fitted their direct boss' leadership style during the change process using a 5-point Likert scale¹⁶. Examples of the measures used are: "sought feedback to improve interactions with others" for self awareness; "demonstrated beliefs that were consistent with actions" for internalized moral perspective; and "listened carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions" for measuring balanced processing.

Expert power, referent power, and informational power are the first group of endogenous constructs of the model. These power bases were measured using Raven, Schwarzwald et al.'s (1998) Interpersonal Power Inventory. This inventory includes items for the extended 11 bases power taxonomy. However, HRMs were asked to what extent they agreed with each of the statements referred only to the expert, referent and informational power they perceived their direct boss had over them during the change process using a 5-point Likert scale. Three questions per power base were made and some examples are: "my direct boss probably knew the best way to do the job" for expert power measuring; "I respected my direct boss and thought highly of him/her and did not wish to disagree" for referent power; and "my direct boss gave me good reasons for changing how I did my job" for informational power.

Trust in the leader is another endogenous construct of the model and it refers to the extent to which the HRM is willing to be vulnerable (i.e. voluntarily take risk) at the hands of his/her direct boss. Trust was measured with 6 items based on Schoorman & Ballinger's (2006) proposal, which was possibly the most promising measure of trust till that moment according to Schoorman, Mayer et al. (2007). HRMs reported to what extent they agreed with each of the statements referred to their trust in their direct boss during the change process. Some examples of the questions used for measuring trust are: "my direct boss kept my interests in mind when making decisions" and "if my direct boss would have asked why a problem occurred, I would have spoken freely even if I was partly to blame".

¹⁶ There were basically two types of questions: frequency and level of agreement. In **frequency** questions HRMs were asked to answer how frequently each of the statements presented were true using the following scale: (1) Not at all; (2) Once in a while; (3) Sometimes; (4) Fairly often; (5) Frequently, if not always. In **agreement** questions HRMs were asked to answer to what extent they agreed each of the statements presented using the following scale: (1) I totally disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I totally agree.

Attitude towards change is the last endogenous construct of the model and it refers to whether the HRM had a positive attitude towards the change the organization was going through. Attitude towards change was measured with 7 items based on Szabla's (2007) cognitive response to an organizational change process, which is based in turn on Piderit's (1999) proposal. An example of the measures used is: "this change would probably improve the way the organization works".

The constructs, codes and measures used in this research can be found in Appendix 3.

Multivariate analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS) will be used to test the hypotheses of the research. This particular analysis technique was chosen because it recognizes that scientific theory involves both empirical and abstract variables and, on the other hand, its goal is to link data to theory (Fornell, 1982). It allows to incorporate prior knowledge to the empirical analysis (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004).

In comparison to the covariance-based approach (an alternative SEM approach), PLS fits better to predictive applications and theory development (exploratory analysis) (Wold, 1979); and it avoids two important problems of the covariance-based approach: those related to non-unique or otherwise improper solutions (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982), and to the use of small data samples (Fornell, 1982). Thus, PLS can be a powerful analysis method due to its minimum requirements according the variables measurements scales, sample size and residual distributions (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003). PLS was considered more adequate than the covariance-based approach as this is an exploratory analysis and the data sample is not very large.

The sample size obtained, 102 usable answers, is large enough to perform a statistical study based on a partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling by means of PLS-Graph software (Chin & Frye, 2003). The sample required is that which would support the most complex multiple regression of the model. To identify this regression it is necessary to observe which of the following options is greater: (a) the number of indicators of the most complex formative construct or (b) the largest number of antecedent constructs leading to an endogenous construct in the structural model. Whichever is greater has to be multiplied by ten in order to obtain the minimum sample size required (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995; Chin & Newsted, 1999).

In our case only option “b” makes sense because all the constructs of the model are reflective in nature. Attitude towards change is the endogenous construct with the largest number of antecedent constructs having an influence on it: 8 in the first order model (i.e. expert power, referent power, informational power, trust, authentic leadership balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness) and 5 in the second order model (i.e. expert power, referent power, informational power, trust, and authentic leadership perception). Following the rule explained above, 80 is the minimum sample size required for the first order model and 50 for the second order model¹⁷.

PLS analysis consists of two consecutive stages although measurement and structural parameters are concomitantly estimated (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). First, the measurement model must be evaluated in order to assess its validity (i.e. it really measures what it wants to be measured) and reliability (i.e. it does it in a stable and consistent way). This will guarantee that the theoretical concepts are properly measured through the observed variables. Afterwards, the structural model evaluation can take place in order to analyze the weight and the extent of the relation between constructs, testing the research hypotheses. (For a complete explanation of the multivariate analysis review Chapter III Section 3).

Results

First order model evaluation

It is necessary to create a first order model and make all the basic verifications before running all the tests in the second order model as authentic leadership perception is a second order construct.

The first verification to do for the measurement model evaluation is the individual item reliability, which showed that 7 out of 40 items loaded under 0.707. From these, five had to be excluded because of their low loadings (i.e. ALTRANS5, TRUST5, ATTC1, ATTC2, and ATTC3) and two were kept because they loaded above 0.65, very close to the limit. Once these items were excluded, the model was run again and confirmed that

¹⁷ As it has been explained in Chapter III Section 3.3, authentic leadership is a second order construct; which makes necessary to run a first order factors model before the definitive second order structural model evaluation can be performed.

all the remaining items loadings were above 0.707 or close to this limit. Afterwards, we checked for construct reliability (composite reliability Min. ALBALAN 0.85; Max. PINFO 0.91; minimum limit 0.7), convergent validity (AVE Min. TRUST 0.57; Max. PINFO 0.78; minimum limit 0.5), and discriminant validity; confirming that everything was correct and therefore the quality of the measurement model is adequate.

A more detailed explanation of the first order measurement model evaluation can be found in Appendix 6.

According to the first order structural model evaluation, Table 22 shows the path coefficients linking exogenous and endogenous constructs, together with their degree of significance (which has been tested through bootstrapping techniques), the correlation between constructs, and the contribution of each exogenous construct to the amount of variance explained of each endogenous construct. This last rate was calculated multiplying in each case the path coefficient by the correlation.

As can be seen, the perception of authentic leadership behavior is closely related to the perception of soft power bases; 8 out of 12 of these relations are significant and positive. However, it stands out that balanced processing dimension is not statistically related to any of the power bases included in the investigation. More in concrete, internalized moral perspective and self-awareness have significant effects on expert power, contributing with 18.7% and 11.6% respectively to the amount of variance explained of this variable. Moreover, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective and self-awareness exert a significant but not very strong (path coefficients are between 0.21 and 0.33 with a confidence level between 90% and 99%) influence on referent power, explaining 43.3% of the total amount of variance of this variable (20%, 16.1%, and 12.2% respectively). Something similar happens with informational power since the same three authentic leadership dimensions influence this power base accounting for 41.2% of its total amount of variance explained (15.3% relational transparency, 16.6% internalized moral perspective, and 15% self-awareness).

Regarding the level of trust in the leader, only balanced processing, referent power and informational power seem to have a significant effect on this variable (path coefficients are between 0.23 and 0.33 at a confidence level between 99% and 99.9%), accounting for 21.2%, 15.5% and 16.8% respectively of the total amount of variance explained of trust.

Finally, none of the authentic leadership dimensions seem to exert any influence over attitude towards change, and trust does not seem to influence either. Only expert power and referent power have a significant effect on attitude towards change. However, contrary to expected, expert power has a negative influence on attitude towards change although its effect is quite low (path coefficient is -0.223 at a confidence level of 95%).

According to the predictive capacity of the model, this is adequate for all the endogenous constructs in the model because all cross validated redundancy measures (Q^2) are above zero and the total amount of variance explained (R^2) in all cases is above 10%.

Table 22. First order structural model evaluation

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	ALTRANS	ALMORAL	ALBALAN	ALAWARE	PEXPERT	PREFER	PINFO	TRUST	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)	Cross validated redundancy (Q ²)
PEXPERT	Path	0.022	0.357**	-0.059	0.238 [†]	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.437	0.523	0.365	0.489	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	0.96%	18.67%	-2.15%	11.64%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	29.11%	0.0318
PREFER	Path	0.327*	0.263*	-0.107	0.209 [†]	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.611	0.613	0.463	0.582	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	19.98%	16.12%	-4.95%	12.16%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	43.31%	0.1305
PINFO	Path	0.264**	0.275*	-0.127	0.259 [†]	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.580	0.602	0.441	0.578	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	15.31%	16.56%	-5.60%	14.97%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	41.24%	0.2076
TRUST	Path	0.051	0.119	0.331***	-0.070	0.078	0.233**	0.256**	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.661	0.650	0.639	0.638	0.514	0.664	0.658	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	3.37%	7.74%	21.15%	-4.47%	4.01%	15.47%	16.84%	N.A.	64.11%	0.3023
ATTC	Path	0.158	0.188	-0.153	0.058	-0.223*	0.278*	0.184	0.023		
	Correlation	0.429	0.439	0.271	0.382	0.182	0.464	0.440	0.380		
	Contribution to R ²	6.78%	8.25%	-4.15%	2.22%	-4.06%	12.90%	8.10%	0.87%	30.91%	0.0188

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, [†]p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

Second order measurement model evaluation

Once the first order model was validated, second order model was created and the measurement model evaluated.

For this to be done, individual item reliability was checked, verifying that all the 22 items loaded above 0.707 or close to this limit, so there was no need to drop out of the research any other item. Construct reliability showed to be very good since all the constructs rated high in composite reliability. Being the lowest acceptable value 0.7 in early stages of investigation, the lowest value obtained was 0.86 for referent power, and the highest 0.94 for authentic leadership. And convergent validity values were also good as they were above the limit of 0.5 for AVE, being the lowest value obtained 0.57 for trust and the highest 0.81 for authentic leadership. Finally, discriminant validity was checked and confirmed to be adequate.

A more detailed explanation of the second order measurement model evaluation can be found in Appendix 7.

Second order structural model evaluation

Table 23 shows the results obtained for the evaluation of the structural model in order to analyze the strength of the research hypotheses and the predictive capacity of the model.

Hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c referred to the influence of authentic leadership on expert, referent and informational power respectively. As predicted, authentic leadership perception exerts a positive and significant impact on all three soft power bases; therefore hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c are accepted. These three relationships are quite strong (all three path coefficients are above 0.5 at a 99.9% confidence level) and authentic leadership accounts for 25.9%, 40.6% and 38.2% of the total amount of variance explained of expert, referent and informational power respectively.

Moreover, referent and informational power seem to be related to trust, whereas expert power does not. Referent and informational power contribute similarly to explain the variance of trust with 14.4% and 15.2% respectively. Authentic leadership influences trust (path coefficient is 0.4 at a confidence level of 99.9%) explaining 29% of the variance of this variable and, therefore, accepting hypothesis H2.

Furthermore, the three power bases have a significant effect on attitude towards change (path coefficients are -0.21 for expert power, 0.31 for referent power and 0.22 for informational power, and confidence levels are 95%, 95% and 99.9% respectively). Contrary to expected, the influence of expert power on attitude towards change is negative, although its influence is low (it contributes to explain 3.81% of the variance explained of attitude towards change). On the other side, the contribution of referent and informational power to the variance explained of attitude towards change is positive and higher (14.4% and 9.7% respectively). And, finally, authentic leadership is positive and significantly but weakly related to attitude towards change (path coefficient is 0.22 at a confidence level of 90%), explaining 9.3% of its total amount of variance and, therefore, accepting hypothesis H4.

As can be seen, the predictive capacity of the model is doubly checked. On the one hand, all endogenous constructs' total amount of variance explained (R^2) are above the 10% quality threshold advocated by Falk and Miller (1992) and, on the other hand, cross validated redundancy measures (Q^2) are above zero.

Table 23. Second order structural model evaluation

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	AL	PEXPERT	PREFER	PINFO	TRUST	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)	Cross validated redundancy (Q ²)
PEXPERT	Path	0.509***	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.509	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	25.91%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	25.91%	0.0095
PREFER	Path	0.637***	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.637	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	40.58%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	40.58%	0.1236
PINFO	Path	0.618***	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.618	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	38.19%	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	38.19%	0.1808
TRUST	Path	0.404***	0.067	0.216*	0.230**	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.718	0.515	0.665	0.659	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	29.01%	3.45%	14.36%	15.16%	N.A.	61.98%	0.2988
ATTC	Path	0.216 [†]	-0.208*	0.310*	0.220***	-0.018		
	Correlation	0.430	0.183	0.464	0.440	0.381		
	Contribution to R ²	9.29%	-3.81%	14.38%	9.68%	-0.69%	28.86%	0.0150

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, [†]p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

Mediation test – The mediation of expert, referent and informational power between authentic leadership and trust

Two different approaches can be used for mediation test: the traditional approach and the Sobel test. Following the traditional approach two models have to be run for mediation to be tested. In the first model the mediator variable should be excluded (i.e. expert, referent and informational power), and independent (i.e. authentic leadership) and dependent variables (i.e. trust) should be linked in order to check that the relations between the exogenous variables and the endogenous variable are significant. As shown in Table 24, authentic leadership exerts a significant and positive impact on trust (path coefficient is 0.72 at a confidence level of 99.9%), accounting for 52.3% of the variance explained of trust. Therefore, the first condition of mediation to exist is fully satisfied.

Table 24. Mediation test - Influence of authentic leadership on trust

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	AL	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)
TRUST	Path	0.723***	
	Correlation	0.723	
	Contribution to R ²	52.27%	52,27%

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, †p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

And the second is a model in which all the variables are included. In fact, this is the model analyzed in the previous section (see Table 23). In this model it should be checked that the relationship between the mediator variable (i.e. expert, referent and informational power) and the endogenous variable (i.e. trust) is significant. As can be seen, the relationships between referent and informational power and trust in the complete model are statistically significant, satisfying the second condition established for mediation to exist. However, the relationship between expert power and trust in the complete model is not significant and, therefore, hypothesis H3a is not accepted. Expert power does not seem to exert a mediation effect between authentic leadership and trust. Finally, the third condition for mediation is that the path value (β) of the relation between the exogenous variable (i.e. authentic leadership) and the endogenous variable (i.e. trust) in the complete model should be lower than the one in the model without mediators (see Table 24). The association between authentic leadership and trust increases from 0.4, in the complete model, to 0.72, in the model

without the mediators. Therefore, referent and informational power mediate the relationship between authentic leadership and trust. Given that the relationship between authentic leadership and trust in the complete model is significant, referent and informational power partially mediate this relationship. Therefore, hypotheses H3b and H3c are accepted.

These mediation results have also been confirmed by means of the Sobel test. $Z_{AL-PEXP-TRUST} = 0.8503$, $Z_{AL-PREFER-TRUST} = 2.1447$, and $Z_{AL-PINFO-TRUST} = 2.2521$; which were compared with a standard normal distribution¹⁸ (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to establish statistical significance.

To finish with the mediation of expert, referent and informational power between authentic leadership and trust, Table 25 shows the total effects of authentic leadership on trust as a sum of the direct and indirect effects. As can be seen the direct and indirect effects exerted by authentic leadership on trust are quite similar.

Table 25. Total effect of authentic leadership on trust

Exogenous Construct	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
AL	0.404	0.314	0.718

Source: The author

Mediation test – The mediation of expert, referent and informational power, and trust between authentic leadership and attitude towards change

Following again the traditional approach a model linking directly the independent (i.e. authentic leadership) and the dependent variable (i.e. attitude towards change) was run. In this model (see Table 26) it was checked that the relation between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variable is significant, satisfying the first condition for mediation to exist.

¹⁸ $z(0.1) = 1.282$; $z(0.05) = 1.645$; $z(0.01) = 2.327$; $z(0.001) = 3.08$

Table 26. Mediation test - Influence of authentic leadership on attitude towards change

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	AL	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)
ATTC	Path	0.438***	
	Correlation	0.438	
	Contribution to R ²	19.18%	19.18%

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, †p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

In the complete model, which was analyzed in a previous section (see Table 23), we should check that the relation between the mediator variable (i.e. expert, referent and informational power, and trust) and the endogenous variable (i.e. attitude towards change) is significant. However, it is not so for the relationship between trust and attitude towards change. Since the second condition for mediation to exist in this case is not satisfied, hypothesis H5d cannot be accepted. Trust does not seem to mediate the relationship between authentic leadership and attitude towards change.

Finally, the third condition for mediation is that the path value (β) of the relation between the exogenous variable (i.e. authentic leadership) and the endogenous variable (i.e. attitude towards change) in the complete model should be lower than the one in the model without mediators (see Table 26). The association between authentic leadership and attitude towards change increases from 0.22, in the complete model, to 0.44, in the model without the mediators. Therefore, expert, referent and informational power mediate the relationship between authentic leadership and attitude towards change. Given that the relationship between authentic leadership and attitude towards change in the complete model is significant, expert, referent and informational power partially mediate this relationship. Therefore, hypotheses H5a, H5b and H5c are accepted.

These mediation results have also been confirmed by means of the Sobel test. $Z_{AL-PEXP-ATTC} = 1.7967$, $Z_{AL-PREF-ATTC} = 2.1436$, $Z_{AL-PINFO-ATTC} = 1.3124$, and $Z_{AL-TRUST-ATTC} = 0.1174$; which were compared with a standard normal distribution¹⁹ (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to establish statistical significance.

To finish with the mediation of expert, referent and informational power, and trust between authentic leadership and attitude towards change, Table 27 shows the total effect of authentic leadership on attitude towards change as a sum of the direct and

¹⁹ $z(0.1) = 1.282$; $z(0.05) = 1.645$; $z(0.01) = 2.327$; $z(0.001) = 3.08$

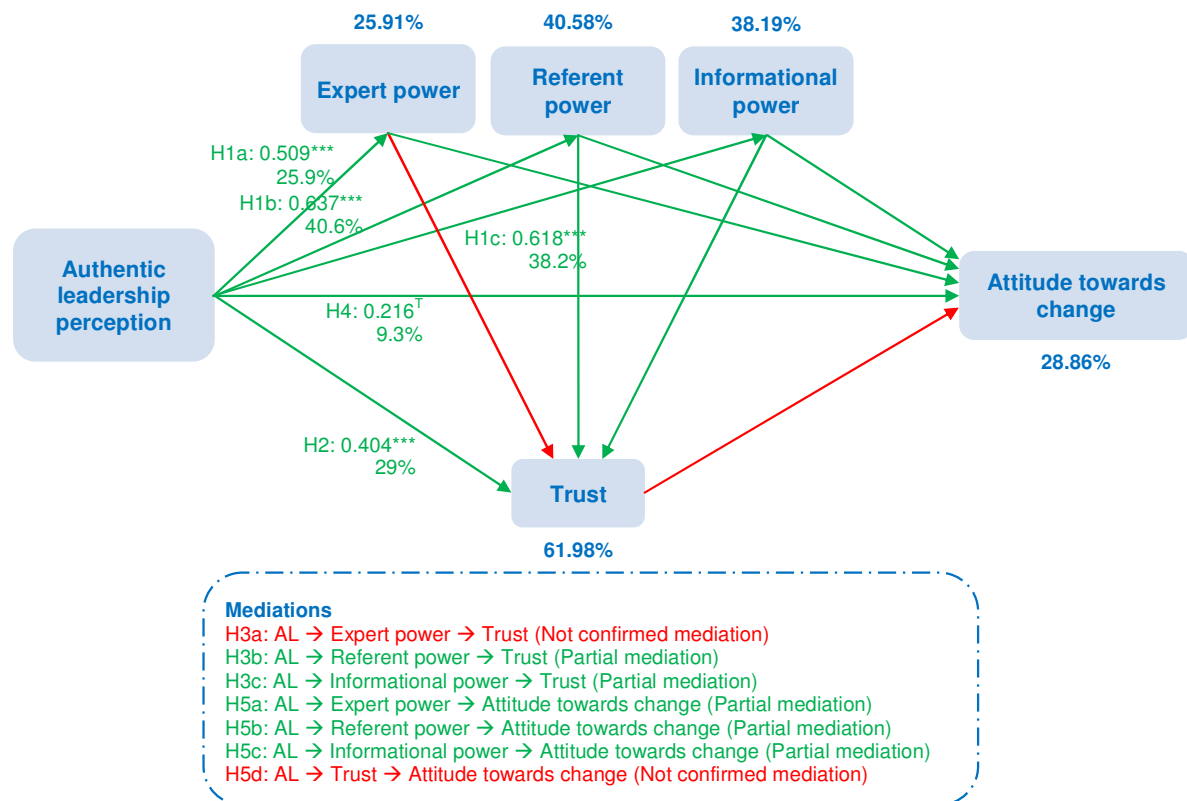
indirect effects. As can be seen the indirect effect doubles the direct effect exerted by authentic leadership on attitude towards change, highlighting the relevance of indirect effects.

Table 27. Total effect of authentic leadership on attitude towards change

Exogenous Construct	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
AL	0.216	0.452	0.668

Source: The author

As a summary of this section, the following figure visually represents the results obtained.



Note: Path coefficients (β) and contributions to the amount of variance explained of the endogenous constructs (R^2) are provided for accepted hypotheses. Additionally, the total amount of variance explained by the model of each endogenous construct is provided. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, ^T $p < 0.1$ (based on t_{499} , one-tailed test)

Figure 20. Representation of the results

Source: The author

Conclusions, discussion and managerial implications

Numerous researchers stand up for the relevance of leadership in shaping followers' responses to change. In this sense, the literatures on organizational change and leadership have notable overlaps. However there is clearly a lack of integration between these two areas of research. In an attempt to overcome this matter, the present research analyzes leaders' role on employees' reactions to change. In concrete, we proposed and found significant relationships between perceived authentic leadership behavior, power of the leader, trust in the leader and HRMs' attitude towards change that will contribute to the literatures on leadership, organizational change, power and middle management.

More specifically, we found that perceived authentic leadership behavior exerts an important influence on the perception of the three soft power bases analyzed: expert, referent and informational power. This result is in line with what previous researches proposed and/or confirmed (e.g. Gioia & Sims Jr, 1983; Yukl, 1989; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Atwater & Yammarino, 1996). For example, as Yukl (1989) and Bass and Stogdill (1990) proposed, fair, considerate, supportive, confident, decisive and protective leaders (characteristics that could all be used to describe authentic leadership) foster the perception of expert and referent power. Similar to what Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) did finding that rationality was positively linked to expert and referent power, we found that internalized moral perspective is also related to these two power bases. And the influence of AL on referent power is also in line with previous researches that relate AL to identification with the leader (e.g. Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010).

Additionally, we found that AL is more tightly linked and better explains referent and informational power than expert power. This result was not predicted, but it is not shocking either regarding that authentic leaders are more worried about being an example and providing proper explanations than about demonstrating their expertise.

Moreover, in reference to the relationship between each dimension of AL and each power base, it seems that expert power is influenced by two AL dimensions: internalized moral perspective and self-awareness, while referent and informational power are influenced by three dimensions: relational transparency, internalized moral perspective and self-awareness. And none of the power bases are affected by balanced processing dimension. It is remarkable that balanced processing is the only dimension of AL that influences the level of trust in the leader (this idea will be further explained later). It seems then that all four dimensions of authentic leadership are

useful, but that they have different outcomes. This makes us realize that each dimension included in authentic leadership serve different purposes and, therefore, contribute differently to the success of the leader. Managers should be aware that it is convenient to work in developing every aspect of authentic leadership if they want to make the most of its potential.

Moreover, the results indicate that authentic leadership influences the level of trust in the leader. However, contrary to what it was proposed in the theoretical background section, only balanced processing showed a significant impact on trust. It seems that the main contributors to the level of trust in the leader are perceived thoughtful decisions, taking into account others opinions and viewpoints, and not being susceptible to denials, distortions and exaggerations. This result is in line with Zamahani, Ghorbani et al.'s (2011) finding that balanced processing showed to have more effect on trust than the rest of AL dimensions. However, relational transparency and internalized moral perspective were also proposed to be related to trust because previous research indicated so; but the results of this investigation do not support these relationships. Transparency is a main characteristic of authentic leadership and it is considered central to building trust (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Norman, Avolio et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010). However, finding empirical support for this relationship is not easy. Most researches that relate AL to trust do not mention the influence of each separate dimension; but some exceptions, as the one of Wong and Cummings (2009), can be found. These authors conclude that relational transparency is in fact the only AL dimension significantly related to trust in the leader based on the results of their research. Regarding the influence of internalized moral perspective on trust, several researchers have mentioned their theoretical relationship (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011). However, no paper could be found that explicitly mentioned finding empirical proof for this relationship.

These contradictions between theoretical explanations and empirical demonstrations and the differences in the results of the empirical papers, point out the necessity of further investigation in order to clarify how authentic leadership really builds followers' trust in their leaders.

Additionally, authentic leadership influences trust through the mediation of referent and informational power, but not through the mediation of expert power. The results show that expert power is not related to trust and it does not mediate either the relationship

between AL and trust. Moreover, referent and informational power are significantly related to trust, and together contribute as much as authentic leadership to explain the variance of trust in the leader (14.4% referent power, 15.2% informational power, and 29% authentic leadership). These results do not entirely support the idea presented by Brauer and Bourhis (2006) that powerful people are more positively evaluated and attributed more positive traits, such as trustworthiness. Generally speaking it may be true, but the results show that when studied separately, each power base is differently related to the level of trust in the leader. However, the results obtained here make sense. Considering that a leader has the capacity to make others comply because they admire or identify with the leader (i.e. referent power) or because he/she explains why compliance is desired (i.e. informational power) is expected to build trust in the leader (due to relational transparency and personal identification arguments discussed above). But complying based on the believe that the leader has special knowledge about the best way to do things (i.e. expert power) does not need to build necessarily trust in the leader. Considering the leader an expert can provide confidence on the idea that he/she will be able to successfully accomplish certain task related to his/hers area of expertise, but it does not necessarily imply that the person is trustworthy.

Soft power bases also play an important role as mediators in the relationship between AL and a positive attitude towards change. The results indicate that authentic leadership influences attitude towards change directly and indirectly through the mediation of expert, referent and informational power. The direct relationship between authentic leadership and attitude towards change is significant but quite weak. Conversely, indirect effect of AL through soft power bases more than doubles the direct effect. These results are in line with previous investigations since authentic leadership has been related before to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and extra-effort (e.g. Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008; Peus, Wesche et al., 2012), or work engagement (e.g. Walumbwa, Wang et al., 2010; Wong, Laschinger et al., 2010). Although these findings support Avolio et al.'s (2004) predictions, they are only the beginning. Therefore, this investigation contributes to previous research providing evidence that authentic leadership influences attitudes not only related to the organization, but also followers' attitude towards change.

These results on the partial mediation of soft power bases between AL and followers' reactions bring up the idea that authentic leadership behaviors and perceived power work together in order to build followers' trust in the leader and followers' attitude

towards change. However, since this is the first attempt to empirically relate all these factors, further investigations are clearly necessary in order to develop a line of research on the role of power regarding leaders' behaviors and followers' reactions.

Finally, in this investigation we could not confirm the influence of trust on followers' attitude towards change or its mediating role between AL and attitude towards change. These findings are contrary to what it was predicted and to what previous researches indicate, and not clear explanation for these results could be found. However, being more specific and examining the role of different types of trust such as affective vs. cognitive trust or change management trust vs. supervisor trust, could help to understand the influence of trust on attitude towards change.

Overall, this investigation shows managers why is relevant to develop different leadership attributes such as their behaviors, soft power bases and trustworthiness and how these help them develop followers' positive attitudes that could, in turn, contribute to achieve important organizational goals, such as successful change implementations.

Limitations and future research directions

This investigation makes an interesting contribution, but it is not without important limitations that should be kept in mind when interpreting the results and conclusions. Some future research directions are provided in order to address these limitations and to continue investigating on the relationships between authentic leadership, power, trust and attitude towards change,

First of all, the variables used in this study are logically and theoretically ordered with respect to time, however it remains cross sectional. This raises important concerns regarding the direction of causality (Lazarus, 2003). Memory bias can inflate the results and the reported relationships be contaminated by reverse causality since the answers are a recall of past events. Longitudinal investigations could help to address this limitation by capturing, for example, the effects of leadership on the evolution of trust and power in order to understand better the relationship between these variables.

Secondly, the generalization of the results is limited due to the characteristics of the sample. This study collected the experience of Spanish HRMs during organizational changes. Therefore, differences in culture, context or organizational position can result

in different conclusions. Future investigations could focus on different targets, cultures and organizational contexts in order to determine if the results are similar to the ones obtained here.

Moreover, future research could try to confirm the results obtained in this investigation and extend this line of research, since this is just a starting point to understand some of the relationships included here. More in concrete, information about the relationship of each dimension of authentic leadership with other variables can provide interesting information. It has already been suggested here that analyzing the effect of each authentic leadership dimension on trust or power could help understand better the underlying mechanisms that build them.

Additionally, power has been found here as a relevant mediator between leaders' behavior and followers' reactions; however, further research on this topic is clearly needed. For example, the influence of power on emotions, work engagement, intention to quit or organizational citizenship behaviors could be examined. Or new categories of power could also be included, such as the 11 category broadened power taxonomy (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998), when studying the effects of power on followers' reactions.

And finally, new mediators could help explain the relationship between AL and attitude towards change regarding that AL indirect influence on attitude towards change was found to be more important than the direct one. For example, identification with the leader (which has been successfully related to AL before) could be a possible mediator between AL and attitude towards change since the results of this research reveal that referent power was the more tightly power base related to attitude towards change. And it would also be interesting to examine the mediating role of follower empowerment or psychological capital since they have proved to mediate the relationship between AL and different outcomes (e.g. work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, and performance) before.

Finally, going down the hierarchy could also be the purpose of future researches. Here it was examined how top managers' behaviors affect middle managers. However, it would be also interesting to analyze the effect of middle managers' behaviors on bottom employees' perception of power, trust and attitude towards change in order to see if the relationship between these variables change according to the level of the hierarchy being analyzed.

CHAPTER VI

The mediating role of HRMs' emotions
between perceived hard power and
intention to quit during organizational
change processes

CHAPTER VI. The mediating role of HRMs' emotions between perceived hard power and intention to quit during organizational change processes

The aim of this research is to examine the mediating role of emotions between perceived hard power bases and intention to quit during organizational change processes. In order to do so, we gathered and analyzed the experience of 102 Spanish human resource managers using structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS). Findings provide further support for the affective events theory as they confirm that the perception of power bases elicits emotional reactions and are distal cause of intention to quit. In concrete, we found that emotions fully mediate the relationship between hard power and intention to quit. Additionally, the results show that each power base influences differently emotions and intention to quit in terms of the strength and sign of the relationships.

Introduction

Changes have become increasingly common context in organizations (Kiefer, 2005) and they can sometimes be a critical event for their future. For example, an acquisition can be the key for entering new markets and the starting point of a promising expansion of a company. Or a strategic reorganization can be the turning point of a company to which an economic crisis had doomed to ruin. In difficult situations like these, leader effectiveness is crucial to achieve the collaboration of all the members of the organization towards the change. And leader effectiveness always requires the use of power to influence employees (Elias, 2008). In fact, some situations, like change processes, require more power than others (Yukl, 1989).

According to the literature, not all power sources are equally effective. For example, expert and referent power are perceived more favorably and are associated with more positive consequences than hard power bases (i.e. legitimate, coercive and reward power) (Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008). Generally speaking, referent and expert's power most likely outcome is commitment; legitimate and reward power are expected to achieve compliance; and coercive power is expected to generate resistance (Yukl, 1989). But, are hard power bases really harmful? And if it is so, how much harm can the perception of hard power bases do?

Power is considered fundamental for leader effectiveness. Even though, little can be found about the consequences of the perception of hard power sources on employees' reactions. And, to the best of our knowledge, the effect of perceived social power on employees' emotions and intention to quit has not been empirically studied before. Despite all three concepts are considered important during organizational change processes, the relationships among them have not been studied yet in a single investigation. And this is exactly what this research attempts to do.

The aim here is to examine the effect of perceived reward, coercive and legitimate power on employees' emotions and intention to quit based on the believe that a primary consequence of power is the ability to influence others' behaviors, thoughts and feelings (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002). More in concrete, we will analyze the mediating role of HRMs' emotions between the perceived hard power bases of their direct boss and their intention to quit during organizational change processes.

We decided to study the relationships among these elements for several reasons. On the one side, studying intention to quit and its antecedents is important because it is considered a predictor of actual quitting (Thoresen, Kaplan et al., 2003), which has in turn critical implications for organizational functioning in terms of costs and disruption of activities (Thoresen, Kaplan et al., 2003). And, in a situation in which the collaboration of all the ones involved can be critical, recognizing why and how intention to quit arises is fundamental in order to be able to avoid it. On the other side, there is increasing evidence of the influence of emotions on attitudes and behaviors in the work domain and in change contexts. Therefore, examining the possible mediating effect of emotions can be important to explain how perceived power may affect intention to quit. And finally, studying the possible influence of power on emotions can contribute also to the literature on the latter because more research on antecedents of emotions during organizational change is still needed in order to understand better the factors underlying successful change implementations (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010).

In order to achieve our goal, theory will be mainly grounded on the affective events theory and the approach/inhibition theory of social power. Additionally, the perspective of human resource managers (HRMs) will be taken in order to know their emotions, intention to quit and the level of reward, coercive and legitimate power they perceived their direct boss had during the change process. We decided to focus on the direct boss because he/she is the closest manager, with whom workers spend more time

and, therefore, who can most frequently and intensely influence on employees emotions, attitudes and behaviors.

Theoretical background and conceptual model development

The three main concepts of this research are hard power bases, emotions and intention to quit. In this section we will first make clear what we refer to with each of these concepts and why are they important. Then we will present the theories to explain the relationships among them (relationships that are visually represented in the figure below). And finally we will formulate the hypotheses that will be tested.

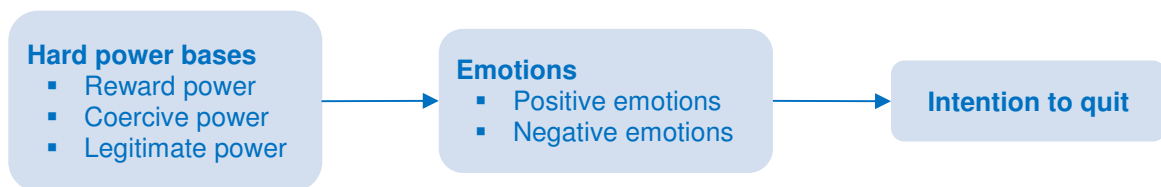


Figure 21. Theoretical model

Source: The author

Hard power bases

Social power “can be conceived as the resources one person has available so that he or she can influence another person to do what the person would not have done otherwise” (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998:307). French and Raven’s (1959) taxonomy of bases of social power has become the most popular one (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Yukl, 1989; Elias, 2008). Despite this taxonomy distinguishes five power bases (i.e. reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power), only reward, coercive and legitimate power will be examined here because they are considered the ones that more harm can do.

*Reward power*²⁰ is the ability of an agent to administer the target person rewards he/she desires and believes are controlled by the agent. For example, a subordinate may complete a task that is not part of his/her job description in exchange for a monetary incentive to be provided by his/her supervisor. Under *coercive power* the

²⁰ Definitions and examples of power types are based on Hinkin & Schriesheim (1989), Yukl (1989) and Elias’ (2008) descriptions of French and Raven’s (1959; 1965) power taxonomy.

target person complies in order to avoid punishments he/she believes are controlled by the agent. For instance, a subordinate may comply with a certain request in order to avoid his/her manager's threat to terminate the contract. And *legitimate power* is the ability of an agent to administer the target person feelings of obligation or responsibility. Therefore, the target believes the agent has the right to make the request and he/she has the obligation to comply. For example, subordinates may comply with a supervisor's request simply because the supervisor has the right to ask them to do their work in a certain way.

These three power bases are also considered hard power types because the target does not feel to have much freedom in choosing whether or not to comply with a request or demand (Pierro, Cicero et al., 2008). The follower can only decide whether to comply or deal with the negative consequences of disobedience when facing coercive, reward or legitimate power. Hard power types are based on enforceable rules (or norms), supported by threats or promises of punishments and rewards and, therefore, are experienced as disagreeable by the target. Additionally, reward, coercive and legitimate power are considered to come with the position hold in the company and, therefore, variants of position power (Yukl, 1989).

These three taxonomies of power are not mutually exclusive but represent different levels of abstraction. According to Raven, Schwarzwald et al. (1998), hard power bases and position power can be considered as conceptualizations at a higher level of abstraction because each power type may encompass lower level sources of power. In fact, Yukl and Falbe (1991) conducted an exploratory study in which they empirically tested if each power source proposed by French and Raven (1959) could be considered components of a broader category of position or personal power, and claimed to be "the first to demonstrate empirical support for the two-factor taxonomy of power bases" (Yukl & Falbe, 1991:421). In this investigation they also reached to the interesting conclusion that "the sources of power important for obtaining commitment to unusual requests appear to differ somewhat from the power sources important for obtaining compliance with routine requests" (Yukl & Falbe, 1991:422). For instance, the results supported the idea that personal power is more important than position power as a source of leader influence on subordinate performance, but they also suggested that legitimate power is a very important source of day-to-day influence in organizations.

Power bases are closely related to influence tactics. This relationship has created great confusion in the literature, driving some researchers to treat both concepts as synonymous (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990) or as one integrated concept (Lines, 2007). The work developed by Kipnis, Schmidt et al. (1980) was the first one to identify different categories of influence managers' behaviors (i.e. influence tactics), which they grouped in eight dimensions (i.e. assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward appeals, blocking, and coalitions). Based on this initial paper, several authors have worked on developing an influence tactics classification proposing new categories or connecting them to other concepts (e.g. Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). According to Yukl (1989), five of these influence tactics correspond approximately to French and Raven's (1959) bases of power: rational persuasion would correspond with expert power, exchange tactics with reward power, legitimate requests with legitimate power, pressure tactics with coercive power, and personal appeals would approximately correspond to referent power.

But, influence tactics and power bases are not the same in spite of the similarities. In an attempt to offer a clarification, Raven, Schwarzwald et al. (1998:307) state that "power sources or bases differ from influence techniques as the former refer to potential and the latter to the actual use of power". In a similar way, Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990:222) explain that "the process of exerting influence involves an agent acting so as to obtain particular compliance behaviors on the target's part. Thus, influence as a process involves the display of observable behaviors, while power involves an inference or attribution (and, therefore, is unobservable)".

We decided to work here with power bases instead of influence tactics based on the assumption that power does not need to be used to have its effect (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Brass & Burkhardt, 1993). Additionally, we consider that people respond to their own subjective perception that power exists and will be exercised (Gioia & Sims Jr, 1983; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Atwater & Yammarino, 1996). And, therefore, it will be examined here HRM's subjective perception of his/hers direct boss' hard power sources instead of trying to measure objectively the level of power of the direct boss.

Emotions

The affective research in organizational contexts begun in the early 1930s with a broad conceptualization of the potential causes and implications of affect, but it soon narrowed to the job satisfaction paradigm, considering this the primary representation

of workplace affect (Barsade, Brief et al., 2003). After years of little development, the investigation on job satisfaction suffered a crisis that opened organizational scholars to the possibility of other ways to characterize affect at work (Barsade, Brief et al., 2003). In this way, in the mid-1980s and 1990s, organizational researchers rediscovered affect, expressing interest in both moods and emotions (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Since then, research about affect in organizations has expanded dramatically and now academics and managers have begun to consider that employee affect provides a perspective missing from early views (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). After all, "affect is inherent to the human experience, and thus inherent to any situation in which humans interact with each other and their environment, including at work" (Barsade & Gibson, 2007:51). And, for this reason, it is important to understand emotions' role in organizations. For instance, Barsade and Gibson (2007) tried to do so in their article "Why does affect matter in organizations?" by reviewing what it was known at the moment about this concern. In this paper, the authors point out that the range of approaches to studying affect in organizations is quite broad. Additionally, they identify and explain three emerging trends, which are: (1) emotional intelligence, (2) emotion regulation and emotional labor, and (3) emotional contagion and collective affect. And, finally, they highlight the importance of affect in shaping organizational outcomes such as job performance, decision making, creativity, turnover, prosocial behavior, teamwork, negotiation and conflict resolution, and leadership.

As stated before, we will try to contribute to this literature by focusing on the possible mediating role of emotions between power and intention to quit. Based on previous definitions (e.g. Forgas, 1995; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Lee & Allen, 2002; Cole, Bruch et al., 2006; Smollan, 2006; Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Giæver, 2009a) and taking into account the purpose of this investigation, emotions are here considered as *relatively intense and short-living affective reactions to a specific event*.

Emotions are considered the result of the evaluation of an appraisal towards the approach or achievement of own goals. Positive emotions (e.g. happiness, pride, relief, hope) are the result of a favorable appraisal, while negative emotions (e.g. anger, disappointment, frustration, rage) are the result of an unfavorable appraisal (Bisquerra, 2009). In this research, a number of discrete emotions will be taken into account and grouped in two differentiated constructs: positive and negative emotions.

Intention to quit

Intention to quit can also be found in the literature under the terms of intention to leave, turnover intention or withdrawal intention. These expressions generally refer to one's desire or willingness to leave an organization (Thoresen, Kaplan et al., 2003). However, intention to quit refers here to one's desire to leave the actual job position, the responsibilities during the change process or even the organization. It refers to the desire of HRMs to avoid anything related to the change process; to how much thinking they put on this idea.

Intention to quit is considered an attitude (Thoresen, Kaplan et al., 2003) and it reflects cognitions that may or may not become a behavior. In fact, quitting a job is often considered a carefully made decision (Fisher, 2002) and one person may continue in his/her job position in spite of the recurrent and intense thoughts of quitting.

According to Fugate, Prussia et al. (2012) intention to quit can be the response to threat appraisal as they represent concerns over potential future losses. Threat appraisals capture individual's perception of what is at stake in a specific situation and give meaning to employees' experience of the change. These authors (Fugate, Prussia et al., 2012 based on Fugate, Kinicki et al., 2008) also propose that in an organizational change the threat appraisals can come from the expectation on the deterioration of different work elements such as job stability or security, relationships with supervisors and coworkers, desirability of one's job, personal job opportunities within the organization, pay and benefits, and general working conditions.

On the other hand, intention to quit is also considered a behavioral tendency because it can drive to actual quitting. According to the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen 1991: 181) "intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence a behavior; they are indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behavior. As a general rule, the stronger the intention to engage in a behavior, the more likely should be its performance". Based on this theory, researchers have found a positive relationship between intention to quit and voluntary turnover (e.g. Fugate, Prussia et al., 2012), which is in turn related to firm performance (e.g. Hancock, Allen et al., 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013). Three are the main theoretical perspectives that support this last relationship: cost-based perspective (turnover creates direct and indirect costs associated with managing employee exits), human capital perspective (turnover causes the loss of valuable employees' knowledge and skills), and social capital

perspective (turnover makes the organization lose the capital and resources embedded in social relationships that employees built) (Hancock, Allen et al., 2013). Therefore, intention to quit can have a significant influence on firm performance through the mediation of voluntary turnover. In fact, in organizational change situations individuals are expected to avoid or mitigate threats at work, which can manifest not only in voluntary turnover, but also in less dramatic withdrawal behaviors such as lateness or absenteeism (Fugate, Prussia et al., 2012), or in avoiding certain organizational citizenship behaviors such as helping. All these behaviors can also affect organizational performance.

The AET and the approach/inhibition theory of social power

The affective events theory (AET) proposed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) has become the dominant model for studying emotions in organizations (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010). This theory was developed with a strong influence of cognitive theories of emotion and based on what it was then known about emotions in the workplace, and it has been cited in numerous research papers since it was first published²¹ (e.g. Basch & Fisher, 2000; Fisher, 2002; Lee & Allen, 2002; Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Glasø, Vie et al., 2011).

The AET was an attempt to create a framework to help identify key issues and directions for the development of the research of emotions in the workplace; a roadmap for future investigations (Weiss & Beal, 2005). This theory focuses on the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and states that work events elicit emotional reactions that influence individual attitudes and behaviors (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). These affective events have been described as an incident, the consequence of the interaction between the worker and his labor environment that stimulates the individual assessment processes, triggering an emotional experience (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Bisquerra, 2009).

The AET proposes that work events, through affective mediation, are distal causes of individuals' attitudes and behaviors. Additionally, two categories of behaviors are distinguished: affect driven and judgment driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). For affect driven behaviors a direct affect-behavior relationship is expected.

²¹ The article was cited 637 times in Web of Knowledge databases (searched: October 22, 2013)

Furthermore, as affect levels fluctuate over time, this kind of behaviors are expected to be temporally coincident (Weiss & Beal, 2005) and, thus, of a relatively short duration and high variability. On the other hand, judgment driven behaviors are the result of well considered decisions directly influenced by overall evaluations of one's job or organization. Evaluative judgments, or attitudes, are the proximal causes of these behaviors, being affective reactions a more distal cause (Weiss & Beal, 2005).

The following figure represents the macro structure proposed by the affective events theory.

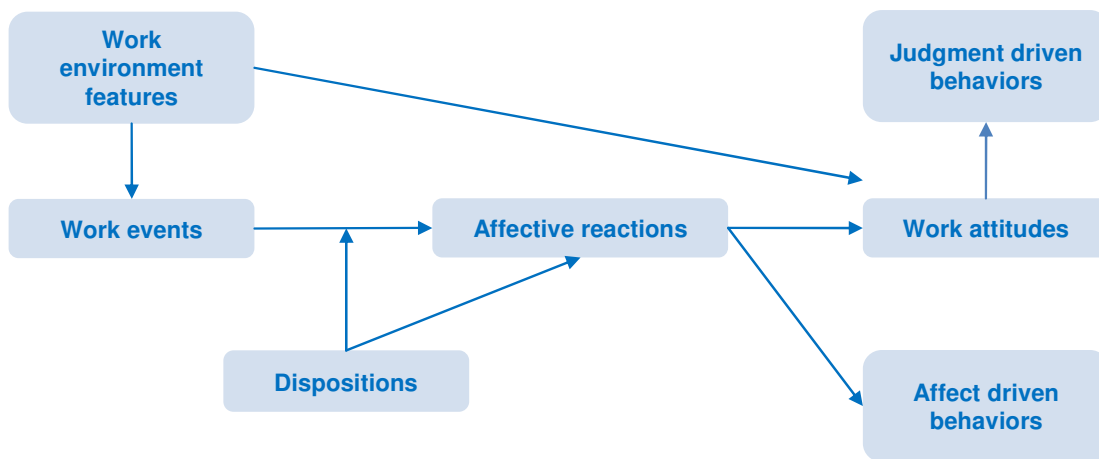


Figure 22. Affective events theory: macro structure

Source: Weiss & Cropanzano (1996)

Following the AET suggestions, some researchers have examined different antecedents and consequences of emotions in the workplace, identifying an impressive variety of them as it was proposed by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996).

Some of the work events that have been proposed as emotions' elicitors by researchers on organization and organizational changes are: *acts of colleagues, customers, management or change agents* (e.g. Basch & Fisher, 2000; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Huy, 2005; Kiefer, 2005; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Cole, Bruch et al., 2006; Giæver & Hellesø, 2010; Glasø, Vie et al., 2011); *tasks problems* (e.g. Basch & Fisher, 2000; Kiefer, 2002); *goal achievement and receiving recognition* (e.g. Fiebig & Kramer, 1998; Basch & Fisher, 2000; Brief & Weiss, 2002); *job characteristics* (e.g. task variety, autonomy, and workload) (e.g. Fisher, 2002; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010); *physical settings and working conditions* (e.g. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Ashton-James & Ashkanasy,

2005; Kiefer, 2005; Matheny & Smollan, 2005); *work stressors* (e.g. perceived ambiguity, conflicting role demands, cognitive strain, and time pressure) (e.g. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2002; Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009); *organizational or interpersonal justice* (e.g. Weiss & Beal, 2005; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009); *and characteristics of the change process* (e.g. speed, frequency, timing, leadership strategy, and shared information) (e.g. Liu & Perrewé, 2005; Bartunek, Rousseau et al., 2006; Seo, Taylor et al., 2007; Szabla, 2007; Smollan, Sayers et al., 2010).

Taking into account all of the above, it is worthy to point out the importance of leaders and change agents as generators of work events. Management decisions and behaviors can be the origin or influence most of these events. Their acts, such as supervisor support, treatment by the organization, or recognition, are mentioned in the literature as direct cause of emotions (e.g. Basch & Fisher, 2000; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Huy, 2005; Kiefer, 2005; Cole, Bruch et al., 2006; Giæver & Hellesø, 2010). But they can also indirectly affect emotions by exerting their influence on job characteristics, physical working conditions, work stressors, or organizational injustice. For example, managers can give employees more autonomy to do their job, provide them with a more comfortable space for work, reduce the perceived ambiguity by being clear with what they want or expect from employees, or make sure that there is no organizational injustice when they reach to new agreements with employees. As can be seen, managers can play a fundamental role creating or preventing events that elicit emotions at work. In fact, leaders' behaviors are considered one of the greatest emotional impact for workers (Elfenbein, 2007).

According to emotional consequences, different literature reviews (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Barsade & Gibson, 2007) point out that judgments, attitudes, decision making, creativity, negotiation and conflict resolution, leadership, problem solving, and a variety of behaviors can be affected by emotions in the workplace. However, the deep influence of Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) AET can be seen in the fact that attitudes and behaviors are clearly the most researched consequences of emotions.

The literature considers as attitudes that can be affected by emotions at work the following ones: *change initiative assessment* (e.g. Mossholder, Settoon et al., 2000); *job satisfaction* (e.g. Mossholder, Settoon et al., 2000; Fisher, 2002); *job involvement*

(e.g. Mossholder, Settoon et al., 2000); *organizational commitment* (e.g. Fisher, 2002; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009); *attitude towards change* (e.g. Lines, 2005; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010); *cynicism* (e.g. Cole, Bruch et al., 2006; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008); *trust in the organization* (e.g. Kiefer, 2005), and *intention to leave* (e.g. Fisher, 2002).

According to behaviors, these can be classified in desired and non desired behaviors. The first ones are supposed to help the organization, while the second ones are supposed to damage it.

Examples of desired behaviors are: *organizational citizenship behaviors* (e.g. altruism, civic virtue) (e.g. Lee & Allen, 2002; Weiss & Beal, 2005; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008; Lines, Sáenz et al., 2009; Rodell & Judge, 2009); *helping* (e.g. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Fisher, 2002; Tsai, Chen et al., 2007); *charge taking* (e.g. Lines, 2005); *prosocial behaviors* (e.g. Barsade & Gibson, 2007); *mobilization* (e.g. Huy, 2005); and *motivation* (e.g. Kiefer, 2002; Seo, Barrett et al., 2004).

And, the following ones can be cited as non desired behaviors: *workplace deviance* (e.g. Lee & Allen, 2002; Avey, Wernsing et al., 2008); *counterproductive behaviors* (e.g. Rodell & Judge, 2009; Yang & Diefendorff, 2009); *withdrawal behaviors* (e.g. Brief & Weiss, 2002; Kiefer, 2002; 2005); *absenteeism and turnover* (e.g. Weiss & Beal, 2005; Barsade & Gibson, 2007); and *resistance to change* (e.g. Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010).

Finally, some authors have tried to demonstrate empirically Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) classification of behaviors in affect-driven and judgment-driven behaviors. For example, Fisher (2002) did so proving that intention to leave is a judgment-driven behavior²² whereas helping is an affect-driven behavior. He confirmed the hypotheses that job satisfaction and affective commitment attitudes mediate the relationship between negative affective reactions and intention to leave, and that positive affective reactions and helping behavior are directly related. Unfortunately, Fisher's (2002) research is nearly the only exception. Despite many authors consider interesting the distinction between affect driven and judgment driven behaviors, very few of them have tried to empirically demonstrate it (Weiss & Beal, 2005). Definitely more empirical support is needed.

²² Despite Fisher (2002) considers intention to leave a behavior, in this dissertation it is considered as an attitude because it refers to a desire that may or may not become a behavior.

The following figure summarizes the antecedents and consequences of emotions at work mentioned in the literature and explained above.

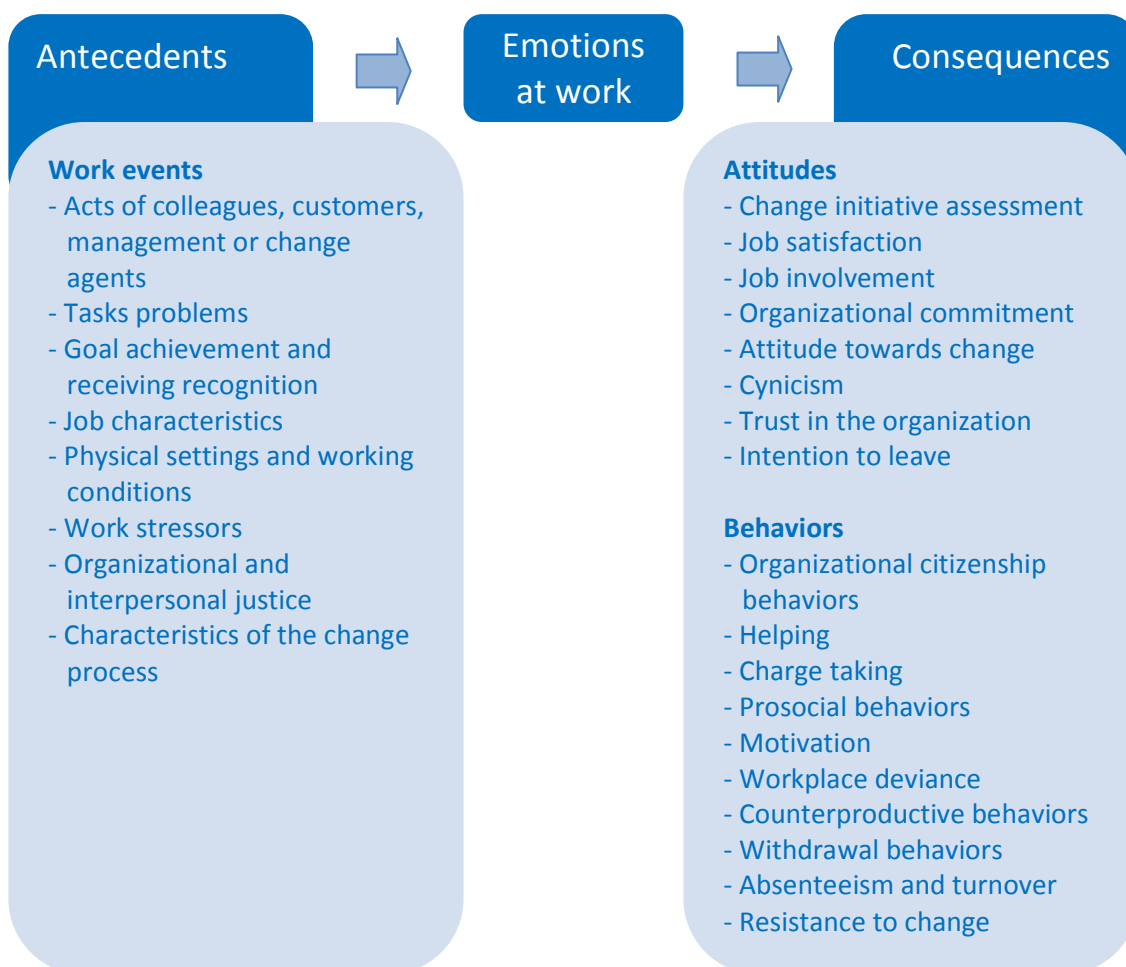


Figure 23. Emotions at work: antecedents and consequences

Source: The author

In addition to this general framework provided by the AET, the approach/inhibition theory of social power (Keltner, Gruenfeld et al., 2003) can also help to formulate the hypotheses of this research providing an explanation from the perspective of the consequences of power.

Keltner and colleagues (2003) proposed the approach/inhibition theory of social power taking a psychological viewpoint and focusing on the influence of having or lacking power over affect, cognition and behavior. In words of the authors, "people feeling powerful experience approach-related moods and emotions; are more attentive to social rewards; construe others in terms of how they satisfy their own goals and needs; and cognize their social environment in more automatic, simplistic ways. They also act

in a more disinhibited and at times counter-normative fashion. People feeling powerless are more likely to feel negative moods and emotions; to attend to punishment and threat; to make more careful, controlled judgments about others' intentions, attitudes, and actions; and to inhibit their own behaviors and act contingently on others" (Keltner, Gruenfeld et al., 2003:279). Anderson and Berdahl (2002) tested some of the hypotheses formulated in the approach/inhibition theory finding preliminary support for it.

According to Berdahl and Martorana (2006) one of the main contributions of the approach/inhibition theory of power is that it tries to explain how power influences emotions and proposes that (1) elevated power increases the experience and expression of positive affect, (2) elevated power increases the likelihood of positive emotion, (3) reduced power increases the experience and expression of negative affect, and (4) reduced power increases the likelihood of negative emotions (Keltner, Gruenfeld et al., 2003). Unfortunately, the theory's aforementioned predictions for emotions have received less attention and support than the rest of the theory's proposals, and the investigations that have indeed tried to confirm these hypotheses are correlational rather than causal (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006). Berdahl and Martorana (2006) claim to provide the first causal evidence that power influences emotional experience as predicted by the approach/inhibition theory of power. Based on an experiment in which they manipulated the level of power of each participant, they found support for the idea that having social power increases the experience and expression of positive emotions and that lacking power increases the experience and expression of negative emotions.

The approach/inhibition theory of power has been developed following an area of research interested mainly on the consequences of having or lacking power and is based on some assumptions that need to be taken into account. First, Keltner, Gruenfeld et al. (2003:265) defined power as "individual's relative capacity to modify others' states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments". From the perspective of power bases this is a quite narrow definition that only covers French and Raven's (1959) coercive and reward power categories. Our conception of power is broader although just hard power bases are analyzed here. Second, this theory treats power as a whole without considering any classification. Conversely, we distinguish here between reward, coercive and legitimate power. And third, the approach/inhibition theory of power focuses on how actor's power affects actor's

emotions, attitudes and behaviors²³. Put it simply, it focuses on how the perception of own power affects own emotions, attitudes and behaviors. However, this investigation focuses on how partner's power (i.e. HRMs' perception of the power that their direct boss has) influences actor's emotions and attitudes (i.e. HRMs' positive and negative emotions, and intention to quit).

Langner and Keltner (2008) tried to test the idea that individual's power and partner's power have different effects on the individual's emotional experience in an attempt to overcome this last assumption of the approach/inhibition theory and to contribute to theory development. They theorized that individual's own social power was associated with positive emotions whereas partner's elevated social power was associated with increased negative emotions. And focusing on the partner's power, they found that negative emotion was associated with the individual's perception of the partner's elevated power. They suggested that partner's power represents threat and constraint, which may be especially true when the partner occupies a formal high power role (Langner & Keltner, 2008).

In spite of the different viewpoints and assumptions taken, the approach/inhibition theory of social power is still considered useful and interesting, especially because it draws the attention to the emotional, attitudinal and behavioral consequences of social power.

In conclusion, we consider that perceived direct boss' hard power bases can be a work event that activates positive and negative emotions, and be a distal cause of HRM's intention to quit grounded on the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Weiss & Beal, 2005) and the approach/inhibition theory of social power (Keltner, Gruenfeld et al., 2003), and following Langer and Keltner's (2008) partner's power perspective.

Despite reward, coercive and legitimate power are considered hard power bases, we expect them to have differentiated effects on positive and negative emotions, and therefore on intention to quit.

²³ "With respect to the study of social power and emotion, an actor effect refers to the effect of the individual's power on the individual's emotion independent of the partner's power. A partner effect refers to the effect of the partner's power on the individual's emotion independent of the individual's power" (Langner & Keltner, 2008:489).

HRM's belief that his/her direct boss has coercive power is expected to affect negatively to his/her feelings, thoughts and behaviors. Thinking that punishments can be suffered if mistakes are made or if the HRM does not agree with what the boss is asking for can probably lead to negative emotions such as fear, anger or anxiety. Additionally, it can probably affect also his/her behavior such as not sharing opinions and doing everything just as asked by the boss. Coercive power existence most likely outcomes are negative emotions and inhibition tendency. "Withdrawal is one of the most basic reactions to negative emotions, as individuals tend to withdraw from situations or agents causing displeasure" (Kiefer, 2005:882). In our case, HRMs that have a feeling of coercion are expected to avoid expending time with their direct boss in an attempt to stay away from problems. Organizational changes are uncertain contexts in which modifications are made with the aim of finding a better way of doing things, which increases the risk of making mistakes. Therefore, the perception that coercive power exists during organizational changes can lead to the intention to quit anything related to the change in order to avoid, remove, or mitigate the situation in which coercion can be exerted.

Something similar happens with legitimate power. Thinking that one has to comply with his/her boss (due for instance to the elevated hierarchical position) can make HRMs experience negative emotions and inhibition tendency. For example, if they usually have different opinions but HRMs have to do always what they are told due to the lower hierarchical position, this situation can be seen as a restriction and lead to frustration or hopelessness. This can in turn drive again to avoidance and intention to quit.

However, reward power is expected to have the opposite outcomes to the ones exposed above. Reward power can lead to negative emotions such as disappointment if the expectations of rewards are not met or to anger if it is seen as bribery. But reward power can also have positive outcomes. Thinking that the boss has the ability to reward can lead HRMs to experience positive emotions such as hope that extra effort will be rewarded or gratitude for having the possibility of achieving something desired. Additionally, reward power can lead also to approach tendencies when rewards want to be attained. In this case, HRMs will not feel the necessity to distance from their boss in order to avoid situations that can have negative consequences. They will rather stay near the boss and do what is asked in an attempt to increase the possibility of being rewarded. If the HRM believes that the boss has reward power during organizational change, positive emotions can arise and be associated to the change, and approaching behaviors can be looked for. Therefore, as approach is desired, intention to quit is expected to be reduced.

Few empirical investigations that support the aforementioned effect of perceived social power on emotions and on intention to quit can be found in the literature. In fact, as stated before, no empirical research that studies the relationships among these three concepts has been found by the author. However, there are some papers worth to be mentioned as illustration of what it has been studied so far. Regarding the relationship between power and emotions, some papers based on the approach/inhibition theory can be found as the ones mentioned above (e.g. Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Berdahl & Martorana, 2006; Langner & Keltner, 2008). In addition to these, Brief and Weiss (2002) are one of the few exceptions that, taking the AET perspective, indicate that organizational rewards and punishments can be a cause of emotions at work, a relationship that they claim remains empirically under-research. And regarding the relationship between emotions and intention to quit, Thoresen, Kaplan et al. (2003) show in their meta-analytic review that positive and negative affectivity influence turnover intentions. Fisher (2002) empirically tested and confirmed that attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction mediate in the relationship between affectivity and intention to quit. Kiefer (2005) confirmed the relationship between negative emotions and withdrawal. And Glasø, Vie et al. (2011) confirmed that emotions partially mediated the relationship between bullying and intention to quit.

Taking into account the aforementioned theories, arguments and what it has been empirically studied before, we propose here:

- H1a: The relationship between the perception of reward power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of positive emotions during organizational change.
- H1b: The relationship between the perception of coercive power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of positive emotions during organizational change.
- H1c: The relationship between the perception of legitimate power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of positive emotions during organizational change.

- H2a: The relationship between the perception of reward power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of negative emotions during organizational change.

H2b: The relationship between the perception of coercive power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of negative emotions during organizational change.

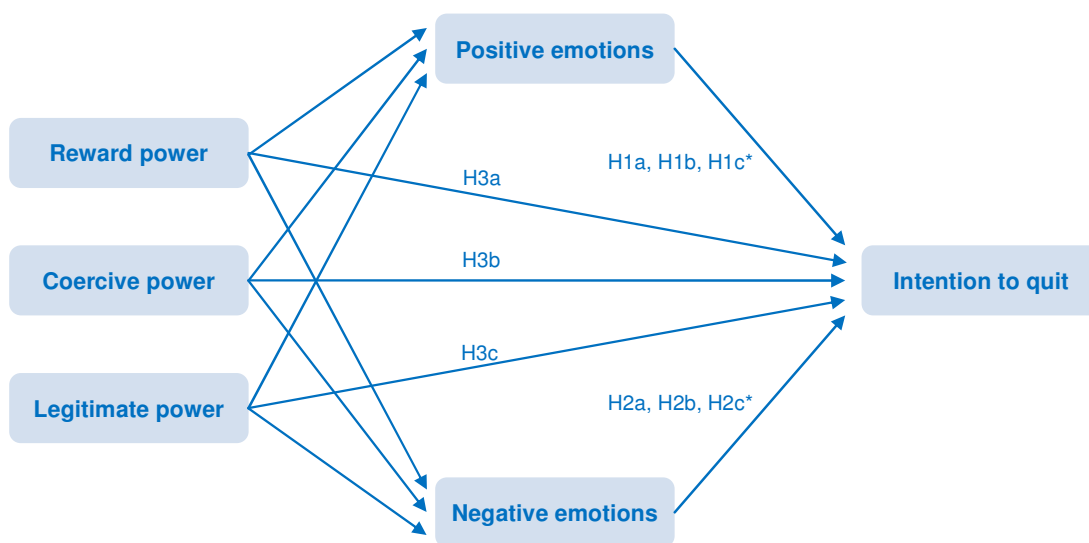
H2c: The relationship between the perception of legitimate power of the direct boss and HRMs' intention to quit is mediated by the experience of negative emotions during organizational change.

H3a: The perception of reward power of the leader is negatively related to HRMs' intention to quit during organizational change.

H3b: The perception of coercive power of the leader is positively related to HRMs' intention to quit during organizational change.

H3c: The perception of legitimate power of the leader is positively related to HRMs' intention to quit during organizational change.

These hypotheses are represented in the following figure.



* Hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c, H2a, H2b and H2c refer to the following mediation effects:

- H1a: Reward power → Positive emotions → Intention to quit
- H1b: Coercive power → Positive emotions → Intention to quit
- H1c: Legitimate power → Positive emotions → Intention to quit
- H2a: Reward power → Negative emotions → Intention to quit
- H2b: Coercive power → Negative emotions → Intention to quit
- H2c: Legitimate power → Negative emotions → Intention to quit

Figure 24. Representation of the conceptual model

Source: The author

Research method

Sample framing and data collection

A multi-organizational approach for data gathering was chosen because we decided to center out attention on different HRMs' experience during organizational changes. The research focused on Spanish companies with more than fifty employees because it was considered that smaller companies would not probably have the human resource manager role.

The information gathering process went on from February to December 2012. HRMs were first contacted by telephone, and afterwards further information and access to the questionnaire was sent by e-mail. This process resulted in 146 answers (which means a response rate of 4.3%) but only 102 (70%) of them were usable. The reason for most of the rejections is that the change implementation process was not finished at the moment of fulfilling the questionnaire, although it was notified several times and highlighted that it was essential to respond recalling a recent but already finished organizational change.

When asked for the scope of their responsibility, 39.2% of the respondents reported being the HRM of a company which did not belong to any business group, 36.3% the HRM of one or more divisions of a business group, and 23.5% reported being the HRM of a business group²⁴. Additionally to human resource management, 44.1% of those that were surveyed reported to hold at least another responsibility, duty or position in the company such as communication manager, quality manager, or operations chief. According to their role during the change process, 66.7% of the respondents agreed with the affirmation of having an active role in the decision process about the content of the change (i.e. what should be changed), and 75.5% about the implementation of the change (i.e. how should the change be managed). And when asked for how long had their direct boss actually been their direct boss, 56.9% of the HRMs reported that for less than 5 years, 25.5% between 6 and 10 years, 14.7% between 11 and 15 years, and 2% for more than 15 years²⁵.

²⁴ The 1% missing corresponds to a respondent who did not answer to the question.

²⁵ The 0.9% missing corresponds to a respondent who did not answer to the question.

Constructs and measures

Reward power, coercive power, and legitimate power are the exogenous constructs of the model. These power bases were measured using Raven, Schwarzwald et al.'s (1998) Interpersonal Power Inventory. This inventory includes items for the extended 11 bases power taxonomy. However, HRMs were asked to what extent they agreed with each of the statements referred only to the reward, coercive and legitimate power they perceived their direct boss had over them during the change process using a 5-point Likert scale²⁶. Three questions per power base were made and some examples are: "my direct boss could help me receive special benefits" for reward power measuring; "my direct boss could make things unpleasant for me" for coercive power; and "I had to do what my direct boss said because, after all, he/she was my direct boss" for legitimate power.

Positive and negative emotions are the first group of endogenous constructs of the investigation. Fiebig and Kramer's (1998) research presented a list of positive and negative emotions that respondents reported feeling as a reaction to organizational incidents. Based primarily on this research, positive emotions construct was measured with 7 items (i.e. relief, gratitude, hope, happiness, energized, confirmed, and pride) whereas negative emotions construct was measured with 10 items (i.e. rage, frustration, anger, hopelessness, shame, disappointment, disgust, contempt, anxiety, and surprise). HRMs were asked to judge how frequently each of the emotions fitted with what they felt during the change process.

And intention to quit is the last endogenous construct of the investigation. The indicators to measure this construct were created *ad hoc* for this research. HRMs were asked to report to what extent they agreed with statements referred to their intention to quit the company or their job in it. One example of the indicators used to measure intention to quit is: "I often thought of quitting my duties in the change process".

The nature of all the constructs in the model is reflective. In a construct with reflective indicators these reflect the construct, which is the origin or cause of the indicators. In

²⁶ There were basically two types of questions: frequency and level of agreement. In **frequency** questions HRMs were asked to answer how frequently each of the statements presented were true using the following scale: (1) Not at all; (2) Once in a while; (3) Sometimes; (4) Fairly often; (5) Frequently, if not always. In **agreement** questions HRMs were asked to answer to what extent they agreed each of the statements presented using the following scale: (1) I totally disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I totally agree.

other words, the construct precedes the indicators in a causal sense. Reflective indicators are determined by the construct and, therefore, if the level of the construct changes the indicators covary in the same level and direction (Chin & Gopal, 1995; Chin, 1998).

The constructs, codes and measures used in this research can be found in Appendix 3.

Multivariate analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) based on partial least squares (PLS) will be used to test the hypotheses of the investigation. This particular analysis technique was chosen because it recognizes that scientific theory involves both empirical and abstract variables and, on the other hand, its goal is to link data to theory (Fornell, 1982). It allows to incorporate prior knowledge to the empirical analysis (Cepeda & Roldán, 2004).

In comparison to the covariance-based approach (an alternative SEM approach), PLS fits better to predictive applications and theory development (exploratory analysis) (Wold, 1979). Additionally, it avoids two important problems of the covariance-based approach: those related to non-unique or otherwise improper solutions (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982), and to the use of small data samples (Fornell, 1982). Thus, PLS can be a powerful analysis method due to its minimum requirements according the variables measurements scales, sample size and residual distributions (Chin, Marcolin et al., 2003). PLS was considered more adequate than the covariance-based approach as this is an exploratory analysis and the data sample is not very large.

The sample size obtained, 102 usable answers, is large enough to perform a statistical study based on a partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling by means of PLS-Graph software (Chin & Frye, 2003). The sample required is that which would support the most complex multiple regression of the model. To identify this regression it is necessary to observe which of the following options is greater: (a) the number of indicators of the most complex formative construct or (b) the largest number of antecedent constructs leading to an endogenous construct in the structural model. Whichever is greater has to be multiplied by ten in order to obtain the minimum sample size required (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995; Chin & Newsted, 1999).

In our case only option "b" makes sense because all the constructs of the model are reflective in nature. Intention to quit is the endogenous construct with the largest

number of antecedent constructs having an influence on it: five (i.e. reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, positive emotions, and negative emotions). Following the rule explained above, 50 is the minimum sample size required.

PLS analysis consists of two consecutive stages although measurement and structural parameters are concomitantly estimated (Barclay, Higgins et al., 1995). First, the measurement model must be evaluated in order to assess its validity (i.e. it really measures what it wants to be measured) and reliability (i.e. it does it in a stable and consistent way). This will guarantee that the theoretical concepts are properly measured through the observed variables. Afterwards, the structural model evaluation can take place in order to analyze the weight and the extent of the relation between constructs, testing the research hypotheses. (For a complete explanation of the multivariate analysis review chapter III section 3).

Results

Measurement model evaluation

The first verification to do for the measurement model evaluation is the individual item reliability, which showed that 8 out of 33 items loaded under 0.707. From these, five had to be excluded because of their low loadings (i.e. PLEGIT with 0.42, POSEMO1 with 0.58, NEGEMO1 with 0.52, NEGEMO9 with 0.55, and NEGEMO10 with 0.21) and three were kept because they loaded above 0.60, very close to the limit. Once these items were excluded, the model was run again and confirmed that all the remaining items loadings were above 0.707 or close to this limit.

Afterwards, we checked for construct reliability which showed to be very good since all the constructs rated high in composite reliability. Being the lowest acceptable value 0.7 in early stages of investigation, the lowest value obtained was 0.89 for intention to quit, and the highest 0.95 for legitimate power. And convergent validity values were also good as they were above the limit of 0.5 for AVE, being the lowest value obtained 0.57 for negative emotions and the highest 0.90 for legitimate power. Finally, discriminant validity was also confirmed.

A more detailed explanation of the measurement model evaluation can be found in Appendix 8.

Structural model evaluation

Table 28 shows the results obtained for the evaluation of the structural model in order to analyze the strength of the research hypotheses and the predictive capacity of the model.

Table 28. Structural model evaluation - Influence of reward power, coercive power and legitimate power on positive emotions, negative emotions, and intention to quit; and positive and negative emotions on intention to quit

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	PREWARD	PCOERC	PLEGIT	POSEMO	NEGEMO	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)	Cross validated redundancy (Q ²)
POSEMO	Path	0.432***	-0.278**	-0.249**	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	0.264	-0.170	-0.237	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	11.40%	4.73%	5.90%	N.A.	N.A.	22.03%	-0.0580
NEGEMO	Path	-0.226*	0.350***	0.172 [†]	N.A.	N.A.		
	Correlation	-0.044	0.306	0.225	N.A.	N.A.		
	Contribution to R ²	0.99%	10.71%	3.87%	N.A.	N.A.	15.57%	-0.1534
ITQUIT	Path	-0.038	0.088	0.003	-0.272**	0.388***		
	Correlation	-0.090	0.238	0.172	-0.522	0.575		
	Contribution to R ²	0.34%	2.09%	0.05%	14.20%	22.31%	38.99%	0.0904

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, [†]p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

As expected, the three soft power bases have statistically significant relation with positive emotions. Reward power is positively related, while coercive and legitimate power are negatively related to positive emotions. However these relationships are not very strong. All three relationships are confirmed above a 99% confidence level, and path coefficients and contributions to the total amount of variance explained of positive emotions are: 0.43 and 11.4% for reward power; -0.28 and 4.7% for coercive power; and -0.25 and 5.9% for legitimate power. As can be seen reward power is the antecedent variable in the model that better explains positive emotions.

Hard power bases also exert a significant impact on negative emotions. Reward power is significantly and negatively related to negative emotions, while coercive and legitimate power are significantly and positively related to negative emotions. However, these relationships are not very strong either (path coefficients are -0.23, 0.35 and 0.17; and confidence levels are 95%, 99.9% and 90%, respectively). In this case, coercive power is the antecedent variable in the model that better explains negative emotions accounting for 10.7% of the total amount of variance explained of negative emotions.

Furthermore, positive emotions construct is significantly and negatively related to intention to quit (path coefficient -0.27 at a confidence level of 99%), and negative emotions construct is significantly and positively related to intention to quit (path coefficient 0.39 at a confidence level of 99.9%). The model explains nearly 40% of the total amount of variance explained of intention to quit, being the partial contribution of positive emotions of 14.2% and the one of negative emotions of 22.3%.

Finally, none of the hard power bases included in the research has a significant direct relationship with intention to quit. Therefore, hypotheses H3a, H3b and H3c cannot be accepted.

As can be seen, the predictive capacity of the model cannot be doubly checked. All three endogenous constructs' total amount of variance explained (R^2) are above the 10% quality threshold advocated by Falk and Miller (1992), but cross validated redundancy measure (Q^2) is only above zero for intention to quit. In the other two cases (i.e. positive and negative emotions) cross validated redundancy measure is not above zero although it is very close to this limit. Since one of both tests to check the predictive capacity of the model is fulfilled, we can argue that the model has predictive capacity.

Mediation test

Two different approaches can be used for mediation test: the traditional approach and the Sobel test. Following the traditional approach two models have to be run for mediation to be tested. In the first model the mediator variable should be excluded (i.e. positive and negative emotions) and independent (i.e. reward, coercive and legitimate power) and dependent variables (i.e. intention to quit) should be linked in order to check that the relations between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variables are significant.

Table 29. Mediation test - Influence of reward, coercive and legitimate power on intention to quit

Endogenous Construct	Parameter	PREWARD	PCOERC	PLEGIT	Total amount of variance explained (R ²)
ITQUIT	Path	-0.255*	0.303**	0.137	
	Correlation	-0.117	0.247	0.176	
	Contribution to R ²	2.98%	7.48%	2.41%	12.87%

Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05, [†]p<0.1 (based on t₄₉₉, one-tailed test)

Source: The author

As shown in Table 29, only reward and coercive power exert significant impact on intention to quit. Therefore, the first condition for mediation to exist is fully satisfied only in these two cases. Neither positive nor negative emotions seem to mediate the relationship between legitimate power and intention to quit. Therefore, hypotheses H1c and H2c cannot be accepted.

And the second is a model in which all the variables are included. In fact, this is the model analyzed in the previous section (see Table 28). In this model it should be checked that the relation between the mediator variable (i.e. positive and negative emotions) and the endogenous variable (i.e. intention to quit) is significant. The relationships between positive and negative emotions, and intention to quit are statistically significant, satisfying the second condition established for mediation to exist.

And the third condition is that the path value (β) of the relation between the exogenous variable (i.e. reward and coercive power) and the endogenous variable (i.e. intention to quit) in the complete model should be lower than the one in the model without mediators (see Table 29). The association between reward power and intention to quit increases from -0.04, in the complete model, to -0.26, in the model without mediators.

And the association between coercive power and intention to quit increases from 0.09, in the complete model, to 0.30, in the model without mediators. Positive and negative emotions fully mediate the relationships between reward and coercive power, and intention to quit since the relationships between these hard power bases and intention to quit in the complete model are non-significant. Therefore, hypotheses H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b are accepted.

These mediation results have also been examined by means of the Sobel test. The results were compared with a standard normal distribution²⁷ (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to establish statistical significance. According to the Sobel test ($Z_{\text{PREWARD-POSEMO-ITQUIT}} = 2.0604$, $Z_{\text{PCOERC-POSEMO-ITQUIT}} = 1.7374$, $Z_{\text{PLEGIT-POSEMO-ITQUIT}} = 1.6599$, $Z_{\text{PREWARD-NEGEMO-ITQUIT}} = 1.5033$, $Z_{\text{PCOERC-NEGEMO-ITQUIT}} = 2.3945$, and $Z_{\text{PLEGIT-NEGEMO-ITQUIT}} = 1.2911$) positive and negative emotions fully mediate the relationship between all three hard power bases and intention to quit. So, according to the Sobel test and contrary to the results of the traditional approach, hypotheses H1c and H2c would also be accepted.

To finish with mediation, Table 30 shows the total effect of reward, coercive and legitimate power on intention to quit as a sum of the direct and indirect effects. As can be seen, the total effect of coercive power is slightly higher than the effect of reward power and substantially higher than the effect of legitimate power. And, confirming the results above, indirect effects are by large more important than direct effects.

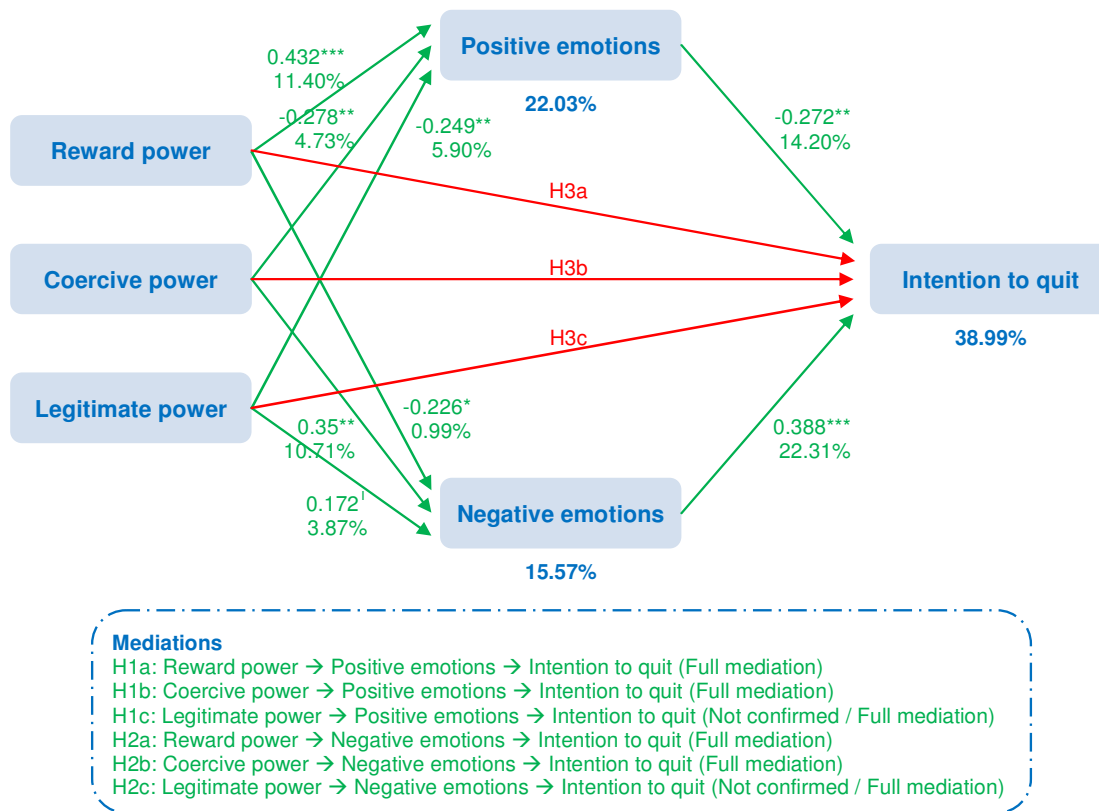
Table 30. Total effect of reward, coercive and legitimate power on intention to quit

Exogenous Construct	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
PREWARD	-0.038	-0.205	-0.243
PCOERC	0.088	0.211	0.299
PLEGIT	0.003	0.134	0.137

Source: The author

²⁷ $z(0.1) = 1.282$; $z(0.05) = 1.645$; $z(0.01) = 2.327$; $z(0.001) = 3.08$

As a summary of this section, the following figure visually represents the results obtained.



Note: Path coefficients (β) and contributions to the amount of variance explained of the endogenous constructs (R^2) are provided for significant relationships. Additionally, the total amount of variance explained by the model of each endogenous construct is provided. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, [†] $p < 0.1$ (based on t_{499} , one-tailed test)

Figure 25. Representation of the results

Source: The author

Conclusions, discussion and managerial implications

In organizational change situations effective leadership requires high levels of power to influence employees. But, it is still not clear how perceived power of the leader influences employees' emotions and intention to quit; two variables considered relevant to explain the success or failure of organizational change processes. With the aim of contributing to clarify this matter we proposed and found that emotions mediate the relationship between perceived hard power bases and intention to quit during change processes.

More specifically, we found that each perceived power base of the direct boss influences differently HRMs' emotions and intention to quit.

The results indicate that perceived reward power is positively related to HRMs' positive emotions, negatively related to negative emotions and negatively related to intention to quit through the mediation of both of them. Conversely, coercive power is negatively related to positive emotions, positively related to negative emotions and positively related to intention to quit through the mediation of both of them. And finally, legitimate power is negatively related to positive emotions and positively related to negative emotions. However, its impact on intention to quit is not clear. There is no direct effect and indirect effect through the mediation of positive and negative emotions was only confirmed by means of the Sobel test, but not by the traditional approach.

These results provide further support for the affective events theory. It seems that the perception of power bases can be considered a work event that elicits emotional reactions and are distal cause of attitudes; in this case, intention to quit. In fact, as stated above, it is here confirmed that emotions fully mediate the relationship between perceived power bases and intention to quit. These results show the relevance of emotions in the work domain not only as an antecedent of other variables, but as a link between important organizational variables.

On the other hand, the results obtained here are not completely in line with what it is proposed by the approach/inhibition theory of social power regarding the effect of power on emotions and intention to quit. This is something that we already expected and explained in the theoretical background and conceptual model development section. We recall that according to this theory, reduced power increases the likelihood of negative emotions and inhibition tendencies (Keltner, Gruenfeld et al., 2003). Adapting this idea to our research would mean that the perception of hard power bases of the direct boss would be expected to be negatively related to HRMs' positive emotions, positively related to negative emotions, and positively related to intention to quit. However, as we proposed, the model shows that reward power is positively related to positive emotions, negatively related to negative emotions, and negatively (and indirectly) related to intention to quit.

A possible explanation for the differences in the effect that the three power bases have on emotions and on intention to quit could lie on the social acceptance of each power base. According to Yukl and Tracey (1992) some influence tactics are less socially acceptable than others. In a similar way, some power bases could be more socially

acceptable than others and, therefore, affect differently to emotions and behavioral tendencies. Considering the power bases here analyzed, coercive power is probably the least socially acceptable power base and can be perceived negatively because it means that the agent has the possibility to administer punishments if compliance is not achieved. In this way, coercive power could elicit negative emotions and favor intention to quit. Conversely, reward power is probably the most socially acceptable power base and could be perceived positively because it means that the agent has the possibility to administer rewards. This could generate positive emotions and reduce intention to quit. Legitimate power would be in the middle, more socially acceptable than coercive power but less than reward power. However, it is more likely to have similar outcomes as coercive power due to the authority imposition in which is based. The results of this research offer some initial support for this idea. Coercive power is the power base most tightly (and positively) related to negative emotions, while reward power is the most tightly (and positively) related to positive emotions. However, social acceptance difference is just a possible reason that should be further researched because there might be other explanations for the differences in the effects of each power base on emotions.

Therefore, regarding the approach/inhibition theory of social power we consider that the main contribution of this theory to our research is that it proposes that power influences emotions and behavioral tendencies as Berdahl and Martorana (2006) already pointed out. Moreover, we consider that Langner and Keltner's (2008) suggestion that partner's power represents threat and constraint (especially when the partner occupies a formal higher role) does not need to be always true, as we could see in the case of reward power. Of course, further research would be needed to confirm these ideas.

Moreover, the results also indicate that perceived hard power bases do not seem to be the most relevant cause of emotions at work although they significantly related to positive and negative emotions. Together they only account for 22% and 16% of the variance explained of positive and negative emotions, respectively. These results may be due to different reasons. Firstly, the research does not show the total effect of perceived power on emotions because only half of the power bases of French and Raven's (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965) classification are considered in this study. Including the missing power bases could help to assess the real relevance of perceived power as an antecedent of emotions. Secondly, only one of the different approaches that can be used to study the effect of power was taken here. In addition to

employee's perception of the leader's power, it would be also interesting to include employee's expectation of the power that the leader will exert, and the actual power used by the leader (i.e. influence tactics used) in order to provide a more complete picture of the consequences of power. We consider this would be advisable because, for example, an employee may believe that his/hers boss has coercive power but he/she may also be sure that the boss will never use this kind of power. In this case, perceived coercive power would not be expected to generate strong emotions. Additionally, the actual use of coercive power would probably elicit negative emotions such as rage or frustration; emotions that could be especially strong if this kind of power is not expected. And finally, different variables proposed in the literature such as the expectation of future job characteristics might be needed as mediators to better explain how emotions arise during change processes. For instance, it could be examined if expected job characteristics, or more in concrete threat appraisals²⁸, mediate the relationship between perceived power of the leader and emotions. This proposal is based on the idea that partner's power can represent threat (Langner & Keltner, 2008), that threat appraisal is an antecedent of intention to quit and voluntary turnover (Fugate, Prussia et al., 2012), and that future expectations of the job characteristics influence employees' emotions during change processes (Lines, Sáenz et al., 2010). Further examination of these possibilities would be advisable in order to clarify how perceived power influences employees' emotions during change.

Regarding the causes of intention to quit, the global effect of hard power bases and emotions should not be ignored since the model accounts for nearly 40% of the variance explained of this variable. Both, power bases and emotions, act as antecedents of intention to quit during change processes, being the role of emotions particularly relevant. As previously mentioned, they fully mediate the relationship between perceived power and intention to quit. Additionally, the results show that the experience of positive emotions reduces HRMs' intention to quit, whereas the experience of negative emotions increases it, being negative emotions slightly more tightly linked to intention to quit than positive emotions. Therefore, if companies want to avoid employees' intention to quit they can try to foster positive and reduce negative emotions. These results are in line with what other researchers are demonstrating; emotions are a vital part of work and can help explain the outcomes of organizational changes.

²⁸ "Threat appraisals represent concerns over potential future losses" (Fugate, Prussia et al., 2012:891)

Overall, this investigation shows managers that they need to be aware of how powerful they appear to be because this perception influences employees' emotions and, in turn, their intention to quit. Additionally, they should also be aware that the consequences of each power base are different, so some types of power can be helpful while others may be counterproductive.

Limitations and future research directions

Some important limitations should be kept in mind when interpreting the results and conclusions of the present research. And in order to address these limitations and to continue investigating on the consequences of power some future research directions are provided.

First of all, the variables used in this study are logically and theoretically ordered with respect to time, however it remains cross sectional. This raises important concerns regarding the direction of causality (Lazarus, 2003). Memory bias can inflate the results (overestimating for example the frequency and intensity of experienced emotions) and the reported relationships be contaminated by reverse causality since the answers are a recall of past events. Longitudinal investigations could help to address this limitation by capturing, for example, the effects of power on emotions and intention to quit on an hourly or daily basis for a better understanding of the relationship between these variables.

Secondly, the generalization of the results is limited due to the characteristics of the sample. This study collected the experience of Spanish HRMs during organizational changes. Therefore, differences in culture, context or organizational position can result in different conclusions. Future investigations could focus on different targets, cultures and organizational contexts in order to determine if the results are similar to the ones obtained here.

Furthermore, the list of positive and negative emotions included in the investigation is not exhaustive. Other emotions could be experienced during change processes. Therefore, new discrete emotions could be included in future investigations and the effects of each of them analyzed. Additionally, instead of treating emotions as a bundle, individualized examination of emotions' relationships could provide valuable

information. For example, some discrete emotions may mediate the relationship between power and intention to quit, while others may not.

The power bases considered in this research are not exhaustive either. Only reward, coercive and legitimate power were examined. However, as mentioned in the previous section, it would be interesting to analyze the effects of the full category of power. The classic 6 category of French and Raven's (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965), or the broadened 11 category power taxonomy (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998) could be used to offer a more thorough comprehension of the consequences of each power base.

Finally, future investigations could try to find out the consequences that different perspectives of power may have. For example, the consequences of perceived power versus the expectation of power that will be exerted and versus actual influence tactics used by the boss could be examined. Additionally, the effect of different possible mediators between perceived power and emotions, such as expected future job characteristics, could be examined. These differentiations and new proposals could provide further information on how power is perceived and how it affects individual's emotions, attitudes and behaviors.

CHAPTER VII

General conclusions, discussion and
managerial implications

CHAPTER VII. General conclusions, discussion and managerial implications

At the beginning of this dissertation we stated that the general aim was to examine the role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes. To do so, we focused on Spanish HRMs' experience, considered their direct boss' leadership attributes, and divided this general objective in three more concrete ones. The first goal was to examine the effect of perceived authentic leadership behavior and followers' level of trust in the leader as antecedents of HRMs' emotions during organizational changes. The second was to study the influence of perceived authentic leadership behavior, soft power bases, and followers' level of trust in the leader on HRMs' attitude towards change. And the last goal was to analyze the mediating role of HRMs' emotions between perceived hard power bases of the leader and their intention to quit during organizational change processes. Afterwards, we developed three separate analyses in order to give a proper answer to each one of these goals. And these analyses were fully explained in chapters IV to VI.

A number of relationships between different variables have been examined in these three studies. And together, all these relationships constitute the global conceptual model of the dissertation, which is visually represented in the following figure.

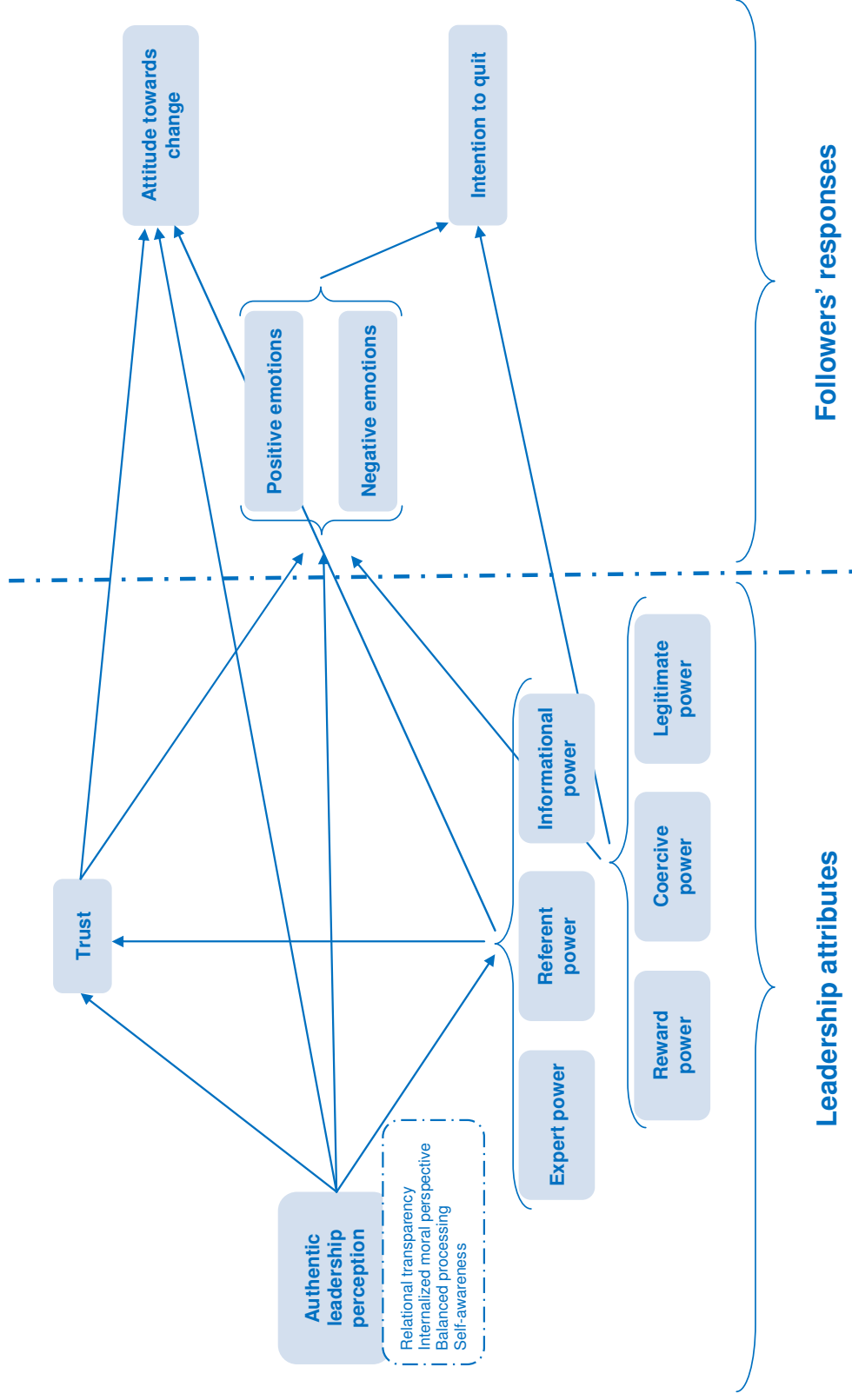


Figure 26. Representation of the global conceptual model

Source: The author

In this section, we will highlight some of the most relevant results, conclusions, managerial implications and academic contributions of each independent analysis. Additionally, we will offer some more general discussions and personal thoughts.

But before going any further, overall the analyses confirm that leadership plays a significant role in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes. More specifically, how leaders' behave, and how powerful and trustworthy they seem to be, influence HRMs' emotions and attitudes during change processes.

As a recall, the following table summarizes the results of all the hypotheses examined in the dissertation.

Table 31. Result of all the hypotheses examined in the dissertation

Study	Hypothesis	Examined relationship	Result
Paper 1 (Chapter IV)	H1a	AL→Positive emotions	✓+
	H1b	AL→Negative emotions	✗
	H2a	Trust→Positive emotions	✗
	H2b	Trust→Negative emotions	✓-
	H3	AL→Trust	✓+
	H4a	AL→Trust→Positive emotions	✗
	H4b	AL→Trust→Negative emotions	✓Full
Paper 2 (Chapter V)	H1a	AL→Expert power	✓+
	H1b	AL→Referent power	✓+
	H1c	AL→Informational power	✓+
	H2	AL→Trust	✓+
	H3a	AL→Expert power→Trust	✗
	H3b	AL→Referent power→Trust	✓Partial
	H3c	AL→Informational power→Trust	✓Partial
	H4	AL→Attitude towards change	✓+
	H5a	AL→Expert power→Attitude towards change	✓Partial
	H5b	AL→Referent power→ Attitude towards change	✓Partial
	H5c	AL→Informational power→ Attitude towards change	✓Partial
H5d	AL→Trust→Attitude towards change	✗	

Note: Construct1→Construct2: Construct1 influences on Construct2.
 Construct1→Construct2→Construct3: Construct2 mediates the relationship between Construct1 and Construct3. ✗: Not accepted relationship. ✓: Accepted relationship. +: Positive relationship. -: Negative relationship. Full: Full mediation. Partial: Partial mediation.

Table 31. Result of all the hypotheses examined in the dissertation (continue)

Study	Hypothesis	Examined relationship	Result
Paper 3 (Chapter VI)	H1a	Reward power→Positive emotions→Intention to quit	✓Full
	H1b	Coercive power→Positive emotions→Intention to quit	✓Full
	H1c	Legitimate power→Positive emotions→Intention to quit	✗✓Full ²⁹
	H2a	Reward power→Negative emotions→Intention to quit	✓Full
	H2b	Coercive power→Negative emotions→Intention to quit	✓Full
	H2c	Legitimate power→Negative emotions→Intention to quit	✗✓Full ³⁰
	H3a	Reward power→Intention to quit	✗
	H3b	Coercive power→Intention to quit	✗
	H3c	Legitimate power→Intention to quit	✗

Note: Construct1→Construct2: Construct1 influences on Construct2.

Construct1→Construct2→Construct3: Construct2 mediates the relationship between Construct1 and Construct3. ✗: Not accepted relationship. ✓: Accepted relationship. +: Positive relationship. -: Negative relationship. Full: Full mediation. Partial: Partial mediation.

Source: The author

And the following table summarizes the result of additional relationships mentioned in the dissertation but not explicitly included as hypotheses.

Table 32. Result of other relationships examined in the dissertation

Study	Examined relationship	Result
Paper 2 (Chapter V)	Expert power→Trust	✗
	Expert power→Attitude towards change	✓-
	Referent power→Trust	✓+
	Referent power→Attitude towards change	✓+
	Informational power→Trust	✓+
	Informational power→Attitude towards change	✓+
	Trust→Attitude towards change	✗
Paper 3 (Chapter VI)	Reward power→Positive emotions	✓+
	Reward power→Negative emotions	✓-
	Coercive power→Positive emotions	✓-
	Coercive power→Negative emotions	✓+
	Legitimate power→Positive emotions	✓-
	Legitimate power→Negative emotions	✓+
	Positive emotions→Intention to quit	✓-
Negative emotions→Intention to quit	✓+	

Note: Construct1→Construct2: Construct1 influences on Construct2.

Construct1→Construct2→Construct3: Construct2 mediates the relationship between Construct1 and Construct3. ✗: Not accepted relationship. ✓: Accepted relationship. +: Positive relationship. -: Negative relationship. Full: Full mediation. Partial: Partial mediation.

Source: The author

²⁹ The result on the traditional approach to mediation indicates that there is no mediation relationship, but the Sobel test approach indicates that there is full mediation.

³⁰ The same as the previous foot note.

In concrete, it was verified that the perception of authentic leadership behavior of the direct boss has multiple positive outcomes. The results sustain that AL behavior directly generates trust, influences positively on the perception of soft power bases (i.e. expert, referent and informational power), enhances positive emotions, and favors a positive attitude towards change. Additionally, AL behavior has an indirect effect on several variables: it generates trust through the mediation of referent and informational power; reduces negative emotions through the mediation of trust; and favors a positive attitude towards change through the mediation of all three soft power bases.

These results are in line with previous researches on the consequences of authentic leadership (e.g. Gardner, Cogliser et al., 2011; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011; Zamahani, Ghorbani et al., 2011; Peterson, Walumbwa et al., 2012) and show the positive contribution that this kind of behavior can make to companies that are going through an organizational change process.

As stated before in this research, we consider that it would be advisable to develop and deliver training programs to explain managers the foundations of authentic leadership, to address its importance and to help managers engage in authentic leadership behaviors given its potential benefits. We believe that teaching how to develop an authentic leadership style could help managers build healthy relationships with other employees, especially subordinates. This improvement in the relationships among employees could upgrade the day-to-day work, but it could also be determinant during rough times as change processes. In addition, authentic leaders lead by example and care about developing authentic followers that could eventually become authentic leaders themselves. In this way, authentic leadership has a cascading and contagion effect (Jensen & Luthans, 2006). Successfully working today with a small group of managers could have important outcomes in the future as the company can benefit from a snowball effect. However, managers should be aware that developing an authentic leadership style is a life's task (Jensen & Luthans, 2006), therefore no breakthrough results should be expected in the short term.

Regarding the effects of perceived power bases, we reached to the conclusion that power also influences employees' reactions during organizational change. In concrete, reward power seems to diminish and coercive and legitimate power to increase HRMs' intention to quit through the mediation of positive and negative emotions. And the perception of expert, referent and informational power favor a positive attitude towards change. These results are in line with some of the proposals of the approach/inhibition theory of social power (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006) as they confirm that power

influences emotions and behavioral tendencies. Additionally, the results obtained show that some power bases such as expert, referent, informational and reward power have positive outcomes, while coercive and legitimate power have negative outcomes. A possible explanation for these differences could lie on the social acceptance of each power base. Some power bases could be more socially acceptable than others and, for this reason, affect differently on emotions and behavioral tendencies. Expert, referent, informational and reward power bases may be considered socially acceptable and, therefore, elicit positive emotions, reduce negative emotions and favor approaching tendencies. Conversely, coercive and legitimate power bases may not be so socially acceptable and, therefore, diminish positive emotions, enhance negative emotions, and foster inhibition tendencies. And finally, the results reveal that referent and informational power can have another positive outcome as they positively influence the level of trust in the leader.

Power is a relevant variable that should not be ignored although it is not always a nice topic because it involves that someone has control over someone else. Managers should be aware of the types of power employees perceive they have and the possible consequences of these since perceived power can affect employees' reactions, and each power base can have different outcomes. Knowing the kind of power they have could help them understand better employees' reactions and act in accordance with it. Moreover, and going one step further, managers should try to develop the kind of power they consider can help them achieve their goals. For instance, referent and expert power depend on individual's personal attributes and managers can work on developing them. As mentioned above, authentic leadership can help generate referent and expert power.

Trust in the leader is another variable considered very relevant in the leadership domain and one we included in two of the analyses. In both cases it was studied its mediation effect between the perception of AL behaviors and employees' reactions (emotions in the first analysis and attitude towards change in the second). Trust proved to mediate the relationship between AL behaviors and negative emotions, but the results did not sustain any mediation effect of trust between AL and positive emotions, or between AL and attitude towards change. These mixed results make us think if there might be something else going on, something that we did not take into consideration before.

Three different elements might be interfering in the results. A first possible explanation could lie on the consideration that trust is a dynamic concept (Rousseau, Sitkin et al.,

1998). This investigation is based on a cross-sectional study, in which we only considered the level of trust in the leader at a concrete time (i.e. during an organizational change process). This did not allow us to include the fact that trust is developed along the time and it might have interfered in the results. Secondly, there could be a double direction effect that was not taken into consideration. We hypothesized that trust influences emotions, but we did not consider the possibility that emotions might also influence trust. According to the affect-as-information theory (Forgas, 1995; 2002), positive emotions could be used as information to help build trust, while negative emotions could destroy it. If this actually happened, the results might be affected by this phenomenon. And finally, trust's effect might be better understood if it is considered as a moderator rather than a mediator variable. Given a concrete time and specific situation the level of trust that a follower has in the leader could act as a filter to interpret leader's behavior and influencing in turn follower's reactions. Trust in the leader could help to interpret in a more positive way leader's behavior and even give the leader the benefit of the doubt when negative behaviors (such as injustice or unfairness) are perceived. On the contrary, mistrust could have negative consequences by interpreting leader's behavior in a more negative way due to suspiciousness or skepticism. If this is the case, there might be an interaction effect, so the higher the level of trust is, the stronger the influence of AL behavior on HRMs' reactions is expected.

However, these are only three possible explanations that should be taken just as suggestions that should be thoroughly analyzed.

To continue with, we found supporting evidence for the stream of research that claims for the importance of emotions in organizational contexts. Our analyses show that AL behavior, perceived trust and perceived power bases can be considered work events that elicit emotional reactions, which affect in turn employees' attitude. These results support some of the proposals of the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), they sustain the relevance of emotions in the work domain and the important influence of leaders on employees' emotions.

As other researchers asserted before, we believe that emotions are inherent to the human experience (also at work) and that they can influence employees' reactions. In addition, we think that there are an increasing number of people that share this idea and care about the role of emotions. For example, the term emotional intelligence has become quite known among the general population thanks to the book "Emotional Intelligence" by Daniel Goleman (1995), which became a best seller in many countries.

Some researchers consider emotional intelligence an invalid concept based on the argument that emotional intelligence is not even a form of intelligence and that it is so broadly and inclusively defined that it has no intelligible meaning (e.g. Locke, 2005). However, we consider that Daniel Goleman deserves some credit for putting emotions in the spotlight among the general population. He contributed to make people realize the relevance that emotions have in our day-to-day life in the interactions with others, and also in the interactions with others at work. This is just one example, but we consider it shows the increasing interest on the role of emotions.

In light of the results of the present investigation and the increasing interest on emotions, we consider that integrative theories can be really helpful. Theories that take into account that rationality and emotions can both influence people's reactions at work can contribute to the perception of emotions as a relevant variable. And this idea should be taken from the research to the managerial domain. It would be advisable for companies to explain their managers the important role of emotions at work and in which ways managers influence employees' emotions. This could help them understand employees' reactions and work on enhancing positive emotions, while preventing negative ones.

As mentioned above, the conclusions presented in this dissertation are in line with previous researches and provide further support for most of the theories in which the hypotheses are grounded. For example, the results here obtained are in line with previous researched consequences of authentic leadership, offer partial support for the approach/inhibition theory of social power, and highlight the relevance of emotions in organizational contexts.

But this dissertation also contributes to the academic research through the analysis of particular sets of topics that had not been addressed together in a single study before, by focusing on certain targets quite unusual in the literature, or studying already examined relationships differently along some dimensions. For example, authentic leadership is a quite new leadership style and its influence on the perception of social power had not been studied before. Additionally, the examination of its relationship with trust in an organizational change context is also new. Furthermore, in this dissertation we took a fresh perspective for the study of power and analyzed its relationship with other variables taking the point of view of the one affected by it instead of the one of the power holder. Moreover, we contributed to the literature of social power through the examination of the influence of power on emotions in an organizational context, which is something never done before. And finally, another example of contribution is that the

sample used in this dissertation is not usual, since we collected the answers from Spanish human resource managers that went through an organizational change process.

To end with, it is the desire of the PhD student to share some personal thoughts that are the result of all the readings and reflections during the development of this dissertation.

As advanced, the results sustain the general conclusion that leadership plays a significant role in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes. Despite knowing that the generalization of the results here obtained is not possible, we consider that this dissertation is also useful for companies that may not be going through a change process but are concerned about the influence of leaders on employees' responses.

Organizational change processes were chosen as the context for this study because they are increasingly common and can be critical events for organizations. It is a challenging context in which leadership effectiveness and employees' reactions are especially relevant. And therefore we consider it is a suitable context to explore the relationship between both of these aspects. Additionally, focusing the investigation on a concrete situation helps defining the time period that the questions refer to. However, we believe that the relationship between leaders and employees is always important, no matter what the circumstances are. Relationships are usually built in the daily basis although it is in complicated situations when they are tested.

Moreover, it is the PhD student's opinion that companies should try to foster positive leadership.

Generally speaking, employees like having qualified managers, experts in their field and from whom they can learn. They also seek for guidance and a role model in their bosses. They want trustworthy and honest leaders, who are not afraid of sharing information or asking for different opinions, and who treat them with respect. Since employees are increasingly well trained and qualified, they are also more demanding and expect their bosses to meet these characteristics. And what managers do and say will determine if these expectations are met; what will affect in turn employees' reactions. Therefore, managers should be well aware of what employees expect of them and they should work towards meeting or even exceeding employees' expectations if they want to get the most of them. However, it is not rare to find

employees that think that working for a boss with such qualities is too idealistic. Either way, I believe that companies need and should look for managers that meet the aforementioned characteristics or managers that at least try to be this way. They should look for and/or train their people to be leaders.

Probably many managers already know what helps and what hinders satisfying their employees, while at the same time getting the most productivity of them. However, knowing and acting in accordance not always come together. Sometimes managers forget their role as leaders. For different reasons, they do not act as they believe it is the best way. So, managers should know how to behave and also be encouraged to actually behave this way. Managers' role as leaders is so important that companies should really try to teach their managers how to become leaders.

It is also the belief of the PhD student that authentic leadership (and other positive forms of leadership) can help to this matter. Authentic leadership can serve as guidance to managers that are really interested in becoming what employees need them to be. It can contribute to improve the relationship between bosses and subordinates and help change the belief some people still have that this cannot be a win-win relationship. Authentic leadership takes a positive perspective and is based on what should be done to be an authentic leader rather than the behaviors that should be avoided. This positive perspective can show managers how to behave in order to get the most of employees and at the same time make employees feel respected and valued. Additionally, training programs on authentic leadership can be useful to teach managers how to become a leader, but also to raise other managers' awareness on the relevance of putting it in practice and to build a corporate culture that supports authentic leadership.

But can authentic leadership really be learned? Authentic leadership is grounded on personal values that will dictate leader's behaviors, and personal values are not easy to change. However, training programs for authentic leadership development can provide structure, explain what authentic leadership is, on what it is based, its benefits, and they could offer coaching and mentoring for its development. In this way, authentic leadership training programs can be really useful for the ones that have the characteristics needed to be authentic leaders but are not conscious about it; for those that want to improve their leadership skills but do not know how to do it; or for those that do not care very much about it because they do not realize how beneficial it can be for them, for their co-workers and for the organization.

Furthermore, authentic leadership can help to recover and/or secure the ethical climate that seems to be lost in many organizations. Nowadays it seems that society, politics and also organizations are living a crisis of values. The search for the own good of some people is favoring a selfishness climate in which the attitude “every man for himself” is spreading. People that show the relevance of values and that lead by example is needed in order to turn this situation around. We need people that act in the interest of the many rather than the few. And authentic leadership can serve to this purpose in organizational contexts. The ethical perspective is embedded in the authentic leadership style and even its definition includes the idea that AL draws upon and promotes a positive ethical climate³¹. Authentic leaders are guided by personal moral standards and values, which can help to demonstrate that there are also managers that genuinely care about the employees, the organization and the general good. And this can be determinant to return the confidence on working together towards the achievement of common goals.

Overall, given the results of this dissertation and the literature on authentic leadership, I really believe that authentic leadership can be a good starting point to foster a positive and ethic leadership, to improve the relationships between bosses and employees and to prove skeptics that it can actually be done and it is worthy.

³¹ Definition of authentic leadership: "A pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development" (Walumbwa, Avolio et al., 2008:94).

CHAPTER VIII

General limitations and
future research directions

CHAPTER VIII. General limitations and future research directions

In this chapter we will explain the main limitations of this investigation that should be kept in mind when interpreting the results and conclusions, and we will offer some solutions to address them. Additionally, we will propose some future research directions that we consider would be interesting to follow in order to understand better the role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions during change processes.

The first limitation of this research affects all three analyses and it refers to the fact that this is a cross-sectional study. This raises important concerns regarding causal inferences (Lazarus, 2003) although the variables used are logically and theoretically ordered with respect to time. The fact that the answers are a recall of past events brings the concern that memory bias can inflate the results (overestimating for example the frequency and intensity of experienced emotions) and that the reported relationships can be contaminated by reverse causality. Longitudinal investigations could help address this limitation by capturing, for example, how employees experience an ongoing organizational change on a daily or weekly basis. This would contribute to a better understanding on how leaders' behaviors influence employees' reactions: how they build trust, what emotions they generate on employees, or how attitudes are formed.

The second limitation of this investigation is that the generalization of the results is not possible due to the characteristics of the sample. This limitation also affects all three analyses. This research collected the experience of Spanish HRMs during organizational changes. Therefore, differences in culture, context or organizational position might result in different conclusions. Future investigations could focus on alternative geographical locations, organizational contexts or hierarchical positions in order to determine if the results are similar to the ones obtained here. Additionally, the sample used here is not an accurate reflection of the population because industries are not included in the right proportion (in fact, not all the industries are included), and not all company sizes are included either. These differences between the population and the sample prevent us from generalizing the results obtained here even among the chosen population. Therefore, the results and conclusions should be taken carefully.

And the third main limitation of this study is that the list of positive and negative emotions included is not exhaustive. This limitation affects to two of the analyses.

Other emotions could be experienced during change processes and, therefore, new discrete emotions could be included in future investigations. Additionally, instead of treating emotions as a bundle, individualized examination of emotions' relationships could provide valuable information. For example, some discrete emotions might mediate the relationship between power and intention to quit, while others may not. Or two positive emotions may respond differently to authentic leadership behaviors.

In addition to the aforementioned suggestions that could help address the limitations of this study, some other future research directions are offered here.

Regarding the research method used, we consider that an alternative approach could provide interesting information that we were not able to gather. The relationships between leaders and employees are complex and organizational change is also a complex context, so case study researches with a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods might help understand how these relationships work. For example, a case study research could be done combining the use of questionnaires to gather the experience of all the employees in an organization (information that could be analyzed using statistical techniques) and some interviews to understand better the context of the study (information that could be used, for example, to interpret in a more thorough way the results obtained). This kind of research would provide a deeper view of concrete cases, but it would not allow the generalization of the results. Furthermore, this proposal would not only analyze the relationship between top managers and HRMs, but the relationship at all levels of the hierarchy. This is very advisable since most of the investigations focus on top management. Additionally, horizontal relationships could be included by examining how employees influence their peers. Employees spend most of their time with other co-workers and these relationships can also influence on their responses to organizational events. So, studying horizontal relationships could provide interesting information on employees' reactions at work. And finally, this study could be done during an ongoing organizational change so memory bias would not be an issue.

Regarding the target of the investigation, we consider that going down the hierarchy could also be the purpose of future researches. Middle managers' perspective was taken here, and it was examined how top managers' leadership affect middle managers' reactions. However, as some authors demand (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010), it would also be interesting to analyze the effect of middle managers' leadership

on frontline employees' reactions to change in order to evaluate middle managers' intermediary position. In this way it could be checked, for example, if the results of the relationships analyzed are similar, and the role of middle and top managers' role on frontline employees' sensemaking processes could be better understood.

Regarding the level of analysis, we propose that when there are higher order constructs (as it was the case here with authentic leadership), it would be advisable to present also the results of the first order factor model. This would allow, for instance, clarify which dimensions of authentic leadership help to build trust. Following this example, in chapter IV the results indicated that three dimensions of AL (i.e. relational transparency, balanced processing and internalized moral perspective) generate trust in the leader; while in chapter V the results showed that only balanced processing dimension influences the level of trust in the leader. Additionally, some other researchers have found that relational transparency is the only AL dimension significantly related to trust in the leader (e.g. Wong & Cummings, 2009) and have theorized on the influence of internalized moral perspective on trust (e.g. Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang et al., 2009; Walumbwa, Luthans et al., 2011). These contradictions between theoretical explanations and empirical demonstrations and the differences in the results of the analyses, point out to the necessity of further investigation in order to clarify which dimensions of authentic leadership really contribute to build followers' trust in their leaders. Therefore, we consider that future investigations should include this level of analysis as first order factor models examination could help understand the underlying mechanisms that relate higher order constructs to other variables.

And regarding the content of the research, we consider that there are several lines of investigation that would be really interesting to follow.

First, we propose to continue researching on the effects of authentic leadership on employees' responses during change because it is still a quite new concept but it offers promising results and has very positive outcomes. For example, it has so far demonstrated to be significantly related to followers' empowerment, work engagement, extra effort, organizational citizenship behavior or organizational commitment, but it was not studied in an organizational change context.

Secondly, we suggest analyzing in a single investigation the effect of different leadership styles on employees' reactions. For example, several leadership styles such

as charismatic, ethical, transformational and authentic are proposed to influence positively on employees; however we still do not know if there is any one more effective than the rest in building trust, enhancing positive emotions, minimizing negative emotions or generating a positive attitude towards change. For instance, in chapter IV it was observed that internalized moral perspective is the only authentic leadership dimension that significantly impacts on positive emotions. It seems then that it is the moral perspective of authentic leadership what most influences followers' positive emotions. This fact makes us think that authentic leadership could be more tightly linked to followers' positive emotions than other leadership styles such as charismatic, transformational or transactional. However, more research needs to be done in order to test this idea.

In the third place, we believe that further research on the role of power is needed, preferably not from the perspective of the power holder but from the one affected by it. Different consequences of the perception of power could be examined. Some examples are its influence on threat appraisal, emotions, work engagement, intention to quit or organizational citizenship behaviors. Moreover, it would be interesting to analyze the effects of the full category of power and not just soft or hard power categories as it was done here. The classic 6 category of French and Raven's (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965), or the broadened 11 category power taxonomy (Raven, Schwarzwald et al., 1998) could be used to offer a more thorough comprehension of the outcomes of each power base. And future investigations could also try to find out the consequences that different perspectives of power may have. For example, it could be examined the consequences of perceived power versus the expectation of power that will be exerted and versus actual influence tactics used by the boss. These differentiations could provide further information on how power is perceived and how it affects individual's emotions, attitudes and behaviors.

Moreover, the possible moderation effect of trust in the relationship between leaders' behaviors and employees' reactions could be examined. As suggested in a previous chapter, the level of trust that a follower has in the leader could act as a filter to interpret leader's behavior influencing in turn follower's reactions. This could help explain, for example, the relationship between authentic leadership behavior, trust and positive and negative emotions.

Furthermore, we consider that work with integrative theories should be continued since rationality and emotions complement each other to explain people's reaction. In addition, new antecedents of emotions in work contexts could be examined. Literature has focused more on the consequences of emotions than on the antecedents; however learning how and why they occur is also very interesting. Here we focused on three leadership attributes as emotion elicitors (i.e. AL behavior, trust and hard power bases) but other events could also be considered, such as participation or delegation.

And finally, we suggest completing employees' possible reactions by including behaviors in the analysis. Some behaviors that employees from all the hierarchical positions can show could be included, such as organizational citizenship, withdrawal (including actual quitting), or counterproductive behaviors. Additionally, specific behaviors of each position could be also incorporated, such as asking managers if they motivate, train or recognize and reward their subordinates. If employees' behaviors are included, it could, for example, be checked if leaders' behaviors influence directly employees' behaviors or if emotions and attitudes mediate the aforementioned relationship, as suggested by the affective events theory. Including behaviors would be really advisable because it would provide a full picture of employees' response.

To sum up, much work is still left to do to completely understand the role of leadership in shaping employees' reactions during organizational change processes. We hope this dissertation helps to be at least one step closer to this end.

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APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Cover letter and questionnaire



Estimado Responsable de Recursos Humanos:

Desde la **Deusto Business School** tenemos el gusto de ponernos en contacto con usted para hacerle participe de un nuevo proyecto de investigación que estamos llevando a cabo. Este proyecto se está desarrollando en el marco de una tesis doctoral, y en colaboración con un catedrático de la **Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration** (Bergen – Noruega).

Concretamente, el proyecto analiza el efecto que ejercen determinados aspectos de liderazgo (estilo, poder y confianza) mostrados por el jefe inmediato en las reacciones (emocional, actitudinal y conductual) de los responsables de recursos humanos durante la implantación de procesos de cambio.

Para que este proyecto pueda llevarse a cabo y de él se puedan extraer **conclusiones y recomendaciones relevantes para el conjunto de la comunidad científica y empresarial**, resulta fundamental contar con la participación de responsables de Recursos Humanos como usted que proporcionen información sobre las variables objeto de estudio.

Para prestar su colaboración solamente tendría que cumplimentar un **breve cuestionario** (tiempo estimado de duración: 15-20 minutos) que ha sido diseñado específicamente para esta investigación, y **al que puede acceder pinchando en el siguiente enlace: [comenzar cuestionario](#)**. Las respuestas que introduzca serán enviadas a la finalización del cuestionario, una vez confirme el envío de las mismas.

Naturalmente, el proceso de almacenamiento y tratamiento de los datos garantiza el **anonimato de las respuestas** una vez haya finalizado el proceso de recogida de información. Y, por supuesto, pondríamos **a su disposición un informe con las conclusiones finales** de las investigaciones realizadas.

Por favor, no dude en ponerse en contacto con nosotros ni necesita aclarar dudas, solicitar información adicional, informar sobre problemas con el acceso al cuestionario, o cualquier otra cuestión que pudiera surgir.

Confiado en que esta propuesta sea de su interés, reciba un cordial saludo del equipo de investigación:

Nekane Aramburu (Supervisora - Deusto Business School)
Rune Lines (Supervisor - Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration)
Laida Agote (Investigadora – Deusto Business School)

Contacto: Laida Agote
6xxxxxxxxx
xxxxxx@deusto.es



PROCESOS DE CAMBIO ORGANIZATIVO: LIDERAZGO Y REACCIONES

IMPORTANTE

Anonimato

El proceso de almacenamiento y tratamiento de los datos garantiza que, una vez finalizado el proceso de recogida de información, no puede determinarse el origen individual de ninguna información vertida en este cuestionario.

El cambio

Este cuestionario versa sobre diferentes aspectos relacionados con procesos de cambio organizativo. Por favor, PIENSE EN UN CAMBIO RECIENTE que haya supuesto una importante transformación de su organización (cambio tecnológico, reestructuración departamental, reorientación estratégica, etc.) y CUYA IMPLANTACIÓN HAYA CONCLUIDO YA.

El jefe inmediato

A lo largo del cuestionario se le realizarán diversas preguntas referentes a su líder, entendido éste como su jefe inmediato. Si su jefe inmediato cambió durante el proceso de implantación del cambio, responda a las preguntas pensando en quien fue su jefe inmediato durante más tiempo a lo largo del periodo que duró el cambio.

A. LA ORGANIZACIÓN y su papel en la misma

Las siguientes preguntas de la encuesta se refieren a características de la organización en la que trabaja.

Por favor, indique el nombre de la organización en la que trabaja. Esta información será empleada con la única finalidad de evitar duplicidades en las respuestas y será eliminada una vez haya concluido el proceso de recogida de información.

Nombre de la organización:

Señale cuál es el principal sector de actividad en el que opera la organización.

Sector de actividad:

Por favor, indique el número aproximado de personas que trabajan en la organización.

Número de trabajadores:

Indique, por favor, cuál de las siguientes opciones describe mejor el ámbito de responsabilidad que ocupa en la organización en la que trabaja.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Responsable de RRHH de una empresa (la cual NO forma parte de ningún grupo empresarial)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Responsable de RRHH de una o más divisiones de un grupo empresarial
<input type="checkbox"/>	Responsable de RRHH de un grupo empresarial

En caso de que, además de ser responsable de RRHH, cuente con algún otro tipo de responsabilidad, función o cargo en la organización en la que trabaja, por favor, indique cuál.

Responsabilidad, función o cargo que ejerce además de responsable de RRHH:

B. EL CAMBIO y su papel en el mismo

Las siguientes preguntas de la encuesta se refieren a características del proceso de cambio.

¡¡¡AVISO!!!

RECUERDE QUE DEBE REFERIRSE A UN CAMBIO RECIENTE CUYA IMPLANTACIÓN HAYA CONCLUIDO YA. DE LO CONTRARIO TODAS SUS RESPUESTAS DEBERÁN SER DESCARTADAS YA QUE NO SERÁN VÁLIDAS PARA ESTA INVESTIGACIÓN.

Para cada pregunta marque con una cruz la opción que considera mejor describe el cambio.

¿Cuál de las siguientes categorías describe mejor el cambio?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Cambio en la orientación estratégica de la organización
<input type="checkbox"/>	Introducción de una nueva línea de negocio
<input type="checkbox"/>	Introducción en nuevos mercados

	Fusión entre empresas
	Reorganización o reestructuración departamental
	Modificación sustancial de procesos
	Cambio tecnológico
	Otros - especificar:

¿Cómo considera que fue el cambio: incremental o radical?

	Incremental: Consiste en la incorporación de pequeñas modificaciones o ajustes y tiene por objeto mantener el <i>status quo</i> . De alcance limitado, afecta sólo a algunos aspectos de la actividad de la organización. Por ejemplo, una mejora en el proceso de fabricación
	Radical: Supone un cambio profundo en la forma en que opera la empresa. Suele afectar simultáneamente a varios aspectos de la organización, como la estructura organizativa, la cultura, los procesos, la estrategia o los sistemas de gestión (sistema de información, control, retribución y promoción, etc.). Por ejemplo, un replanteamiento estratégico y organizativo

¿Cómo considera que fue el cambio: reactivo, adaptativo o proactivo?

	Reactivo: Cambio emprendido por la empresa en situaciones críticas cuyo objetivo es la supervivencia a corto plazo. Por ejemplo, cambio derivado de una crisis económica
	Adaptativo: Cambio emprendido para adaptarse al entorno. El entorno provoca el cambio en la empresa. El cambio se adopta con carácter anticipatorio, tratando de evitar "sorpresas" que coloquen a la organización ante una situación crítica. Por ejemplo, en un centro de salud, cambio para hacer frente al envejecimiento de la población
	Proactivo: El cambio es provocado internamente como consecuencia de la voluntad firme de inducir determinados cambios en el entorno. La empresa cambia de manera voluntaria y con intención de provocar una reacción en cadena en el entorno. Por ejemplo, Microsoft desarrolla un nuevo sistema operativo que se convierte en estándar del sector

¿Qué áreas de la empresa se vieron afectadas por el cambio? Puede marcar más de una opción.

	Tecnología
	Procesos
	Servicio
	Estrategia
	Estructura organizativa
	Personas
	Cultura
	Otras


Por favor, indique el número aproximado de personas que se vieron afectadas en la organización por el cambio.

Número de personas afectadas:


Por favor, indique las fechas aproximadas de inicio y finalización del proceso de cambio.

Fecha de inicio:

Fecha de finalización:



PROCESOS DE CAMBIO ORGANIZATIVO
LIDERAZGO Y REACCIONES



Las siguientes preguntas de la encuesta se refieren al resultado del proceso de cambio analizado una vez éste estuvo completamente implementado. Valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones empleando la siguiente escala:
 (1) Estoy en total desacuerdo; (2) Estoy en desacuerdo; (3) No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo; (4) Estoy de acuerdo; (5) Estoy totalmente de acuerdo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Se cumplieron todos los objetivos marcados para el cambio					
En general, tuvo consecuencias positivas					
El resultado del cambio fue aproximadamente lo que se esperaba antes del mismo					

Valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones referentes a su función en el proceso de cambio empleando la siguiente escala:
 (1) Estoy en total desacuerdo; (2) Estoy en desacuerdo; (3) No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo; (4) Estoy de acuerdo; (5) Estoy totalmente de acuerdo.

Durante el cambio, tenía un papel activo en la toma de decisiones sobre el...

	1	2	3	4	5
Contenido del mismo (qué debía cambiar)					
Proceso de implantación del mismo (cómo debía llevarse a cabo el cambio)					

C. ATRIBUTOS DE LIDERAZGO (JEFE INMEDIATO)

Las preguntas de la siguiente sección se refieren a diferentes atributos del liderazgo ejercido por su jefe inmediato: estilo de liderazgo, confianza y poder.

C.1. Estilo de liderazgo (jefe inmediato)

Valore la frecuencia con la que cada una de las siguientes afirmaciones se corresponde con el estilo de liderazgo ejercido por su jefe inmediato durante el proceso de cambio, empleando la siguiente escala:
 (1) Nunca; (2) Rara vez; (3) A veces; (4) A menudo; (5) Frecuentemente o siempre.

Mi jefe inmediato...

	1	2	3	4	5
Mostraba una forma de pensar coherente con su forma de actuar. Cumplía con lo que decía					

4

Note: Questions about authentic leadership have been erased of the questionnaire due to copyright restrictions. The publication of only three sample items to measure authentic leadership behavior was allowed by the authors.

	1	2	3	4	5
Escuchaba cuidadosamente diferentes puntos de vista antes de llegar a conclusiones					
Buscaba otras impresiones para mejorar la interacción con los demás					

C.2. Confianza en el jefe inmediato

Valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones referentes al nivel de confianza que tenía en su jefe inmediato durante el proceso de cambio empleando la siguiente escala:

(1) Estoy en total desacuerdo; (2) Estoy en desacuerdo; (3) No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo; (4) Estoy de acuerdo; (5) Estoy totalmente de acuerdo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Mi jefe inmediato tenía en cuenta mis intereses a la hora de tomar decisiones					
Hubiese estado dispuesto a permitir que mi jefe inmediato tuviese un control total de mi futuro en esta organización					
Si mi jefe inmediato hubiese preguntado por el porqué de un problema, hubiese hablado con total libertad incluso aunque me pudiesen culpar de algo					
Me sentía cómodo siendo creativo ya que mi jefe inmediato admitía que las soluciones creativas no siempre funcionan					
Incrementar mi vulnerabilidad a las críticas realizadas por mi jefe inmediato hubiese sido un error					
Aunque hubiese tenido la oportunidad de evitarlo, no habría impedido que mi jefe inmediato tuviese influencia sobre decisiones importantes para mí					

C.3. Poder del jefe inmediato

Valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones referentes al tipo de poder que tenía su jefe inmediato durante el proceso de cambio empleando la siguiente escala:

(1) Estoy en total desacuerdo; (2) Estoy en desacuerdo; (3) No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo; (4) Estoy de acuerdo; (5) Estoy totalmente de acuerdo.

	1	2	3	4	5
Una buena evaluación por parte de mi jefe inmediato podía suponer un incremento en mi nivel de ingresos					
Mi jefe inmediato podía ayudarme a conseguir beneficios especiales					
Las acciones de mi jefe inmediato podían ayudarme a conseguir un ascenso					

	1	2	3	4	5
Mi jefe inmediato podía hacer que las cosas fuesen desagradables para mí					
Mi jefe inmediato podía dificultarme lograr un ascenso					
Mi jefe inmediato podía dificultarme el conseguir un incremento en mi nivel de ingresos					
Mi jefe inmediato probablemente conocía la mejor manera de hacer el trabajo					
Mi jefe inmediato probablemente conocía mejor el trabajo que yo					
Mi jefe inmediato probablemente tenía más conocimiento técnico sobre el trabajo que yo					
Respetaba a mi jefe inmediato, tenía un buen concepto de él/ella y no quería estar en desacuerdo					
Veía a mi jefe inmediato como alguien con quien me podía identificar					
Observaba a mi jefe inmediato y a menudo trataba de adaptar mi trabajo de forma acorde a él/ella					
Tenía que hacer lo que mi jefe inmediato dijese porque, al fin y al cabo, era mi jefe					
Mi jefe inmediato tenía el derecho de solicitarme hacer mi trabajo de una determinada forma					
Como subordinado, tenía la obligación de hacer las cosas como decía mi jefe inmediato					
Una vez fue mencionado el motivo, podía ver por qué era necesario modificar mi forma de trabajo					
Mi jefe inmediato me daba buenas razones para modificar cómo hacía mi trabajo					
Una vez explicado, podía entender por qué el cambio recomendado era para mejorar					

D. REACCIONES

Las preguntas de la siguiente sección se refieren a sus reacciones durante el proceso de cambio analizado. Por favor piense en lo que sintió y percibió o pensó para responder a las preguntas.

D.1. Emociones

Valore la frecuencia con la que cada una de las siguientes afirmaciones se corresponde con lo que sintió durante el proceso de cambio empleando la siguiente escala:
(1) Nunca; (2) Rara vez; (3) A veces; (4) A menudo; (5) Frecuentemente o siempre.

Durante el proceso de cambio, sentía...

	1	2	3	4	5
Alivio					
Gratitud					
Esperanza					
Felicidad					
Entusiasmo					

	1	2	3	4	5
Reafirmación/reconocimiento					
Orgullo					
Furia					
Frustración					
Enfado					
Desesperanza					
Vergüenza					
Decepción					
Asco					
Desprecio					
Ansiedad					
Sorpresa					

D.2. Actitudes

Valore su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones referentes a lo que percibió o pensó durante el proceso de cambio empleando la siguiente escala:

(1) Estoy en total desacuerdo; (2) Estoy en desacuerdo; (3) No estoy ni de acuerdo ni en desacuerdo; (4) Estoy de acuerdo; (5) Estoy totalmente de acuerdo.

Actitud hacia el cambio	1	2	3	4	5
Personalmente, el cambio me importaba mucho					
Me preocupaba cómo podía afectar el cambio a mi trabajo en el día a día, tanto positiva como negativamente					
Me preocupaba cómo podía afectar el cambio a la organización en su conjunto, tanto positiva como negativamente					
Parecía probable que este cambio mejorase la satisfacción con mi trabajo					
Parecía probable que este cambio mejorase el funcionamiento de la organización					
Parecía probable que el cambio me hiciese querer continuar trabajando aquí					
Podía ver las potenciales ventajas de este cambio					

Intención de abandono	1	2	3	4	5
A menudo pensaba en abandonar la organización					
A menudo pensaba en abandonar mi puesto de trabajo para desempeñar uno diferente en esta misma organización					
A menudo pensaba en abandonar el liderazgo del proceso de cambio					
A menudo pensaba en abandonar mis funciones en el proceso de cambio					

E. SOBRE USTED MISMO

Edad				
Sexo	Hombre		Mujer	
Nivel educativo	Educación obligatoria	Bachiller o F.P.	Diplomatura o licenciatura	Máster o doctorado
Años de experiencia como responsable de RRHH	≤5	6-10	11-15	>15

F. SOBRE SU JEFE INMEDIATO

Edad				
Sexo	Hombre		Mujer	
Nivel educativo	Educación obligatoria	Bachiller o F.P.	Diplomatura o licenciatura	Máster o doctorado
Puesto en la empresa				
Años de experiencia en su puesto actual	≤5	6-10	11-15	>15
Años como su jefe inmediato	≤5	6-10	11-15	>15

¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN!

Como agradecimiento por su ayuda, le ofrecemos la posibilidad de recibir un informe con el resultado de la investigación.

Por favor, indique en qué dirección de correo electrónico desearía recibir el informe resumen:

Appendix 2. Permission to use the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)

Authors: Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa

Copyright: "Copyright © 2007 Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) by Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa. All rights reserved in all medium."

for his/her thesis research.

Three sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix 3. Constructs, codes and measures

Table 33. Constructs, codes and measures used in the investigation

Constructs	Codes	Measures
Authentic Leadership³² (Second order)	AL	How frequently each of the following statement fits your direct boss' leadership style during the change process? (1 = Not at all, 5 = Frequently, if not always) My direct boss...
AL Relational Transparency	ALTRANS	
AL Internalized Moral Perspective	ALMORAL1	Demonstrated beliefs that were consistent with actions
AL Balanced Processing	ALBALAN3	Listened carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions
AL Self-awareness	ALAWARE1	Sought feedback to improve interactions with others
Trust	TRUST	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to your trust in your direct boss during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	TRUST1	My direct boss kept my interests in mind when making decisions
	TRUST2	I would have been willing to let my direct boss have complete control over my future in this company
	TRUST3	If my direct boss would have asked why a problem occurred, I would have spoken freely even if I was partly to blame
	TRUST4	I felt comfortable being creative because my direct boss accepted that sometimes creative solutions do not work
	TRUST5	Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my direct boss would have been a mistake
	TRUST6	Although I would have had my way, I would not have avoid my supervisor to have any influence over decisions that were important to me
Expert Power	PEXPERT	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PEXPERT1	My direct boss probably knew the best way to do the job
	PEXPERT2	My direct boss probably knew more about the job than I did
	PEXPERT3	My direct boss probably had more technical knowledge about the job than I did

³² The publication of only three sample items to measure authentic leadership behavior was allowed by the authors.

Table 33. Constructs, codes and measures used in the investigation (Continue)

Constructs	Codes	Measures
Referent Power	PREFER	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PREFER1	I respected my direct boss and thought highly of him/her and did not wish to disagree
	PREFER2	I saw my direct boss as someone I could identify with
	PREFER3	I looked up to my direct boss and generally modeled my work accordingly
Informational Power	PINFO	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PINFO1	Once it was pointed out, I could see why the change in how I did my job was necessary
	PINFO2	My direct boss gave me good reasons for changing how I did my job
	PINFO3	I could then understand why the recommended change was for the better
Reward Power	PREWARD	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PREWARD1	A good evaluation from my direct boss could lead to an increase in pay
	PREWARD2	My direct boss could help me receive special benefits
	PREWARD3	My direct boss' actions could help me get a promotion
Coercive Power	PCOERC	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PCOERC1	My direct boss could make things unpleasant for me
	PCOERC2	My direct boss could make it more difficult for me to get a promotion
	PCOERC3	My direct boss could make it more difficult for me to get a pay increase
Legitimate Power	PLEGIT	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to the kind of power your boss had during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	PLEGIT1	I had to do what my direct boss said because, after all, he/she was my direct boss
	PLEGIT2	My direct boss had the right to request that I do my work in a particular way
	PLEGIT3	As a subordinate, I had an obligation to do as my direct boss said

Table 33. Constructs, codes and measures used in the investigation (Continue)

Constructs	Codes	Measures
Positive Emotions	POSEMO	How frequently each of the following statements fits with what you felt during the change process? (1 = Not at all, 5 = Frequently, if not always)
	POSEMO1	Relief
	POSEMO2	Gratitude
	POSEMO3	Hope
	POSEMO4	Happiness
	POSEMO5	Energized
	POSEMO6	Confirmed
	POSEMO7	Pride
Negative Emotions	NEGEMO	How frequently each of the following statements fits with what you felt during the change process? (1 = Not at all, 5 = Frequently, if not always)
	NEGEMO1	Rage
	NEGEMO2	Frustration
	NEGEMO3	Anger
	NEGEMO4	Hopelessness
	NEGEMO5	Shame
	NEGEMO6	Disappointment
	NEGEMO7	Disgust
	NEGEMO8	Contempt
	NEGEMO9	Anxiety
NEGEMO10	Surprised	
Attitude Towards Change	ATTC	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to what you perceived or thought during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	ATTC1	The change meant a lot to me personally
	ATTC2	I cared about how this change was going to affect my daily work, either positively and negatively
	ATTC3	I cared about how this change was going to affect the organization as a whole, either positively and negatively
	ATT4	This change seemed likely to improve my satisfaction with my job
	ATTC5	This change would probably improve the way the organization works
	ATTC6	This change makes it more likely that I will continue working here
	ATTC7	I could see the potential advantages of this change

Table 33. Constructs, codes and measures used in the investigation (Continue)

Constructs	Codes	Measures
Intention to Quit	ITQUIT	To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements referred to your intention to quit during the change process? (1 = I totally disagree, 5 = I totally agree)
	ITQUIT1	I often thought of quitting the organization
	ITQUIT2	I often thought of quitting my job position to work in another place of the same organization
	ITQUIT3	I often thought of quitting the leadership of the change process
	ITQUIT4	I often thought of quitting mi duties in the change process

Source: The author

Appendix 4. First order measurement model evaluation of Chapter IV

Table 34. Part I – Item reliability, construct reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and measures	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
ALTRANS		0.890	0.670
ALTRANS1	0.8178		
ALTRANS2	0.8542		
ALTRANS3	0.8597		
ALTRANS4	0.7375		
ALMORAL		0.886	0.660
ALMORAL1	0.7992		
ALMORAL2	0.8595		
ALMORAL3	0.7749		
ALMORAL4	0.8143		
ALBALAN		0.850	0.656
ALBALAN1	0.7578		
ALBALAN2	0.7644		
ALBALAN3	0.8998		
ALAWARE		0.904	0.701
ALAWARE1	0.8207		
ALAWARE2	0.8233		
ALAWARE3	0.8621		
ALAWARE4	0.8434		
TRUST		0.869	0.572
TRUST1	0.8082		
TRUST2	0.7063		
TRUST3	0.7259		
TRUST4	0.8464		
TRUST6	0.6815		
POSEMO		0.901	0.565
POSEMO1	0.6690		
POSEMO2	0.7387		
POSEMO3	0.7852		
POSEMO4	0.7738		
POSEMO5	0.8080		
POSEMO6	0.7337		
POSEMO7	0.7474		
NEGEMO		0.902	0.569
NEGEMO2	0.7482		
NEGEMO3	0.6256		
NEGEMO4	0.7654		
NEGEMO5	0.8344		
NEGEMO6	0.8110		
NEGEMO7	0.7371		
NEGEMO8	0.7423		

Note: For item reliability loadings should be above 0.707 or close to this limit. Loadings above 0.6 were accepted. For construct reliability, composite reliability should be above 0.7 in early stages of investigation. And for convergent validity AVE ratio should be above 0.5.

Source: The author

Table 35. Part II - Discriminant validity

	ALTRANS	ALMORAL	ALBALAN	ALAWARE	TRUST	POSEMO	NEGEMO
ALTRANS	(0.818)						
ALMORAL	0.772	(0.812)					
ALBALAN	0.748	0.63	(0.809)				
ALAWARE	0.763	0.774	0.778	(0.837)			
TRUST	0.667	0.649	0.65	0.644	(0.756)		
POSEMO	0.511	0.654	0.434	0.554	0.504	(0.751)	
NEGEMO	-0.417	-0.405	-0.388	-0.449	-0.537	-0.519	(0.754)

Note: Diagonal elements (values in parentheses) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures, relative to the amount due to measure error (AVE). Off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs. For discriminant validity, diagonal elements should be larger than off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

Source: The author

Appendix 5. Second order measurement model evaluation of Chapter IV

Table 36. Part I – Item reliability, construct reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and measures	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
AL		0.944	0.808
ALTRANS	0.9132		
ALMORAL	0.8899		
ALBALAN	0.8698		
ALAWARE	0.9224		
TRUST		0.869	0.572
TRUST1	0.8082		
TRUST2	0.7061		
TRUST3	0.7269		
TRUST4	0.8465		
TRUST6	0.6803		
POSEMO		0.901	0.566
POSEMO1	0.6548		
POSEMO2	0.7304		
POSEMO3	0.7833		
POSEMO4	0.7746		
POSEMO5	0.8137		
POSEMO6	0.7511		
POSEMO7	0.7493		
NEGEMO		0.902	0.569
NEGEMO2	0.7380		
NEGEMO3	0.6189		
NEGEMO4	0.7556		
NEGEMO5	0.8365		
NEGEMO6	0.8060		
NEGEMO7	0.7490		
NEGEMO8	0.7558		

Note: For item reliability loadings should be above 0.707 or close to this limit. Loadings above 0.6 were accepted. For construct reliability, composite reliability should be above 0.7 in early stages of investigation. And for convergent validity AVE ratio should be above 0.5.

Source: The author

Table 37. Part II - Discriminant validity

	TRUST	POSEMO	NEGEMO	AL
TRUST	(0.756)			
POSEMO	0.506	(0.752)		
NEGEMO	-0.538	-0.529	(0.754)	
AL	0.725	0.603	-0.462	(0.899)

Note: Diagonal elements (values in parentheses) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures, relative to the amount due to measure error (AVE). Off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs. For discriminant validity, diagonal elements should be larger than off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

Source: The author

Appendix 6. First order measurement model evaluation of Chapter V

Table 38. Part I – Item reliability, construct reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and measures	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
ALTRANS		0.890	0.671
ALTRANS1	0.8248		
ALTRANS2	0.8510		
ALTRANS3	0.8398		
ALTRANS4	0.7567		
ALMORAL		0.886	0.661
ALMORAL1	0.8140		
ALMORAL2	0.8542		
ALMORAL3	0.7756		
ALMORAL4	0.8061		
ALBALAN		0.850	0.655
ALBALAN1	0.7400		
ALBALAN2	0.7891		
ALBALAN3	0.8922		
ALAWARE		0.904	0.701
ALAWARE1	0.8063		
ALAWARE2	0.8184		
ALAWARE3	0.8681		
ALAWARE4	0.8546		
PEXPERT		0.893	0.737
PEXPERT1	0.8874		
PEXPERT2	0.8975		
PEXPERT3	0.7863		
PREFER		0.861	0.674
PREFER1	0.7972		
PREFER2	0.8875		
PREFER3	0.7744		
PINFO		0.914	0.781
PINFO1	0.9007		
PINFO2	0.8595		
PINFO3	0.8905		
TRUST		0.870	0.573
TRUST1	0.8121		
TRUST2	0.7471		
TRUST3	0.6921		
TRUST4	0.8223		
TRUST6	0.7007		
ATTC		0.906	0.707
ATTC4	0.7714		
ATTC5	0.8721		
ATTC6	0.8848		
ATTC7	0.8311		

Note: For item reliability loadings should be above 0.707 or close to this limit Loadings above 0.6 were accepted.. For construct reliability, composite reliability should be above 0.7 in early stages of investigation. And for convergent validity AVE ratio should be above 0.5.

Source: The author

Table 39. Part II - Discriminant validity

	ALTRANS	ALMORAL	ALBALAN	ALAWARE
ALTRANS	(0.819)			
ALMORAL	0.777	(0.813)		
ALBALAN	0.744	0.631	(0.809)	
ALAWARE	0.763	0.783	0.768	(0.837)
PEXPERT	0.437	0.523	0.365	0.489
PREFER	0.611	0.613	0.463	0.582
PINFO	0.58	0.602	0.441	0.578
TRUST	0.661	0.65	0.639	0.638
ATTC	0.429	0.439	0.271	0.382

	PEXPERT	PREFER	PINFO	TRUST	ATTC
PEXPERT	(0.858)				
PREFER	0.568	(0.820)			
PINFO	0.517	0.666	(0.883)		
TRUST	0.514	0.664	0.658	(0.756)	
ATTC	0.182	0.464	0.44	0.38	(0.840)

Note: Diagonal elements (values in parentheses) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures, relative to the amount due to measure error (AVE). Off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs. For discriminant validity, diagonal elements should be larger than off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

Source: The author

Appendix 7. Second order measurement model evaluation of Chapter V

Table 40. Part I – Item reliability, construct reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and measures	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
AL		0.944	0.808
ALTRANS	0.9159		
ALMORAL	0.8970		
ALBALAN	0.8594		
ALAWARE	0.9218		
PEXPERT		0.893	0.737
PEXPERT1	0.8887		
PEXPERT2	0.8973		
PEXPERT3	0.7842		
PREFER		0.861	0.674
PREFER1	0.7939		
PREFER2	0.8873		
PREFER3	0.7777		
PINFO		0.914	0.781
PINFO1	0.9000		
PINFO2	0.8587		
PINFO3	0.8919		
TRUST		0.870	0.573
TRUST1	0.8128		
TRUST2	0.7476		
TRUST3	0.6900		
TRUST4	0.8213		
TRUST6	0.7023		
ATTC		0.906	0.708
ATTC4	0.7716		
ATTC5	0.8734		
ATTC6	0.8870		
ATTC7	0.8277		

Note: For item reliability loadings should be above 0.707 or close to this limit. Loadings above 0.6 were accepted. For construct reliability, composite reliability should be above 0.7 in early stages of investigation. And for convergent validity AVE ratio should be above 0.5.

Source: The author

Table 41. Part II - Discriminant validity

	PEXPERT	PREFER	PINFO	TRUST	ATTC	AL
PEXPERT	(0.858)					
PREFER	0.568	(0.821)				
PINFO	0.518	0.677	(0.884)			
TRUST	0.515	0.665	0.659	(0.757)		
ATTC	0.183	0.464	0.440	0.381	(0.841)	
AL	0.509	0.637	0.618	0.718	0.430	(0.899)

Note: Diagonal elements (values in parentheses) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures, relative to the amount due to measure error (AVE). Off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs. For discriminant validity, diagonal elements should be larger than off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

Source: The author

Appendix 8. Measurement model evaluation of Chapter VI

Table 42. Part I – Item reliability, construct reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and measures	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted (AVE)
PREWARD		0.935	0.827
PREWARD1	0.9214		
PREWARD2	0.9297		
PREWARD3	0.8762		
PCOERC		0.925	0.804
PCOERC1	0.8805		
PCOERC2	0.9059		
PCOERC3	0.9040		
PLEGIT		0.945	0.896
PLEGIT1	0.9629		
PLEGIT3	0.9302		
POSEMO		0.896	0.605
POSEMO2	0.6435		
POSEMO3	0.7940		
POSEMO4	0.7767		
POSEMO5	0.8610		
POSEMO6	0.8127		
POSEMO7	0.7603		
NEGEMO		0.902	0.570
NEGEMO2	0.7535		
NEGEMO3	0.6392		
NEGEMO4	0.7702		
NEGEMO5	0.8242		
NEGEMO6	0.8041		
NEGEMO7	0.7448		
NEGEMO8	0.7362		
ITQUIT		0.885	0.661
ITQUIT1	0.8379		
ITQUIT2	0.6496		
ITQUIT3	0.8936		
ITQUIT4	0.8497		

Note: For item reliability loadings should be above 0.707. For construct reliability, composite reliability should be above 0.7 in early stages of investigation. And for convergent validity AVE ratio should be above 0.5.

Source: The author

Table 43. Part II - Discriminant validity

	PREWARD	PCOERC	PLEGIT	POSEMO	NEGEMO	ITQUIT
PREWARD	(0.909)					
PCOERC	0.414	(0.897)				
PLEGIT	0.212	0.287	(0.947)			
POSEMO	0.264	-0.17	-0.237	(0.778)		
NEGEMO	-0.044	0.306	0.225	-0.579	(0.755)	
ITQUIT	-0.090	0.238	0.172	-0.522	0.575	(0.813)

Note: Diagonal elements (values in parentheses) are the square root of the variance shared between the constructs and their measures, relative to the amount due to measure error (AVE). Off-diagonal elements are the correlations among constructs. For discriminant validity, diagonal elements should be larger than off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

Source: The author