

**The Effect of Transformational Leadership and Personality on Employees'  
Work Engagement in a Consumer Goods Company**

**By**

**Gloria Kgalalelo Motlhabane**

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements in respect of the Master's degree**

**Master of Commerce Industrial Psychology**

**In the**

**Department of Industrial Psychology**

**Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences**

**At the**

**University of the Free State**

**04 December 2019**

**Promoter: Prof Ebben Van Zyl**

**Co-Promoter: Prof Petrus Nel**

## **DECLARATION**

I, Gloria Kgalalelo Motlhabane, declare that the Master's Degree research dissertation that I herewith submit for the Master's Degree qualification Master's of Commerce Industrial Psychology at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

.....

G.K. Motlhabane

.....

Date

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to acknowledge the following people who supported me throughout the whole journey.

- My family for the ongoing support, love and faith in me.
- The study supervisors Prof Ebben Van Zyl and Prof Petrus Nel for their perseverance, support, kindness, guidance and remarkable efforts.
- My friends for encouraging me not to give up.
- Staff at the Department of Industrial Psychology and the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences for the opportunity and financial support they granted to me.
- The Free State Manager of the Consumer Goods Company who granted me the permission to gather the data.
- Colleagues at the Postgraduate School of the University of the Free State and the School itself for the language editing support grant.

## **ABSTRACT**

Consumer goods companies experiences various challenges due to poor labour markets, inflexible recruitments, employment termination practices, and tensions in employee-employer relationships. Further, challenges arise owing to competition from other service providers and unexpected threats, dealing with the competing demands and increased customer demands. These challenges impact consumer goods companies and can result in reduced productivity, reduced employee engagement, low employee commitment, low performance, lack of job satisfaction and higher intention to quit work. Consequently, failure to address these leads to a persistent lack of engagement within the consumer goods companies. Thus, the primary aim of this study was to investigate the possible effect that transformational leadership and personality have on work engagement. The secondary aim of the study was to determine whether there are gender differences concerning work engagement.

The study's data was collected from five stores of a large retail organisation in Bloemfontein. The individuals, who participated, from the study's set sample of 200 participants, were 150 and their participation adhered to ethical standards such as informed consent, anonymity, and voluntary participation. The data gathering instruments used in this study were the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), the Leadership Behaviour Scale (LBS), the Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) and the Self-liking and Competence Scale-revised (SLCS-R).

The results of the current study revealed that the variables (transformational leadership and personality) had a significant relationship with work engagement. Specifically, the results indicated a significant relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. The results also indicated a significant relationship between psychological capital, as a measure of personality, and work engagement. Furthermore, the results showed a significant relationship between self-esteem and work engagement. The results from a multiple regression analysis also carried in the study showed that only three variables, hope, articulating a vision and self-efficacy, were significant predictors of work engagement. Moreover, personality (as measured by PsyCap) seems to have a greater influence (31%) on employees' levels of work engagement than leadership (9%).

Finally, females scored higher than males and yet, the present results indicated that there were no significant difference between male and females concerning work engagement.

The study had a small but significant sample that reflected the willingness of the individuals to participate, the nature of study results and in suggesting possible future studies on work engagement. Self-competence and self-liking, which forms part of self-esteem had low reliability estimates. The Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale has been identified as an alternative measure of self-esteem that could be applied by future researchers. In addition, future research should focus on the type of work (masculine versus feminine) that might be of interest. Future research can also consider developing interventions of work engagement that will focus on both individuals and the organisation at large.

## Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Work Engagement World-Wide.....	1
1.2 Work Engagement in South Africa .....	2
1.3 Differences in Work Engagement with regards to Gender .....	3
1.4 The link between Transformational Leadership, Personality and Work Engagement.....	3
1.5 Challenges within the Consumer Goods Companies.....	6
1.6 Problem Statement .....	8
1.7 Research Questions .....	8
1.7.1 Primary Research Questions .....	8
1.7.2 Secondary Research Questions .....	8
1.8 Research Objectives.....	9
1.8.1 Primary Objective .....	9
1.8.2 Secondary objective .....	9
1.9 Formulation of Research Hypothesis .....	9
1.10 Summary.....	10
Chapter 2: Work Engagement.....	11
2.1. Introduction .....	11
2.2 Definitions of Work Engagement.....	12
There are various definitions for work engagement. These definitions are outlined below. ....	12
2.3Theories of Work Engagement .....	13
2.3.1. Social Cognitive Theory .....	13
2.3.2 The Conservation Resources Theory (COR) .....	14
2.3.3 The Social Exchange Theory.....	15
2.3.4 Three- Factorial theory of Work Engagement .....	15
2. 4 The Models of Work Engagement.....	16

2.4.1. Job-Demand Resources Model of Work Engagement (JD-R Model).....	17
2.4.2. The Proposed Model linking Psychological Capital with Work Engagement through Positive Emotions .....	20
2.4.3 The Comprehensive Model of Burnout and Engagement (COBE).....	22
2.5 Five Core Elements of Work Engagement.....	25
2.6 Antecedents of Work Engagement .....	26
2.6.1 Job Characteristics .....	26
2.6.2 Rewards and Recognition.....	26
2.6.3 Perceived Organisational and Supervisor Support .....	26
2.6.4 Procedural and Distributive Justice.....	27
2.7 Consequences of work engagement.....	27
2.8 Signs and Symptoms of Poor Work-Engagement.....	28
2.9 Differences in Work Engagement with regard to Biographical Variables .....	29
2.10 The link between Transformational leadership, Personality and Work Engagement.....	30
2.11 Consumer Goods Companies within the Retail Sector and Work Engagement .....	32
2.12 Summary.....	33
Chapter 3: Transformational Leadership .....	34
3.1 Introduction .....	34
3.2 Definitions of Transformational Leadership.....	35
3.3. Models of Transformational Leadership.....	37
3.3.1 The Path-Goal Model of Transformational Leadership .....	37
3.3.2 The Value-Centred Model of Transformational Leadership .....	39
3.3.3 Fiedler's Contingency Model of Transformational Leadership .....	41
3.3.4 The Full-Range Model of Transformational Leadership.....	42
3.4 Steps in the Transformational Leadership Process.....	46
3.5 Characteristics of Transformational Leaders.....	48

3.6 Advantages of Transformational leadership .....	49
3.7 Criticisms of Transformational Leadership .....	49
3.8 Transformational Leadership amongst Employees in the Consumer Goods Companies.....	50
3.9 Summary.....	51
Chapter 4: Personality .....	53
4.1 General introduction.....	53
4.2 Nature and Definitions of Personality .....	54
4.3 The Determinants of Personality .....	55
4.4 Theories of Personality .....	56
4.4.1 Social Cognitive Theory .....	56
4.4.2 Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory of Personality .....	57
4.4.3 Personal Construct Theory of Personality .....	58
4.4.4 Allport's Trait Theory of Personality .....	59
4.4.5 The Eysenck Hierarchy Theory of Personality .....	60
4.4.6 Cattell's Theory of Personality Traits .....	61
4.5 Models of Personality.....	64
4.5.1 The Five- Factor Model of Personality .....	64
4.5.2 The HEXACO Model of Personality .....	66
4.5.3 The Integrated Model of Psychological Capital in the Workplace .....	69
4.6 Psychological Capital and Personality .....	72
4.6.1 Self -Efficacy.....	73
4.6.2 Hope .....	73
4.6.3 Optimism.....	73
4.6.4 Resilience .....	73
4.7 Individual Differences and Personality .....	74
4.7.1 Intelligence and Personality .....	74



4.7.2 Cognitive Abilities and Personality .....	75
4.7.3 Creativity and Personality .....	75
4.7.4 Gender Differences and Personality .....	76
4.7.5 Age and Personality .....	76
4.8 Proactive Behaviour and the Dimensions of Personality .....	76
4.9 Personality amongst Employees in the Consumer Goods Company .....	77
4.10 Summary .....	79
Chapter 5: Research Methodology .....	80
5.1 Introduction .....	80
5.2 Quantitative Approach to Research .....	80
5.2.1 The Advantages of Quantitative Research Approach .....	80
5.2.2 The Disadvantages of the Quantitative Research Approach .....	80
5.2.3 The Characteristics of the Survey Research Design .....	81
5.2.4 The Advantages of the Survey Research Design .....	82
5.2.5 The Disadvantages of the Survey Research Design .....	82
5.3 Ethical Considerations and Ethical Clearance .....	83
5.4 Selection of the Respondents .....	83
5.4.1 Probability Sampling .....	83
5.4.2 Non-probability Sampling .....	84
5.4.3 Convenience Sampling .....	84
5.5 Data Collection and Measuring Instruments .....	85
5.5.1 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) .....	85
5.5.2 The Leadership Behaviour Scale (LBS) .....	86
5.5.3 Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) .....	88
5.5.4 Self-liking and Competence Scale-revised (SLCS-R) .....	88
5.6 Statistical Methods .....	89
5.6.1 Descriptive Statistics .....	89

5.6.2 Inferential Statistics.....	90
5.7 Summary.....	92
Chapter 6: Results, Conclusions and Recommendations .....	93
6.1 Introduction .....	93
6.2 Descriptive Statistics .....	93
6.2.1 Biographical Information .....	93
6.2.2 Reliability Estimates.....	96
6.3 Inferential Statistics .....	100
6.3.1 Correlations .....	101
6.3.2 Multiple Regression Analysis .....	104
6.3.3 Differences in Work Engagement with regards to Gender.....	105
6.4 Discussion on Results related to the Primary Research Question .....	106
6.4.1 Results on Transformational Leadership (and its sub-dimensions) and Work Engagement .....	106
6.4.2 Results on PsyCap (and its sub-dimensions) and Work Engagement....	109
6.4.3 Results on Self- Esteem and Work- Engagement.....	111
6.4.4 Hope, Articulating a Vision, and Self-efficacy as the Best Predictors of Work Engagement. ....	113
6.5 Discussion on Results Related to the Secondary Research Question: Results on Gender and Work- Engagement .....	115
6.6 Overall Conclusions .....	117
6.7 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Use .....	119
6.7.1 Limitations of the Present Research Study.....	119
6.7.2 Recommendations for Future .....	120
6.7.3 Recommendations for Practice.....	121
6.8 Summary.....	122
References.....	123

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 4. 1 <i>Cattell's 16 Personality Factor</i> .....	63
Table 6. 1 <i>Frequency Distribution (Age)</i> .....	93
Table 6. 2 <i>Frequency Distribution (Gender)</i> .....	94
Table 6. 3 <i>Frequency Distribution (Race)</i> .....	94
Table 6. 4 <i>Frequency Distribution (Highest Qualification)</i> .....	95
Table 6. 5 <i>Frequency Distribution (Job Position)</i> .....	96
Table 6. 6 <i>Reliability Estimates</i> .....	97
Table 6. 7 <i>Correlations</i> .....	102
Table 6. 8 <i>Correlations between Psychological Capital and Work Engagement</i> ....	103
Table 6. 9 <i>Correlations between self-liking and self-competence with work engagement</i> .....	104
Table 6. 10 <i>Stepwise Multiple Regression</i> .....	105
Table 6. 11 <i>Gender differences concerning Work Engagement</i> .....	106

## LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 2. 1</i> The JD-R model of work engagement.....	19
<i>Figure 2. 2</i> Proposed model linking psychological capital to work engagement through positive emotions.....	21
<i>Figure 2. 3</i> The comprehensive model of burnout and engagement explaining the two psychological processes namely, the energetic and motivational processes .....	24
<i>Figure 3. 1</i> The path-goal model of transformational leadership. ....	39
<i>Figure 3. 2</i> The value-centered model of transformational leadership.....	41
<i>Figure 3. 3</i> Fiedler's contingency model of transformational leadership.....	42
<i>Figure 3. 4</i> Full -range model of transformational leadership. ....	46
<i>Figure 4. 1</i> The five elements of the Five-Factor Model of Personality. ....	66
<i>Figure 4. 2</i> The Five-Factor Model of Personality .....	66
<i>Figure 4. 3</i> The HEXACO Model of Personality. ....	69
<i>Figure 4. 4</i> The Integrated Model of Psychological Capital in the Workplace.....	71

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

This study investigates the effect of transformational leadership and personality on employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company. This chapter considers the concept of work engagement globally and in South Africa. It also focuses on the differences in work engagement concerning gender, the relationship between the three variables; transformational leadership, personality and work engagement, and the challenges faced by the consumer goods companies. Furthermore, the chapter outlines the problem statement, primary and secondary research questions, primary and secondary objectives, and the research hypotheses including the null and alternative hypotheses.

### **1.1 Work Engagement World-Wide**

According to Banihani and Syed (2017) the concept of work engagement became popular within the organisations and business environments in the past 25 years. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) define work engagement as an optimistic, fulfilling work-related state of mind that consists of three components, which are vigor, dedication and absorption. Choi, Tran, and Park (2015) point out that work engagement is highly associated with individual productivity, enhanced managerial effectiveness and increased customer satisfaction.

Statistics shows that in the United States of America (USA), 30% of employees are committed to their work (Choi et al., 2015). Levels of work engagement in Countries that include Australia, South Korea, Japan and China are ranked as 24%, 11%, 7% and 6%, respectively (Choi et al., 2015). On the contrary, Gupta (2017) reports that only nine percent of workers were found to be fully committed to their work in India in comparison to the 13% recorded for the whole world. Further, research by Rana (2015) notes in agreement of the observed low commitment in India that, there is a decrease in numbers of engaged employees worldwide as about 13% of all workers in the 142 countries in the whole world are effectively committed to their work. In addition, a decline in work engagement has been observed in America, where almost half of workers were declared as disengaging from their work while about 52% of the workers in Australia and 60% in New Zealand were doing the same as well (Rana, 2015).

## **1.2 Work Engagement in South Africa**

Past research indicates that employees tend to have higher levels of engagement at work when they find meaning in what they do (Geldenhuys, Laba, & Venter, 2014). Engaged employees consider their work valuable and essential and are dedicated to remain in their jobs (Geldenhuys et al., 2014). Nevertheless, it appears that lack of engagement at work in South Africa remains a problem. For instance, researchers discovered that South African workers are viewed as the most detached when compared to other employees in whole world (Hoole & Hotz, 2016). This view is substantiated by recent statistics showing that about 80 percent of employees in South African companies reported a lack of connection with their work, while 43% of employees consider leaving their work daily (Hoole & Hotz, 2016). A similar situation of low levels of engagement in South African companies is noted in a study done by de Crom and Rothmann (2018), which states that almost 20% of employees are predicated to be disconnected from their jobs. Finally, other studies found out that about 45% of workers in South African companies were not engaged to their work (Laba & Geldenhuys, 2016).

Nonetheless, various studies, such as Van Zyl, Deacon, and Rothmann (2010), consider work engagement as an essential element in the present South African economic situation. Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) also attest that work engagement motivates employees and results in high productivity, low turnover intention, return on assets, and high profits as well as shareholder values. Thus, inadequate engagement and its associated negativity such as encouraging employees to escape their organisations, can be transformed in order to maintain employees' talents and lower their intentions to exit the organisation (Mendes & Stander, 2011). Hence, Lin (2010) argues that work engagement in South African companies needs to be refined to avoid a decline in performance.

### **1.3 Differences in Work Engagement with regards to Gender**

The study focuses on the differences in work engagement based on gender as specified in the secondary research question. Recent research conducted by Lee and Eissenstat (2018) indicates that there is a limited and unreliable research on gender and work engagement. Even though research on work engagement is lacking, scholars such as Camgoz, Ekmekci, Karapinar, and Guler (2016) are of the view that females are more engaged because of their identification and high involvement with their work. Furthermore, Latta and Fait (2016) underscore that females display high levels of engagement at work than males. Other studies report, on the contrary that, males are more physically, cognitively and emotionally engaged in their work than females (Banihani & Syed, 2017).

### **1.4 The link between Transformational Leadership, Personality and Work Engagement**

A study done by Blatny et al. (2018) points out that work engagement is psychologically connected with the performance of employees in their work tasks. Work engagement entails how employees perceive the challenges of their work and how much they want to invest in their job (Gozukara & Simsek, 2015). Employees who are more engaged in their work are physically and cognitively active and display positive attitudes toward their jobs (Gozukara & Simsek, 2015).

Furthermore, work engagement emphasises on the personal resources (physical, emotional and cognitive) as well as the ability and determination employees bring to their work (Blatny et al., 2018). At the same time, work engagement leads to higher performance, and the creation of a highly engaged and inventive workforce that performs beyond their expectations (Peng & Tseng, 2019). Researchers, Orgambidez –Ramos and de Almeida (2017) postulate that work engagement is necessary because it leads to job fulfilment and organisational commitment.

In addition, work engagement results in favorable results for the sector, such as employee productivity and customer satisfaction (Hsieh & Wang, 2015). Engaged workers regard their work as meaningful and intellectual (Orgambidez –Ramos & de Almeida, 2017).

A research by Babcock–Roberson and Strickland (2010) notes that transformational leadership is one form of a leadership that is developed as a social influence of leaders to followers. That is, a form of leadership where leaders influence their followers to adopt essential strategies to achieve agreed goals (Babcock–Roberson & Strickland, 2010). As a result, transformational leaders stress the necessity of extending employee's own responsibilities to take larger workplace challenges (Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009).

Transformational leadership is also connected to work engagement through the four components, the idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation (Chua & Ayoko, 2019). The idealised influence enables transformational leaders to act as role models and improve employee's sense of value and involvement with their work, which leads to higher levels of engagement (Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). This leadership style is inspirational hence, an inspirational motivation leader enhances employees' engagement by providing meaningful work and encouraging the workers to accept challenges (Chua & Ayoko, 2019).

The individualised considerate leaders are sensitive, caring, and supportive and pay attention to the needs for achievement and development of their workers, and in that way increase the workers' engagement (Ghadi et al., 2013). Research confirms that employees who work in a supportive environment become more determined and positive to handle challenging situations (Pinck & Sonnentag, 2018). Moreover, an intellectually stimulating leader motivates employees to solve problems using new viewpoints and ultimately, these employees are likely to engage more in their work owing to the opportunity to think critically about their actions (Chua & Ayoko, 2019).

Findings by Shu (2015) suggest that leaders who are actively involved in the working lives of their employees define the employees' level of work engagement in a significant way. Transformational leaders increase employee engagement because they allow their workers to take part in the decision-making process and to control their job-related tasks (Besieux, Baillien, Verbeke, & Euwema, 2018).



Therefore, employee engagement increases when the employees are given a chance to contribute to the smooth functioning of the sector (Besieux et al., 2018).

Furthermore, transformational leaders contribute to the workers' and organization's wellbeing. The transformational manager builds good behaviour within employees and enhances job satisfaction, which can lead to higher engagement, productivity and increased customer satisfaction (Hayati, Charkhabi, & Naami, 2014). Other studies argue that it is important to observe how employees engage in their work by exploring the differences in personalities (Akhtar, Boustani, Tsivrikos, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). A recent study by Kong and Li (2018) indicates that personality can be linked to work engagement because employees with an active personality invest more efforts in their jobs and tend to perform well. In addition, some studies discovered that personality traits, such as conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience, are positively associated with work engagement (Mroz & Kaleta, 2016). However, neuroticism was found to be negatively associated with work engagement (Mroz & Kaleta, 2016).

Furthermore, Rajput and Talan (2017) assert that openness to experience is more connected to work engagement, because open minded and creative employees produce a higher level of engagement. Employees with active personalities are also more likely to be engaged because they are persistent, inventive and more involved in their job activities (Lv, Lv, Xu, Ning, & Li, 2018). This good personality of employees results in the attainment of success in an organisation (Taylor, 2012). Finally, other scholars are of the view that the function of work engagement is to attain the disparity among personalities of employees and the extent to which they bring more dedication to their work (Babcock–Roberson & Strickland, 2010).

It should be noted that individuals who are highly or less engaged in the workplace are prone to have different traits based on the differences noted in the way they perform their work. Ongore (2014) admits that personality is a significant variable that influences employee's engagement at work as exemplified by the different levels of engagement evident in two or more workers doing the same job in one environment. Therefore, the link between one's traits and engagement is viewed as a primary function of personality (Inceoglu & Warr, 2012). Furthermore, transformational leadership is considered to be related to personality.

According to Weber and Dennison (2014) transformational leadership is positively related to personality traits such as extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness and negatively related to neuroticism.

### **1.5 Challenges within the Consumer Goods Companies**

Recent research by Mishra and Vishvas (2019) indicates that the main challenge within consumer goods companies lies in their inability to determine and analyse the inclusive non-financial measures needed to improve the strategic objectives of the sector. Mishra, Sharma, and Bhaskar (2015) added that consumer goods companies point to another challenge, which is linked to the attempts at adopting accurate talent for employing business strategies. Further challenges faced by consumer goods companies include encountering inelastic competitions, increased customer demands and inconsistent brand loyalty (Chatterjee, Adhikary, Sen, & Kar, 2018).

Other studies claim that consumer demands, policy issues and operational issues account for the challenges faced by consumer goods companies. The findings for a study carried out by Zaki, Theodoulidis, Shapira, Neely, and Tepel (2019) indicate that consumer goods companies encounter challenges due to consumer demands, policy requirements and the search for new opportunities for growth. Further challenges are encountered concerning products and services. Here the consumer goods companies are confronted with the problem of products waste and loss of fresh products that take long to sell out (Huber, Gossmann, & Stuckenschmidt, 2017). In addition, limited stock can lead to revenue loss, especially when clients cannot purchase the products they want (Huber et al., 2017).

The financial crises also have a negative impact on any company's turnover and success (Bussin & Nel, 2015). Consumer goods companies also face challenges related to products supply and customer sales demands (Ross, Khajehnezhad, Otieno, & Aydas, 2017). Moreover, consumer goods companies deal with the competing demands about the introduction of innovative products and enhancing the client's level of services (Jr, Leal, & Thome, 2016).

There also exist challenges related to both environmental sustainability and the business environment in general. Dubihlela and Ngxukumeshe (2016) highlight that consumer goods companies have to bear with the challenge of strict competition and environmental sustainability issues and their possible impact on the products and services offered. The consumer goods companies need to handle the demands of the customers that prefer eco-friendly products (Dubihlela & Ngxukumeshe, 2016). Moreover, consumer goods companies operate in changing business environments where interruptions and unexpected threats are frequently encountered (Agigi, Niemann, & Kotze, 2016).

Goyal and Gupta (2016) are of the opinion that lack of human resources poses a huge challenge for consumer goods companies. The absence of proper human resources in consumer goods companies means that the organisations struggle to find trained staff, promote the wellbeing of staff, develop and motivate employees as well as fail to improve employee commitment and satisfaction (Goyal & Gupta, 2016). However, some studies confirm that consumer goods companies are weighed down by a poor labour market, inflexible recruitment and employment termination practices, and tensions in employee-employer relationships (Eustace & Martins, 2014). A further study by Esther and Katuse (2013) affirms that lack of time management affects the consumer goods companies because failure to use time wisely impacts negatively on products and services, and on the organisations' innovation (Esther & Katuse, 2013).

Finally, scholars such as, Guchait, Zhao, Madera, Hua, and Okumus (2018) posit that lack of employee work engagement poses a serious problem within the consumer goods companies. The associated reduction in work engagement results in low commitment from employees, low performance, lack of job satisfaction and higher intention to quit work (Guchait et al., 2018).

## **1.6 Problem Statement**

The above reviewed studies indicate that various challenges cause lack of engagement amongst employees working in the consumer goods companies. Lack of engagement is a problem because it can lead to absenteeism, low productivity, lowered performance, turnover, unhappy employees and low profits for the company. Employees' work engagement is the epitome of a sustainable organization. Likewise, Bakar, Cooke, and Muenjohn (2018) affirm that engaged workers play a huge role in the creation of an organisation's competitiveness. The study suggests that a lack of engagement among employees can be rectified by carrying out an investigation into the possible effects of transformational leadership and personality on work engagement. The investigation is necessary because the presence of a powerful leadership and highly committed individuals contributes to the success of a consumer goods company (Eustace & Martins, 2014).

The establishment, by consumer goods companies, of a strong leadership, good employee-employer relationship, and high job engagement, will help in accomplishing a competitive advantage (Botha & Mostert, 2014). Moreover, there is a need to have workers who are dedicated, engaged and motivated to generate innovative products and services in order to promote success in the competitive working environment (Mishra et al., 2015).

## **1.7 Research Questions**

Primary and secondary research questions can be derived from the problem statement.

### **1.7.1 Primary Research Questions**

Does transformational leadership and personality have an effect on employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein?

### **1.7.2 Secondary Research Questions**

Do differences exist in the levels of employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein concerning gender?

## **1.8 Research Objectives**

### **1.8.1 Primary Objective**

The main objective sought to determine, by means of non-experimental research design, whether transformational leadership and personality have a significant effect on employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein.

### **1.8.2 Secondary objective**

The secondary objective sought to determine, by means of a non-experimental research design, whether there were differences in the levels of employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein concerning gender:

## **1.9 Formulation of Research Hypothesis**

The following hypotheses are considered in the investigation of the effect of transformational leadership and personality on employees' work engagement.

### ***Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):***

Variances in a Bloemfontein-based consumer goods company's employees' work engagement scores cannot be statistically explained by transformational leadership and personality.

### ***Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>):***

Variances in a Bloemfontein-based consumer goods company's employees' work engagement can be statistically explained by transformational leadership and personality.

### ***Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):***

There are no statistical significant differences in scores achieved on levels of employees' work engagement with regards to biographical variables such as gender.

### ***Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>):***

There is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on the levels of employees' work engagement with regards to biographical variables like gender.

### **1.10 Summary**

The introductory chapter focused on the notion of work engagement in other Countries and South Africa. It also discussed the differences in work engagement with regards to gender. Even though the focus of the study is on the effect of transformational leadership and personality on work engagement, the chapter established a link between these three variables. In addition, the chapter outlined the challenges faced by the consumer goods companies and research-related issues such as the problem statement, research questions, research objectives and research hypothesis. The next chapter focuses on work engagement as an independent variable of the study.

## **Chapter 2: Work Engagement**

### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter focuses on definitions of work engagement, theories and models of work engagement. It also outlines the elements of work engagement, antecedents of work engagement, consequences of work engagement, and signs and symptoms of poor work engagement. The chapter further reviews the differences in work engagement based on biographical variables and the link between personality, transformational leadership and work engagement. Finally, the chapter discusses work engagement in relation to consumer goods companies within the retail sector.

Recent studies rate work engagement as one of the most essential drivers of business achievement (Choi et al., 2015). Employees who are actively involved in their tasks recognise their talents, find creative ways of achieving their goals and are psychologically fully engaged (Bezuidenhout & Schultz, 2013). Researchers, Roberts and Davenport (2002) agree that engaged workers are more likely to be efficient, work beyond their job expectations and produces better outcomes for the organisation.

Moreover, other studies, such as Markos and Sridevi (2010) also confirm that work-engagement is significantly linked to a good performance in any sector and that high-engaged employees produce numerous organisational outcomes such as employee retention, profitability, client loyalty and safety. In addition, the major concern of work engagement is to enhance the engagement of workers resulting in better outcomes for the sector as well as promoting the performance and learning of employees (Eldor, 2016). Researchers agree that work engagement has produced several significant positive effects such as effectiveness, creativity and better job performance for employees (Einarsen, Skogstad, Rorvik, lande, & Nielsen, 2018).

The positive impact of work engagement on employees is evident in the sense that engaged employees show greater attachments to the organization, less intention to leave, more proactive behavior, performs better and obtain higher objective financial returns for the sector (Reissova, Simsova, & Hasova, 2017).

## 2.2 Definitions of Work Engagement

There are various definitions for work engagement. These definitions are outlined below.

- Owen, Boswell, Opton, Franco, and Meriwether (2018) state that work engagement is the dedication of employees to their specific work settings and the authority that an employee receives to make a difference in their work-related tasks.
- Work engagement, as defined by Putra, Cho, and Liu (2017) is a motivational notion that brings positive energy into one's work, which ultimately encourages better engagement that promotes positive organisational performance.
- Gawke, Gorgievski, and Bakker (2017) point out that work engagement is a motivational state and positive energy required by an employee to deal with their work challenges and as to satisfy the needs of their work.
- Work engagement is also defined as the greater amount of energy that an employee has over their work (Keyko, Cummings, Yonge, & Wong, 2016).
- According to Huynh, Metzer, and Winefield (2012), the concept of work engagement originates in the domains of positive psychology, which strives for the optimal operation and human strengths of employees.
- Work engagement is also defined as the process to which employees are believed to be emotionally, physically and cognitively related to their job roles (Bakker, 2011). The term itself highlights the powerful energy that employees direct to achieve personal and organisational goals (Bakker, 2011).
- Bakker and Leiter (2010) consider work engagement as a motivational notion that represents the positive energy of employees at work and strives for the involvement of workers required for problem solving.
- Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) refer to work engagement as an optimistic, fulfilling and work-related state of mind that is associated with vigor, dedication and absorption.
- Work engagement is viewed as a persistent and prevalent effective cognitive state that is not concentrated on any particular object, event, person, or behavior (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002).

Although there are several definitions of work engagement, this study uses Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) that explains work engagement as an optimistic, fulfilling, work-



related state of mind associated with vigor, dedication, and absorption. The above definition's strength lies in the way it underscores the centrality of the three elements that this concept entails in determining employees' engagement and how to reach high levels of performance (Kulikowski, 2017). The definition is also linked with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which is a validated measure of work engagement to rate vigor, dedication and absorption (Kulikowski, 2017).

## **2.3 Theories of Work Engagement**

This section reviews the theories of work engagement. The reviewed theories are the social cognitive theory of work management, conservation resource theory, social exchange theory and the three-factorial theory of work engagement.

### **2.3.1. Social Cognitive Theory**

According to Bandura (2001) the social cognitive theory, which proposes that individuals are self-organising, active, self-reflecting and self-regulating, originates from an agentic perspective. The social cognitive theory consists of a combination of personal resources and motivation with examples including self-efficacy and work engagement (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel, & Martinez, 2011).

Self-efficacy refers to the belief that an individual has capabilities to plan and implement courses of actions needed to attain relevant achievements and its emphasis is on people's abilities and controlling what is yet to come (Lorente, Salanova, Martinez, & Vera, 2014). The social cognitive theory presumes that an organisation's personal resources affect the behaviour of employees by means of goals and aspirations (Lorente et al., 2014). Thus, personal resources account for the behaviour of employees and aid in apprehending the background and significances of these behaviours (Lorente et al., 2014).

Furthermore, employees with a high self-efficacy are more committed, invest more time and energy to their everyday tasks and consider organisational problems as challenges (Salanova et al., 2011). Therefore, as affirmed by Lorente et al. (2014) individuals are likely to engage effectively in their tasks and perform well at their job when they have control in their work environment and when their personal resources are greater.

Other researchers agree with the view that higher degree of self-efficacy lead to more job performance and motivation among employees (Fearon, McLaughlin, & Morris,

2013). Thus, the social cognitive theory recognises the efficacy beliefs as the most personal resource that can describe the intrinsic motivational process such as the work engagement (Salonova et al., 2011).

### **2.3.2 The Conservation Resources Theory (COR)**

According to Hobfoll (2001) the conservation resources theory postulates that individuals aim to acquire, retain, foster and protect valuable resources. The COR theory is also viewed as a motivational theory that describes the behavior of humans on the basis of the evolutionary need to obtain and sustain resources needed for survival (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). The conservation resources theory is best explained using four principles, which are reviewed below.

The first principle of the COR theory emphasises that resource loss is dominant than resource gain (Hobfoll et al., 2018). There are four resources whose function is essential for optimal functioning and these are condition resources (employment), object resources (tools needed for performing a work activity), personal resources (critical skills, self-efficacy and optimism) and energy resources (knowledge and money) (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Thus, the COR theory argues that employees demands facing work demands utilise one of the four resources mentioned in the above to cope with demands or loss of resources. This implies that the more resources employees obtain the better their coping strategies to deal with the demands. The enhanced coping also results in more resources, while the availability of fewer resources results in employees having ineffective coping strategies to the workplace demands, which results in a loss of resources (Alarcon, Edwards, & Menke, 2011).

The second principle of the COR theory stresses that employees are expected to invest resources in order to prevent resource loss and retain resources, with the investment of resources being in the form of acts such enhancing the skills of employees to prepare them for larger workplace challenges (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Nonetheless, employees need to invest more of their resources because the loss of resources leads to less engaged employees who would be dissatisfied, depressed and carrying high levels for anxiety or physiological tensions (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999).

In the third principle, the resource gain becomes significant, although the core of the COR theory focuses on resource loss, the third principle places a high emphasis on

the resource gain in the resilience process (Chen, Westman, & Hobfoll, 2015). Finally, Hobfoll et al. (2018) maintain that in the fourth principle, the resources of employees are drained causing an aggressive self-mode and irrational behavior.

### **2.3.3 The Social Exchange Theory**

The social exchange theory is a comprehensive theory used by social theorists to understand human interactions. Lambe, Wittmann, and Spekman (2001) state that the social exchange theory is one of the ancient theories used to understand social behavior. The theory, in the context of work, means that employees strive to maximise their rewards and minimise their costs within personal and business relationships (Wayne Hill, 1992). Furthermore, the social exchange theory makes the supposition that there are two interested actors that interact to achieve individual's goals that cannot be achieved separately (Lawler & Thye, 1999). The interaction between employees is regarded as an exchange of tangible (goods or money) and intangible resources (friendship), and as such, it should be noted that both employees come together and sustain the working relationship with the hope that this corporate relationship will be rewarding (Lambe et al., 2001).

A study by Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) states that the social exchange theory encompasses rules and norms, and resources and social exchange relationships. More emphasis is on the social relationships where managers are expected to look after their employees with the good social relationship between the two parties leading to effective work behavior and positive employee attitudes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, good interactions between the parties will result in favorable outcomes for the firm and assure a better work engagement (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

### **2.3.4 Three- Factorial theory of Work Engagement**

Research done by Kulikowski (2017) perceived the three-factorial theory as appropriate to describe work engagement. The three-factorial theory of work engagement consists of three valuable elements and these are vigor, dedication and absorption (Kulikowski, 2017). Each of these variables is explained below.

- **The Vigor Element**

The first element of the three-factorial theory of engagement is vigor. It is associated with the employees' determination that enables the greater energy and ability to invest

more effort in their job (Huynh et al., 2012). Other researchers also note that vigor consists of a great amount of energy and mental resilience that is invested in a task (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Thus, vigor relates to one's desire to devote more effort in their work and the determination used when confronted with challenges (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

- **The Dedication Element**

The second element of the three-factorial theory of engagement is popularly known as dedication. Dedication is regarded as a sign of significance, passion, pride and contest, and it is normally measured as an advanced step of involvement (Li, Zhong, Chen, Xie, & Mao, 2014). Dedication is also referred to as the amount of difficulty and motivation that employees encounter through the deeper engagement with their hard work (Vallieres, McAuliffe, Hyland, Galligan, & Ghee, 2017).

- **The Absorption Element**

Selander (2015) describes the absorption element as the process where employees are regarded as more attached to their job roles. A study by Schaufeli et al. (2002) confirms that absorption is realised when an individual is fully focused and captivated in their work. This happens more often when there is a very limited time and thus making it difficult for separating oneself from work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Amongst all theories of work engagement discussed above, the three-factorial theory of engagement is chosen as the basis of the study because the theory contains all three elements of work engagement namely vigor, dedication, absorption. The theory also connects with the chosen definition and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) used to measure work engagement.

Finally, the definition by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) refers to work engagement as an optimistic, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is associated with vigor, dedication, and absorption, hence the decision to use the three factorial-theory of engagement in this study.

## **2. 4 The Models of Work Engagement**

This section discusses the models of work engagement and these are: the job-demand resources model of work engagement (JD-R Model); the proposed model that links psychological capital to work engagement through positive emotions; and the

comprehensive model of burnout and engagement (COBE). Each of the models is defined and outlined in accordance to the reviewed literature below.

#### **2.4.1. Job-Demand Resources Model of Work Engagement (JD-R Model)**

The job-demand resources model is widely known for explaining the construct of work engagement, because it can determine the amount of control that workers have beyond their activities (Ariza-Montes, Arjona-Fuentes, Han, & Law 2018). The JD-R model consists of two assumptions. The first assumption is that job resources are realised when employees become more engaged in their tasks, and when they receive sufficient support from their co-workers and managers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The second assumption is that job resources can be prominent and motivate employees when they are faced with high job demands such as mental and emotional demands and work overload (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Available literature, such as De Braine and Roodt (2011), support the view that the power of the JD-R model relies on the ability to comprehend two matching processes (personal resources & Job demands) that have a huge impact on the well-being of employees. Furthermore, job demands are the first process that weakens employee's mental and physical resources, which commonly causes burnout (De Braine & Roodt, 2011). As a result, the JD-R model asserts that high demanding work environments and the associated high psychological demands influence employees to have less control in the completion of their job demands (Goodboy, Martin, Knight, & Long, 2017).

Nonetheless, job resources are known to increase work engagement and likely to lead to an enhanced organisational commitment (De Braine & Roodt, 2011). The job resources are physical, psychosocial or organisational parts of a job (Seppala et al., 2009). In addition, the job resources serve three purposes, which are to: (a) lower the high demands of the job; (b) serve as a requirement for the accomplishment of necessary work goals; (c) and to promote growth, development and learning (Seppala et al., 2009).

Furthermore, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) noted that the job demands are linked to the physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that requires cognitive and emotional effort, which in turn results in physiological and psychological costs. The JDR model also postulates that the Job demands entails job overload, time

pressure, role conflict and emotional demands (Li et al., 2014). Finally, existing research indicates that job demands strengthen the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Li et al., 2014). The following figure shows the JD-R model of work engagement.

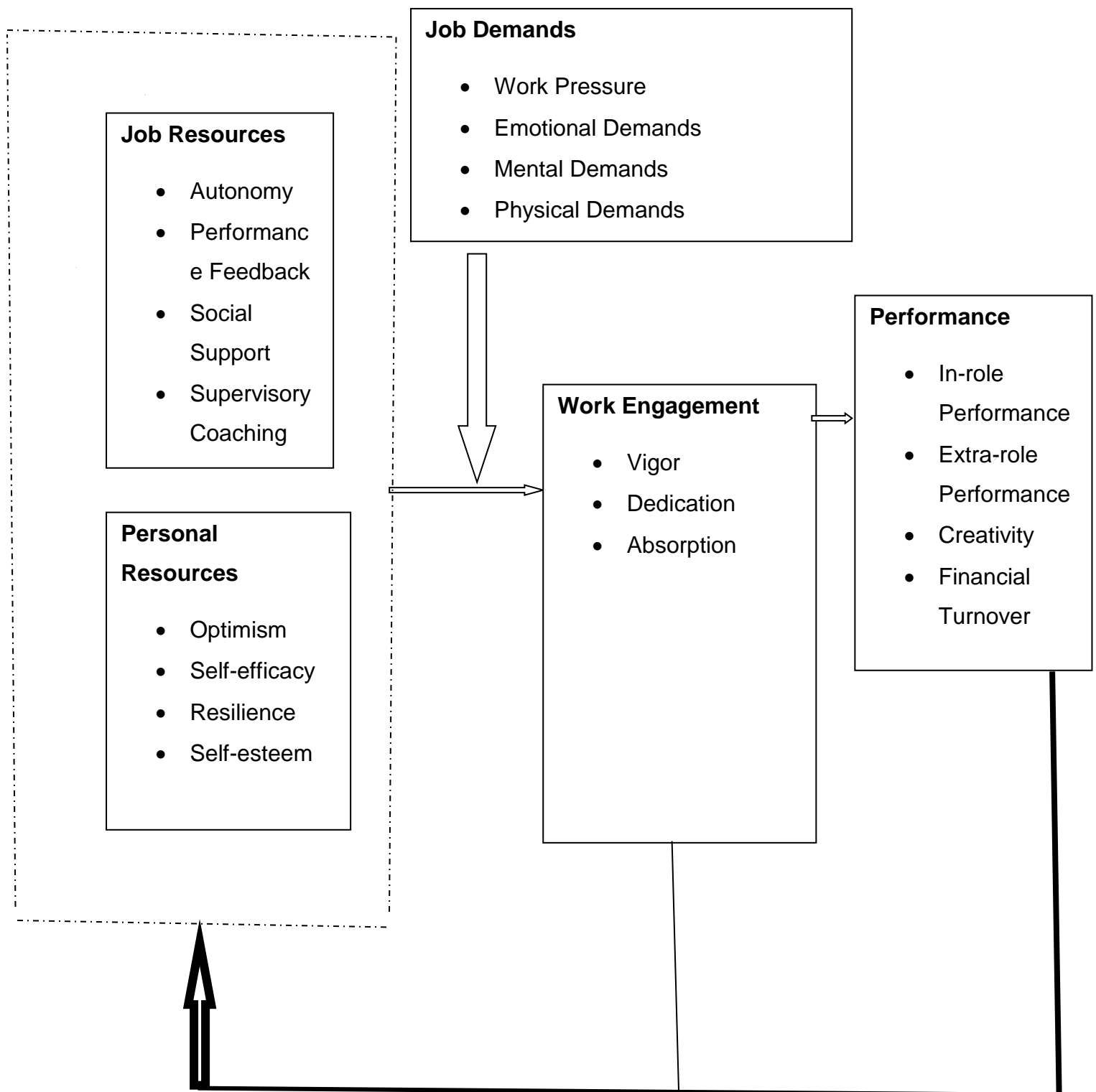


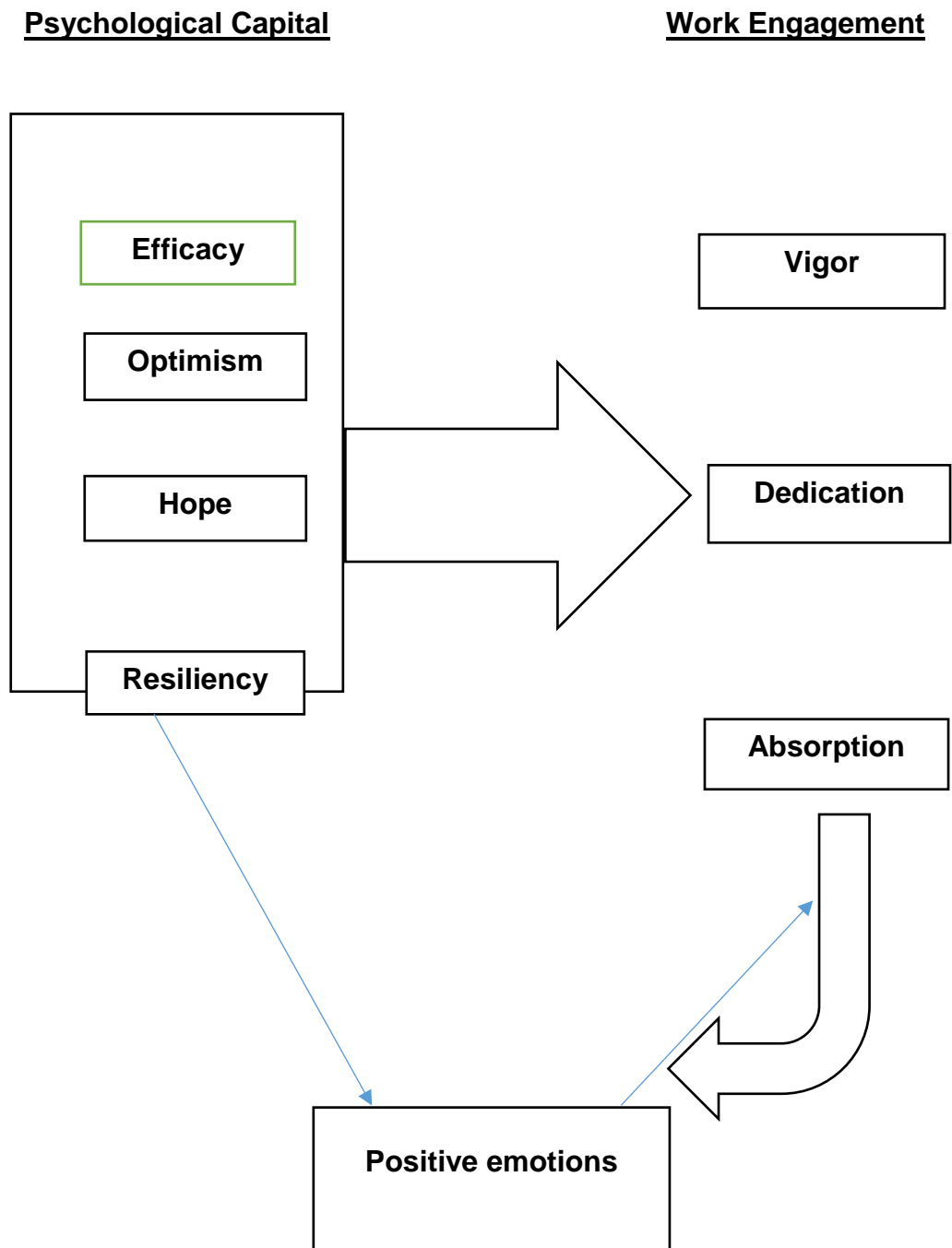
Figure 2.1. The JD-R model of work engagement: Bakker & Demerouti (2008).

#### **2.4.2. The Proposed Model linking Psychological Capital with Work Engagement through Positive Emotions**

The proposed model linking psychological capital with work engagement through positive emotions asserts that psychological capital plays a central role in affecting work engagement by using positive emotions (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). The first efficacy aspect of PsyCap, is considered essential for generating positive Job outcomes.

Efficacy in employees is connected with the possession of a great amount of energy and the efforts needed to complete the necessary task. The greater the efficacy, the more an employee is captivated in a duty. In this sense, efficacy is connected with all three components of work engagement, vigor, dedication and absorption (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). The second optimism aspect of PsyCap indicates that when a positive result is anticipated from a job, individuals are more likely to be present beforehand to complete a certain task. The better the optimism, the higher the prediction of commitment through dedication and absorption mechanisms of work engagement. The third aspect of the PsyCap, known as hope, is linked to the vigor and dedication components of work engagement. It is maintained that without the strong presence of hope, a person is unable to find useful ways to achieve their goals as well as to deal with obstacles confronting them. Lastly, resilience as the fourth aspect of PsyCap is connected to all three components of work engagement, vigor, dedication and absorption. This connection is presumed to result from the enhancement of an individual's personal resources needed to deal with the demands of the job and to get rid of the negative impacts of previous work burdens (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). The following figure illustrate the proposed model linking psychological capital with work engagement through positive emotions.





*Figure 2.2.* Proposed model linking psychological capital with work engagement through positive emotions (Bakker & Leiter, 2010).

### **2.4.3 The Comprehensive Model of Burnout and Engagement (COBE)**

Both burnout and work engagement are psychological components that can be incorporated into one comprehensive model because the two components are important for predicting the wellness of employees at work (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). The correlation between burnout and engagement has gained significant popularity over the past 15 years and this is because the two conceptions focuses on the same principles, energy, involvement and efficacy (Taris, Ybema, & van Beek, 2017).

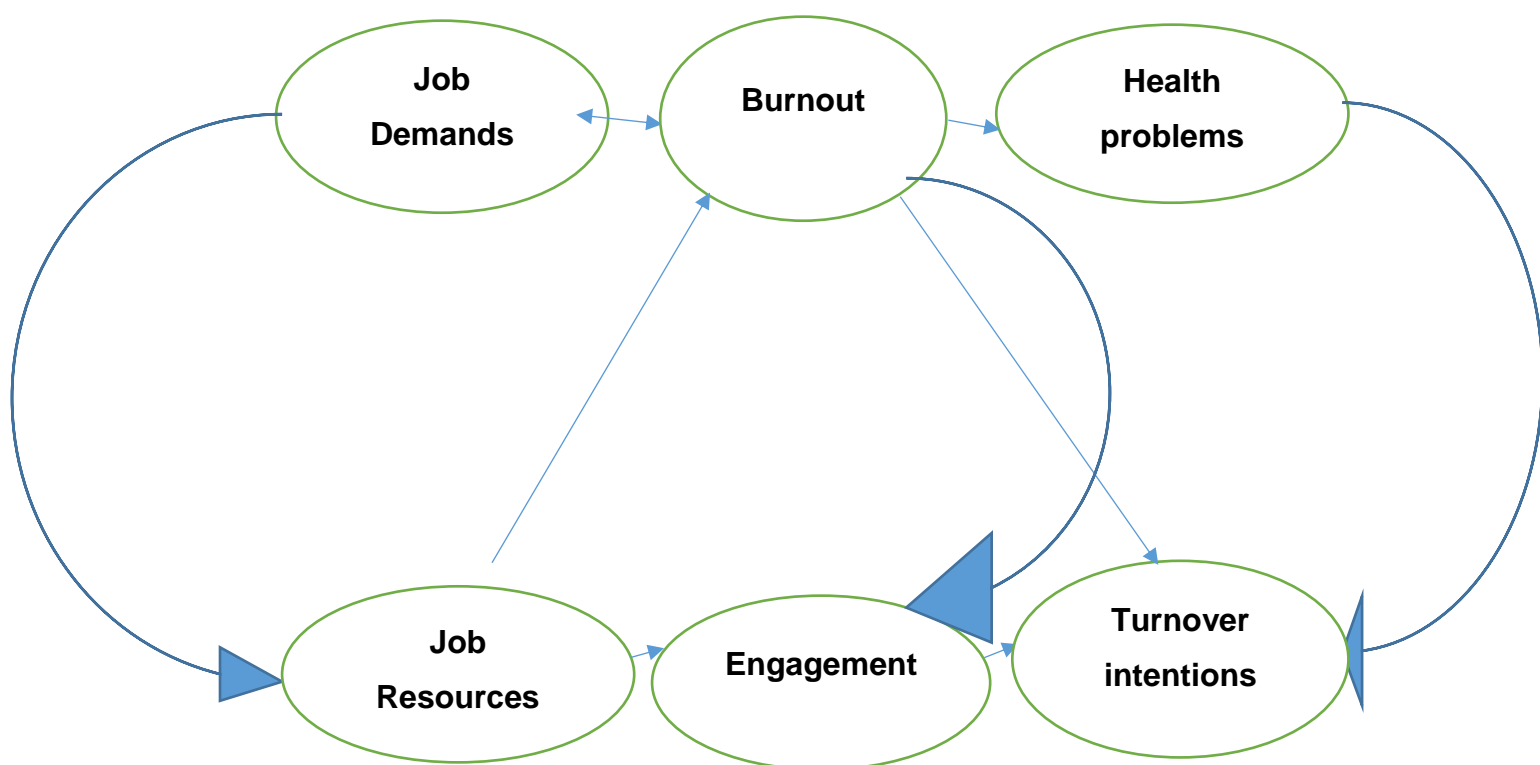
On the one hand, work engagement is a motivational state and a positive energy required by an employee to deal with the challenges of their work as well as to satisfy the needs of their work (Gawke et al., 2017). On the other hand, burnout is referred as a psychological pattern characterised by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and decreased personal achievement that appears among employees working in the same environment (Taris et al., 2017). Nonetheless, Rothmann and Joubert (2007) postulate that the comprehensive model of burnout and engagement (COBE) connects both types of psychological work-related processes, which are the energetic and motivational process. The energetic process is part of burnout connected with job demands and health problems of employees while the motivational process is a component of job resources linked with work engagement needed to achieve organisational outcomes (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

The energetic process employs a cognitive-emotional framework to explain the performance of employees when they are under high job stress. It also emphasises the stable performance accompanied with sustained effort through demanding work circumstances. For instance, employees experiencing high job demands make use of performance protection tools together with increased costs or accepts decreased performance with reduction in costs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In addition, burnout as part of the energetic process is explained by the demands of the job and insufficient resources linked to health problems and turnover intentions (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

A recent study by Schaufeli (2017) agrees that job demands lead to unfavorable outcomes for employees such as sickness absence, poor performance and low organizational commitment. This implies that employees experience a decreased energy when their job demands are extreme (Schaufeli, 2017).

Furthermore, the motivational process as part of work engagement connects job resources with organisational outcomes. Job resources can be regarded as an intrinsic motivational role because it encourages the development, learning and growth of employees or can act as an extrinsic motivational role because of its active role in achieving work goals (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Other studies note, in concurrence that job resources enhance employee motivation, engagement and organisational commitment (Korunka, Kubicek, Schaufeli, & Hoonakker, 2009).

Furthermore, job resources play an important role employee engagement. Initially job resources enhances the energy in employees and thus motivate them to be engaged with the effort of producing positive results (Schaufeli, 2017). Job resources also satisfy the important needs of employees such as autonomy at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources also create favorable outcomes that include organisational commitment, intention to remain, high work performance, extra-role behavior and employee safety (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).The following figure illustrates the comprehensive model of burnout and energy that consists of the two psychological processes, the energetic and motivational processes.



*Figure 2.3.* The comprehensive model of burnout and engagement explaining the two psychological processes, the energetic and motivational processes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004)

All three models of work engagement are chosen as the basis of the study. The JD-R Model is chosen as basis of this study as a model of work engagement because the unique combination of personal and job resources predicts work engagement and this model has been rated as one of the best models that can be used to evaluate any form of job (De Braine & Roodt, 2011). Research also reveals that work and personal resources are likely to have a positive influence on employees' engagement when the job demands are at a higher level with work engagement in this case turning up to be a good predictor of job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Furthermore, the JD-R model of work engagement is relevant to this study because the definition of work engagement by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) explains work engagement as an optimistic, fulfilling, work-related state of mind associated with vigor, dedication, and absorption.

This connection is valid because the JDR model consists of the three components of work engagement and these are vigor, dedication and absorption. The job-demand resources model is widely known for modifying the construct of work engagement, because it can determine the amount of control that workers have beyond their activities (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). The proposed model, which relates psychological capital to work engagement through positive emotions, is chosen because it is an extension of the JD-R model of work engagement. The above-mentioned model is included as part of the JD-R model because the psychological components are viewed as personal resources in the JD-R model connected to the three components of work engagement namely, vigor, dedication and absorption.

The comprehensive model of burnout and engagement is included under work engagement because the model is also connected to the job demands-resource model. Both the comprehensive model of burnout and engagement (COBE) and the job demands-resource model (JD-R) focus on job resources and job demands that can predict work engagement. Furthermore, both burnout and work engagement are, as mentioned in the above, the two psychological components that can be incorporated as a one comprehensive model because the two components are important for predicting the wellness of employees at work (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Finally, other studies support the view that burnout and engagement represent high interest subjects for researchers and have vital implications on employee's health and workforce performance (Maricutoiu, Sulea, & Iancu, 2017).

## **2.5 Five Core Elements of Work Engagement**

According to Woods and West (2010) work engagement comprises five main elements that assist in describing engagement amongst workers. These five elements consist of urgency, focus, intensity, adaptability and personal initiative (Woods & West, 2010).

Woods and West (2010) discusses the five elements as follows:

- **Urgency-** refers to an employee's desire to ensure that a task is completed immediately.
- **Focus-** refers to the ability to direct energy to what seems to be essential and exciting.
- **Intensity-** emphasises the significance and high engagement in a task.

- **Adaptability**- refers to a state where an individual is active and performs descriptions of the duties.
- **Personal Initiative**- in this element, an employee is regarded as an active thinker who suggests innovative ways to improve the image of the organisation.

## **2.6 Antecedents of Work Engagement**

Saks (2006) points out that antecedents of work engagement include; Job characteristics rewards and recognition, perceived organisational and supervisor support, and distributive and procedural justice.

### **2.6.1 Job Characteristics**

Job characteristics consist of five components and these are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback (Saks, 2006). These job characteristics offer an employee the chance to apply various skills and make better contributions to the organisation (Singhal, Bala, & Sarawgi, 2018). In addition, employee engagement rises when performed work tasks score higher on the core job characteristics (Singhal et al., 2018).

### **2.6.2 Rewards and Recognition**

Both financial (salary increment, bonus and additional allowance) and non-financial factors (recognition and appreciation) have a positive impact on employee motivation and engagement (Lei, Basit, & Hassan, 2018). Employees achieve satisfaction and engage further in their work when remunerated fairly, appreciated and recognised for their hard work (Lei et al., 2018). Furthermore, Kurniawan and Hutami (2019) underscore the need for rewards and recognition in order to control the attitudes and behaviour of employees, and that salary increments are important towards improving engagement in any organisation. Therefore, sufficient recognition and rewards for employee performances will lead to higher levels of work engagement (Sohrabizadeh & Sayfour, 2014).

### **2.6.3 Perceived Organisational and Supervisor Support**

Recent research by Akingbola and Van den Berg (2019) indicates that employee's perceptions of organisational support and commitment can enhance engagement. The cognitive, emotional and physical energy that employees dedicate to their work relies on the amount of support and resources they receive from their supervisors and

the organisation (Akingbola & Van den Berg ,2019). As a result, a supportive supervisor who offers assistance when needed and provides information and positive feedback to employees enhances the levels of worker's engagement (Vera, Martinez, Lorente, & Chambel, 2016). Moreover, high perceived organisational support for employees results in increased job engagement, job satisfaction, a positive mood, improved performance and reduced turnover intention (Akgunduz, Alkan, & Gok, 2018).

#### **2.6.4 Procedural and Distributive Justice**

Researchers, Kim and Park (2017) refer to procedural justice as the fair decision making processes and distributive justice as fair results received by employees. Both procedural and distributive justice affect employee's psychological well-being and engagement in a positive way and create fair working surroundings (Kim & Park, 2017).Distributive and procedural justice is concerned with the rule of fairness and states that employees are more likely to be engaged in their work if they are treated fairly (Saks, 2006). Employees who experience justice in what they do tend to be fair and demonstrate high levels of individual engagement (Saks, 2006). In addition, Aktar and Pangil (2017) note that distributive justice can predict work and organisational engagement, while procedural justice is the important predictor of organisational engagement.

#### **2.7 Consequences of work engagement**

Work engagement can result in favourable outcomes for the employees and the organisation. Sohrabizadeh and Sayfour (2014) point out that work engagement yields favourable outcomes, such as job satisfaction and the absence of intention to quit work (Sohrabizadeh & Sayfour, 2014).

This implies that highly satisfied employees are connected more with their workforce regardless of the implemented formal reward systems and thus hold reduced intentions to move away from work (Sohrabizadeh & Sayfour, 2014).

In addition, de Oliveira and da Costa Rocha (2017) confirm that employees who are engaged in their work concentrate more on their physical, cognitive and emotional development and are highly likely to gain superior performance. The more engaged workers perform harder and pay attention to the responsibilities assigned to them, the more they show higher levels of extra role behaviour and perform above their

responsibilities (de Oliveira & da Costa Rocha ,2017). In this way, work engagement causes employees to remain for a longer period within the organisation, which contributes to less time consumed in recruitment of new workers (Saunders & Tiwari, 2014).

Furthermore, work engagement results in the establishment of highly committed individuals, customer satisfaction, loyalty, profitability and efficiency (Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2013). Coetzee and van Dyk (2018) also state that high levels of work engagement help employees to be practical in dealing with difficult situations and also creates a favourable social environment. A recent study by Rana, Pant, and Chopra (2019) observes that work engagement organisational outcomes can be in the form of improved employee satisfaction, productivity and business success. At the same time, greater levels of work engagement enhance employee's connection with the organisation, their psychological safety, and produces innovative behaviour and resourceful employees (Rana et al., 2019). Finally, Hanaysha (2016) also noted work engagement as necessary because it enhances the physical and psychological wellbeing of employees in any organisation.

Therefore, old and new research highlights the positive impact of work engagement. On the one hand, past research, such as Ram and Prabhakar (2011), is of the opinion that work engagement contributes to the positive feelings of employees and makes work meaningful as well as create the ability to cope with work overload. Shuck and Wollard (2010) also note that work engagement results in more productive employees, profitable organisations, safer working environment, healthier employees, loyal employees, and creates punctual and ever-present employees who are re eager to indulge in discretionary efforts.

On the other hand, recent research, such as Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedhaouria, and Courcy (2019), underscores that work engagement promotes problem solving skills, creative ideas, and provides an opportunity for employees to utilise their cognitive resources in search of new solutions to issues.

## **2.8 Signs and Symptoms of Poor Work-Engagement**

Saunders and Tiwari (2014) note that there are visible signs and symptoms that cause poor work engagement within an organisation. These signs are:

- Poor individual appraisal/development,



- Lack of advancement opportunities,
- Lack of trust and confidence in senior management,
- Lack of recognition,
- Poor work/life balance,
- Poor environment-office hostilities,
- Poor line management-no drive or direction,
- Mismatch between job and person,
- Few career development opportunities,
- Role Ambiguity and
- Bad behaviour by the boss/es.

## **2.9 Differences in Work Engagement with regard to Biographical Variables**

Employee engagement at work is an essential aspect for many sectors. Employers draw on employees with a high level of engagement to develop and sustain an innovative stable company (Reissova et al., 2017). In this context, however, gender differences play a role and both females and males enter the workplace with different desires. Cifre, Vera, Rodriqueze-sanchez, and Pastor (2013) assert that gender is connected with the way we identify ourselves as human beings that is male and female. A study by Kong (2009) explains that females and males differ in ways they engage in their work, males scores more than females on levels of vigor and absorption while females scores higher than males on levels of dedication.

In addition, female workers are viewed as more engaged types in organisations than male workers. Garg (2014) suggests that female workers are likely to gain more fulfilment than male workers. However, some research indicates that males are more involved in their work than females (Attridge, 2009). Recent studies (Reissova et al., 2017) also note that females in many organisations show high levels of engagement and more loyalty than males.

Conditions in numerous organisations show that older and experienced colleagues possess high levels of engagement than younger colleagues. Research reveals that, in most organisations, older workers appear to be more engaged and committed than younger and middle aged workers (Haley, Mostert, & Els, 2013). Indeed, age is major predictor of work engagement. Studies indicate that age regulates the connection between job characteristics and job engagement. For instance, more challenging and

high volume duties in the workplace are found to be highly suitable and exciting for young employees than for older employees (Finkelstein, Truxillo, Fraccaroli, & Kanfer, 2015). However, Kim and Kang (2017) believe that older workers show high level of engagement in their work than younger workers. Furthermore, other studies reveal that workers of different race have various levels of engagement. For example, people of colour are likely to see themselves as discriminated against and not treated fairly by their white co-workers and vice versa, which in turn lower their efforts to engage in their work (Jones & Harter, 2005).

Researchers also postulate that the form of education that employee possess has a possible link with work engagement and in particular the absorption component of work engagement (Tanskanen, Taipale, & Anttila, 2016). Furthermore, research on job position and work engagement shows that a worker's position in the organisation can predict their level of engagement. For example, employees with lower positions in a short-term employment contract show higher levels of engagement as compared to those in higher positions with permanent employment contracts (Tanskanen et al., 2016). Tshilongamulenzhe and Takawira (2015) also agree that many organisations rely on highly skilled and competently engaged workers in order to adopt essential strategies needed for a better production.

Finally, Jaworek (2017) also confirms this in the view that highly skilled workers, such as managers, show high levels of engagement than their junior workers.

## **2.10 The link between Transformational leadership, Personality and Work Engagement**

Shu (2015) argues that leaders who often interact with their followers and directs their working lives play a critical role in defining employees' level of work engagement. Ariani (2014) claims that transformational leadership is necessary for enhancing employees' levels of engagement at work and that this can result in higher organisational performance (Ariani, 2014). Moreover, more involved employees are known to have a special connection with their work events and capable of handling their work demands (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). Engaged workers are also energetic, happy about their work, focused and more absorbed in their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Finally, Attridge (2009) notes that engaged individuals possess

positive emotions in their work, view their work as personally valuable, can control their workload easily and are optimistic about their future work.

Transformational leadership is associated with various positive impacts on employees and the organisation. Wang, Li, and Li (2017) note that transformational leaders improve the work engagement of employees because they pay attention to employee's essential needs and offer support in their work. Tims, Bakker, and Xanthopoulou (2011) affirm that transformational leadership focuses on the improvement of employee involvement with company goals, employees' feelings of involvement, and commitment and performance. Thus, transformational leaders encourage employees to focus on and engage in their meaningful work by communicating the vision and goals of the company (Kim & Shin, 2017). The leaders enhance work engagement because they inspire and care about their employees (Buil, Martinez, & Matute, 2019). Furthermore, Enwereuzor, Ugwu, and Eze (2018) confirm that transformational leadership affects the work engagement of employees positively since employees become more engaged when they are supported and motivated by their managers as well as when they perceive their work to be more attractive and meaningful.

Finally, Caniels, Semeijn, and Renders (2018) also agree that transformational managers contribute positively to employees' engagement at work because such managers ensure that employees experience a pleasant state of mind in their jobs.

Past research proposed that personality dimensions influence individuals' engagement at work and transformational leaders. Evidence suggests that high extraversion, agreeableness, openness and conscientiousness and low neuroticism is connected to high levels of work engagement (Akhtar et al., 2015). In contrast, Woods and Sofat (2013) predict certain traits of big-five personality traits and suggest their link with work engagement. Employees with high levels of extraversion are more likely to respond positively to their work and show positive emotions, while individuals with high levels of neuroticism display negative emotions (Woods & Sofat, 2013). However, conscientious employees demonstrate hardworking qualities, which indicates a sense of dedication and absorption at work (Woods & Sofat, 2013). Moreover, recent research asserts that managers who are highly extraverted, more open to experience, more agreeable, highly conscientious and less neurotic adopt a transformational leadership style (Prochazka, Vaculik, Smutny, & Jezek, 2018).

Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, and Gutermann (2015) also notes that the extraversion trait of personality is positively related with idealised and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership. Thus, highly extraverted managers tend to be directive and perceived as role models by their employees (Deinert et al., 2015).

Finally, more agreeable managers are linked with the idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership because they are easy to trust and more concerned about the needs of their employees (Simic & Ristic, 2017). Openness to experience has is linked with individualised consideration because managers who are open-minded tend to show more concern for their subordinates and acknowledge the differences in others (Deinert et al., 2015).

## **2.11 Consumer Goods Companies within the Retail Sector and Work Engagement**

Chapter 1 of this study discussed the notion of work engagement and the problems encountered within the consumer goods companies. In this section, the study focuses further on consumer goods companies within the retail industries and work engagement. The discussion on retail sectors is included in this section because consumer goods companies are part of the broad retail sector. Nickson, Price, Baxter-Ried, and Hurrell (2017) point out that workers at retail stores are viewed as low skilled, receive low incentives and have limited career opportunities. Although more emphasis should be placed in work engagement in most organisations, it has been found out that not much interest, within the retail sectors, is placed on the engagement of employees (Kazimoto, 2016). As a result, Jacobs, Renard, and Snelgar (2014) state that work engagement within the retail sectors is linked with the critical behaviors of employees, employees' creativity, knowledge and innovation, behaviors that are highly needed to improve the productivity of the retail firms and customer satisfaction.

Employee behavior is important in the retail industry. Jacobs et al. (2014) point out that the behavior of employees, such as product knowledge, listening to clients and delivering on what was promised promotes customer satisfaction. This retail worker behavior can only be delivered by workers who are mentally and emotionally engaged in their work and dedicate more efforts to their work. Nonetheless, retail firms invest more money towards ensuring that customers are happy and satisfied at all times

while disregarding the negative effects of workers' wellbeing, which causes a decreased engagement in the organization (Alatalo et al., 2018). In addition, Henly and Lambert (2014) assert that retail work is a form of a work that consists of long working hours and involves working during weekends, such that this working in this environment can pose a serious health threat to retail workers and result in reduced productivity, more sick leaves, absenteeism and less engagement (Henly & Lambert, 2014).

However, as James, McKeechnie, and Swanberg (2011) emphasise, jobs in the retail sector require employees to work long hours and can have a serious negative effects leading to less engaged workers, yet more engaged retail employees are likely to be happy with their work, treat customers well, more productive and to remain in the organisation for a longer period.

## **2.12 Summary**

This chapter focused on work engagement as a dependent variable of this study. It outlined the concept of work engagement based on several definitions in order to have a better understanding of the concept. The chapter also reviewed the theories and models of work engagement. The elements of work engagement, antecedents of work engagement, consequences of work engagement, signs and symptoms of poor work engagement and differences in work engagement concerning biographical variables were also discussed. Lastly, the chapter considered the connection between transformational leadership, personality and work engagement as well as the consumer goods companies within the retail sectors and work engagement.

The next chapter focuses on transformational leadership.

## Chapter 3: Transformational Leadership

### 3.1 Introduction

According to Mary (2005), James MacGregor Burns introduced the transformational style to leadership through the book *Leadership* (1978), in an attempt to motivate leaders and followers to reach an advanced set of moral values and goals. Since then, the theory of transformational leadership has continued to gain vast interest (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2015). Recent research proves that the main goal of the transformational leadership is to promote self-management, which means that followers are challenged to be creative and think on their own (Hethand, Hethand, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2018).

Transformational leadership is linked with follower's creativity and the term itself has been coined based on the positive motivational impact it has on the followers (Kark, Van Dijk, & Vashdi, 2018). It is envisioned to play a vital role in the positive work behavior of followers (Hethand et al., 2018). In addition, transformational leadership regards leaders as intellectual stimulating and enabling leaders to encourage new developments and critical thinking (Hamstra, VanYperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014).

A recent study by Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu (2018) posits that transformational leadership was developed as an ongoing process to define the cooperative relations between the leaders and followers. Leaders and followers work together with the specific focus on collective interests that enhance a high level of morality and motivation within their work (Hoch et al., 2018). This type of leadership allows leaders to invest in higher goals seeking to match organisational needs (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2015). Thus, the important role of transformational leaders is to ensure that followers are motivated, and have more power, more creativity and interaction (Hethand et al., 2018). Likewise, transformational leadership emphasises the role of leaders in improving the skills of followers and ensuring team efficiency (Hamstra et al., 2014).

Thus, this chapter outlines the various definitions of transformational leadership and discusses its models as well. The models considered in this chapter are; the path-goal model of transformational leadership, the value-Centered model of transformational leadership, Fiedler's contingency model of transformational leadership and the full-range model of transformational leadership. In addition, this chapter reviews the steps of the transformational leadership process, characteristics of the transformational leaders, advantages and criticisms of transformational leadership, and the nature of transformational leadership amongst employees in the consumer goods companies.

### **3.2 Definitions of Transformational Leadership**

The various definitions of transformational leadership are outlined below.

- Transformational leadership is defined as the commonly applied effective form of leadership to alleviate tensions in the organisation and to enhance employee performance (Farahnak, Ehrhart, Torres, & Aarons, 2019).
- Transformational leadership is viewed as a form of leadership in which followers are motivated by leaders to determine the goals that are attainable and to work above what is expected (Buil et al., 2019).
- Foulkes-Bert, Volk, Garzon, and Pride (2019) assert that the concept of transformational leadership relates to the level of power that a leader possess in order to form interpersonal relationships with followers aimed at ensuring a proper functioning in all levels of responsibility and work circumstances.
- Transformational leadership refers to an interactive leadership whereby employees gain trust from leaders, show respect and are encouraged to perform further than the job expectations in efforts to realise organisational goals (Boamah, Laschinger, Wong, & Clarke, 2018).
- Transformational leadership is also referred to as a technique necessary for generating and sustaining a framework for developing human capacity (Nazir, Akram, & Arshad, 2014). Transformational leaders identifies core values and dedication, which result in the production of improved capacity (Nazir et al., 2014).
- McCormick and Burch (2008) define transformational leadership as the belief that individuals need to be motivated to perform and develop beyond what is anticipated of them.

- Transformational leadership is described as the actual process where leaders take an effort to assist their followers to achieve an upper step of moral obligation by keeping up to the mutual vision of the organisation (Marturano & Gosling, 2008).
- Sadler (2003) considers the term transformational leadership as a tool needed to deal with change and a way of involving the follower's commitment in the domain of shared values and a united vision.
- Bass (2000) refers to transformational leadership as a form of leadership in which followers are inspired to maximise their self-interests for the benefit of their organisation. This form of leadership relies heavily on achievement, self-actualisation and ideals, and is characterised by idealised influences, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised considerations (Bass, 2000).

The study draws on Bass' definition of transformational leadership for various reasons. Firstly, this definition is used widely by researchers and has gained more interest in leadership studies. For example, recent research by Eisenberg, Post, and DiTomaso (2019) defines transformational leadership as a style that allows followers to realise their potential and accomplish maximum levels of performance (Eisenberg et al., 2019). The leader's behaviour consists of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Eisenberg et al., 2019). Other studies note that transformational leadership consider Bass' definition as linking leadership with idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration aspects applied by the leader to transform the organisation (White, Pearson, Bledsoe, & Hendricks, 2017).

In addition, a recent research by Boamah and Tremblay (2018) applied Bass' definition of transformational leadership as a leadership style where transformational leader's behaviour consists of the idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration elements used to encourage followers to perform beyond their job expectations in order to achieve the goals of the company.

Secondly, Bass's definition of transformational leadership is aligned with the elements of transformational leadership styles discussed in the full-range model of transformational leadership, which is used as the basis of the study. It should also be pointed out that Bass' (2000) definition of transformational leadership consists of four



elements, which are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. These are the same elements discussed under the full-range model of transformational leadership and form part of the leadership behaviour scale that measures the transformational leadership. Hence, the definition was chosen as the basis of this study.

### **3.3. Models of Transformational Leadership**

This section discusses the path-goal model of transformational leadership, value-centered model of transformational leadership, Fiedler's contingency model of transformational leadership and the full-range model of transformational leadership in an attempt to understand transformational leadership.

#### **3.3.1 The Path-Goal Model of Transformational Leadership**

The path-goal model began with the vital claim that the effect of leadership in an organisation is inclined with the idea that leaders' actions seek to meet their employees' goals. This model pays attention to the motivational approach of the valence theory that employees are encouraged to behave through some rational calculation of positive outcomes and actions regarding their self-interests (Rickards & Clark, 2006).

According to House (1996), the path-goal model is a model of supervision, which focuses on the association between managers and minor employees in their work. The main concern of the path-goal model lies with how managers affect the motivation and satisfaction of employees in lower positions.

It is a two way relationship model that highlights the managers' effects on minor employees and not the effects of leaders on work units (House, 1996). In addition, Dubrin (2010) affirms the view that the path-goal model defines what the manager is expected to do in any given position within an organisation in order to create a high morale and maximize productivity.

In essence, the manager directs employees onto the path leading to the achievement of the desired goals and by doing so the job satisfaction and performance of employees improves (Dubrin, 2010).

Furthermore, Northhouse (2010) points out that the main purpose of the path-goal model of transformational leadership is to clarify the way managers can assist

employees to find the right path towards the achievement of goals using the best behavior or style that will meet the needs of employees. Recent studies posit that the path-goal model conceives the leadership behavior or styles as powerful in that the managers' adoption of this leadership behavior leads to a change in the attitude, behavior and motivation of employees (Farhan, 2018). The path- goal model is mainly used to indicate a suitable managerial style or behavior that best suits the employees and work environment as well as lead to the achievement of the desired goals (Rehmani & Khokhar, 2018).

The model consists of three elements and these are the leaders behavior, followers' characteristics and task characteristics (Northhouse, 2010). The first element of the path-goal model, the leader's behaviour, is made up of four types of leadership behavior or styles, namely, the directive, supportive, participative and achievement oriented, which the manager employs to create a clear path for achievement of personal and task goals (Northhouse, 2010). In the directive behavior/style, the manager informs employees of the important performance expectations, while in the supportive behavior style, the manager becomes supportive and attends to employees' problems (Bratton, Grint, & Nelson, 2005). In addition, the participative style involves the manager's empowerment of employees and allowing them to take part in the decision making, while in the achievement orientated style, the manager sets high goals and motivates employees to aim for high performance principles as well as demonstrate high levels of confidence (Bratton et al., 2005).

The second element, characteristics of the followers/ employees, focuses on the need for affiliation, self-perceived levels of the task and desire for control. These characteristics are essential in explaining whether the employee perceives the behavior of the leader as contributing to satisfaction gained at work (Northhouse, 2010).

Finally, the third element, the task characteristics, involves the follower's task design, the formal authority of the company and the primary work group, which all assist in enhancing the employee's motivation (Northhouse, 2010).

Hence, the path-goal leadership model provides a platform for managers or leaders to actively work towards creating a high team effectiveness and enhance member's motivation by providing clear directions, rewards and flexible work structures (Dixon &

Hart, 2010). The following figure illustrates the path-goal model of transformational leadership.

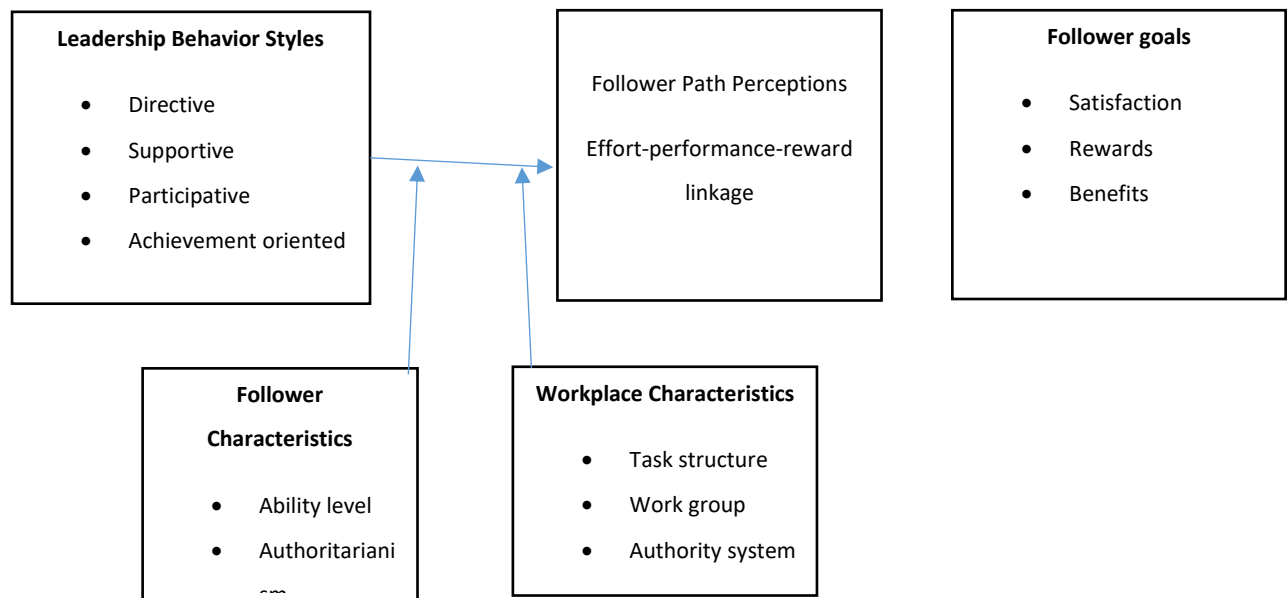


Figure 3.1. The path-goal model of transformational leadership (Bratton et al., 2005).

### 3.3.2 The Value-Centred Model of Transformational Leadership

The value-centred model forms part of the transformational leadership approach, which emphasises leader's role in maintaining high levels of motivation and morality for the team and the organisation (Maier, Tavanti, Bombard, Gentile, & Bradford, 2015). A study by Shatalebi and Yarmohammadian (2011) indicates that the main focus of the value-centred model is on the leaders' and followers' principles that contribute to success and stability in an organisation.

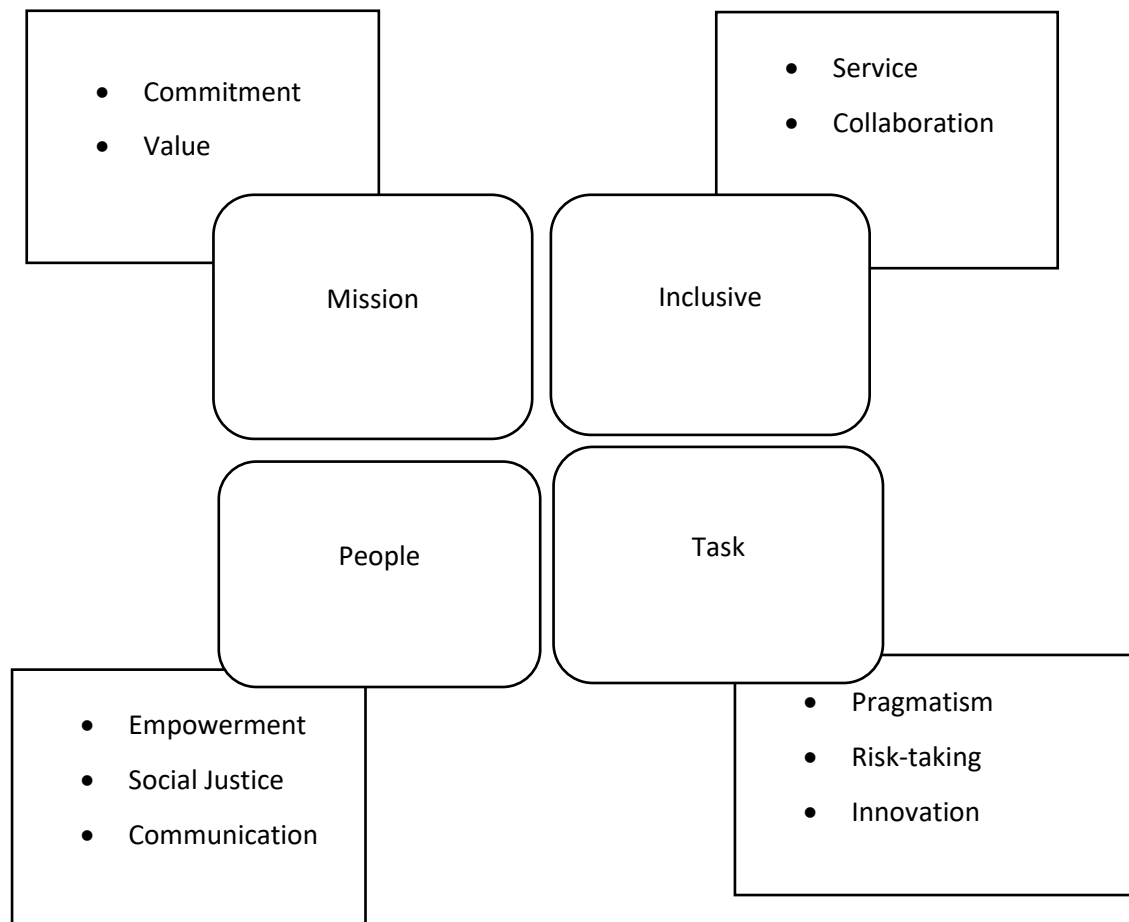
The leader's value focus on the ideals that support the leadership behaviour in an organisation. That which leaders consider to be essential, in accordance with the value-centered model, plays a central role because it builds on a framework for making crucial decisions that can affect an organisation, promote the organisational culture, and impact positively on employee's opinions, attitudes and the type of leadership they expect from their leaders (Groves & LaRocca, 2011).

The followers' values should be aligned with the leaders' values. Research suggest that the value-centered model entails matching the value system of the leader and that of the follower, and the establishment of an agreement between the value system of the leader and the follower, which lead to followers' satisfaction at and commitment to their work (Krishnan, 2002).

The value-centred model of transformational leadership encompasses four leadership elements namely the mission, service, people and task orientation. These four leadership orientations are associated with the leadership competencies (vision, values, innovation, inclusiveness, collaboration, communication, commitment, pragmatism, risk taking, empowerment and social justice (Maier et al., 2015). All the four elements, together with the leadership competencies as mentioned in the above, play a role in the foundation of personal and organisational values. The value-centred leaders are trustworthy and honest and adopt a strong moral value, which leads to innovation and increased commitment by followers (Maier et al., 2015). Furthermore, the study done by Jung and Avolio (2000) asserts that when the values of the followers are the same as the values of the transformational leaders, both parties tend to develop the motive to focus on the collective interest of the organisation rather than their self-interests.

In addition, the holding of similar values by both the transformational leader and followers' leads to the development of positive work attitudes (Krishnan, 2004). The value-centred model puts emphasis on collective shared values needed for motivation, achievement and morality in the organization (Maier et al., 2015). The more the parties possess shared values, the higher the establishment of efficiency within the organisation (Groves & LaRocca, 2011). Finally, the equivalence between the leader's values and the followers' values can generate a strong meaningful transformational leadership (Krishnan, 2002).

Value-centred leaders possess a number of positive attributes. They believe in group work and collaboration, communicate enthusiasm, empower followers to be confident in their work, which benefits the rest of the team, and enhance teamwork in order to achieve organizational effectiveness (Maier et al., 2015). The following figure illustrates the value-centred model of transformational leadership.



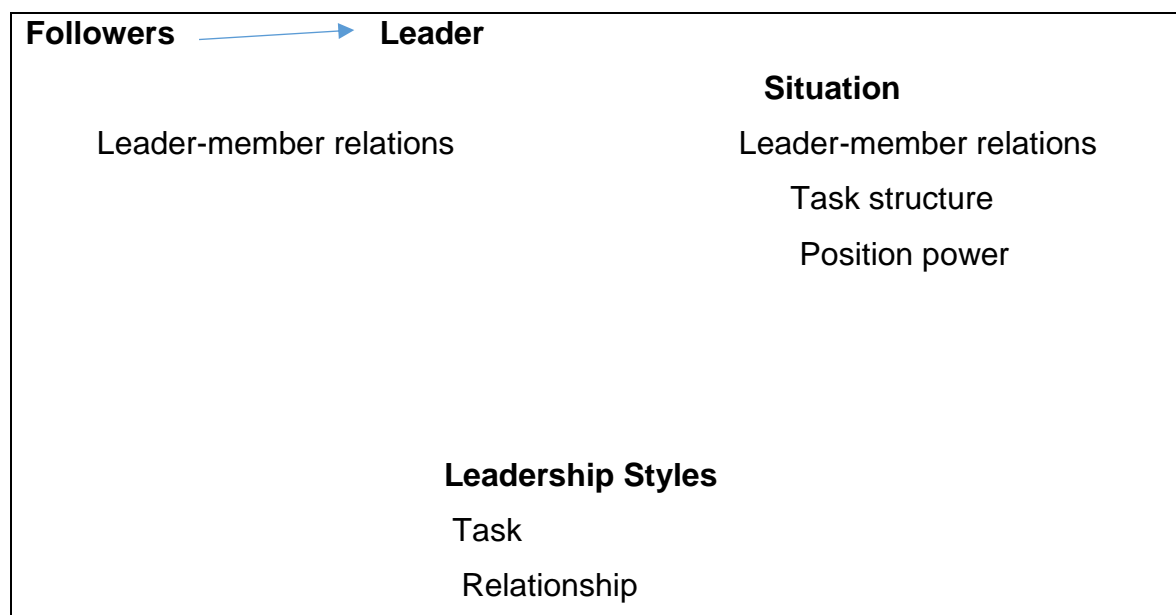
*Figure 3. 2.* The value-centred model of transformational leadership (Maier et.al. 2015).

### 3.3.3 Fiedler's Contingency Model of Transformational Leadership

The contingency model of transformational leadership focuses on determining whether a manager's style is task or relationship based and if the situation of the manager is the same as the leadership style (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The contingency model of transformational leadership consists of two components, which are the leadership style and situational favorableness. The leadership style component is concerned with whether the manager is task or relationship orientated (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

A manager or the leader that is task-focused strives at getting fulfilment from achieved tasks while a relationship-focused manager strives to establish good working relations with followers or employees (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Furthermore, situational favorableness is used to measure the amount of control or power that the manager has over employees/followers. As a result, the higher the amount of control a manager

possesses over employees the more the situation tends to be advantageous (Dubrin, 2013). Situational favorableness consists of three variables. These variables are; (a) the leader-member relations, which is concerned with the nature of the relations between the manager and employees, (b) task-structure focusing on whether the job is structured clearly on procedures, goals and evaluations in a way that is highly likely to be favorable for the manager, and (c) position power, which emphasises more on the power of the manager to recruit, discipline and fire the employees (Dubrin, 2013). Finally, the contingency model of transformational leadership stresses that managers that are task-focused perform better in situations of both high and low control over employees, while managers that are relationship-focused perform better when there is moderate control over employees (Dubrin, 2010). The following figure illustrate Fiedler's contingency model of transformational leadership.



*Figure 3.3. Fiedler's contingency model of transformational leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2007).*

### 3.3.4 The Full-Range Model of Transformational Leadership

The full-range model is associated with three types of leadership styles. These styles are; the transformational styles, transactional style and the laissez-faire style (Martinez, Sun, Gergen, & Wheeler, 2018). In addition, the transformational leadership style consists of four dimensions and these are; idealized influence, inspirational

motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Martinez et al.,2018).

Rickards and Clark (2006) point out that the transformational leadership believes that leaders have a goal to promote their followers self-interests, ideals, concerns for growth and development, self-actualization and to enhance their well-being. This goal is achieved through four essential dimensions, which are idealised influence (Charisma), Inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Rickards & Clark ,2006).

The first and second element, idealized influence and inspirational leadership, is such that followers trust their leaders, and refer to these leaders as people who are extraordinary, characterized by determination and persistence (Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014). Furthermore, leaders in the inspirational leadership and idealised influence dimension are actors who motivate and encourage their followers to tackle challenges, create meaningful work and state clear expectations that followers are required to fulfill (Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014). The inspirational leaders are best known to encourage and motivate followers to attain important goals that would have been difficult to attain in the past (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Thus, the inspirational leaders serve a meaningful purpose in the organisation because their main role is to motivate and develop followers (Staats, 2015). In addition, an inspirational leader behaves in a manner that motivates and inspires subordinates to view their work as meaningful (Foulkes-Bert et al., 2019). Leaders motivate their followers, as per the third dimension, Intellectual stimulation, to be more innovative and resourceful while followers are given an opportunity to interrogate assumptions and view problems with a different eye (Bass, 2000).

In the dimension of intellectual stimulation the leader generate a climate for problem alertness and solving in which followers are involved in the process of finding solutions to problems and in that way become motivated and inspired to accomplish work goals (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Leaders involved with intellectual stimulation make an effort to encourage followers to grow their abilities and attend to issues and problems in new ways (Kirkbride, 2006). Furthermore, recent research by Buil et al. (2019) notes that intellectual stimulation dimension emphasises that leaders should challenge followers to be creative and attend to problems using new different methods.

The fourth dimension, individualized consideration, is about the leader who views their supporters independently and notes the various needs for support and development (Bass, 2000). In the individual consideration, the leader seeks to offer socio-emotional support to followers and in that way promote and empower followers to perform beyond work expectations (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Lastly, leaders in the Individual consideration behave as mentors and develop their followers with more focus on their needs for achievement (Schedlitzki & Edwards, 2014).

Individual consideration leadership enforces empowerment to followers, here leaders are aware of each follower's strengths and flaws and take necessary steps to develop followers' unique competencies (Staats, 2015). Thus, in this dimension, the leaders provide mentorship support and are attentive to followers needs for goal attainment (Buil et al., 2019).

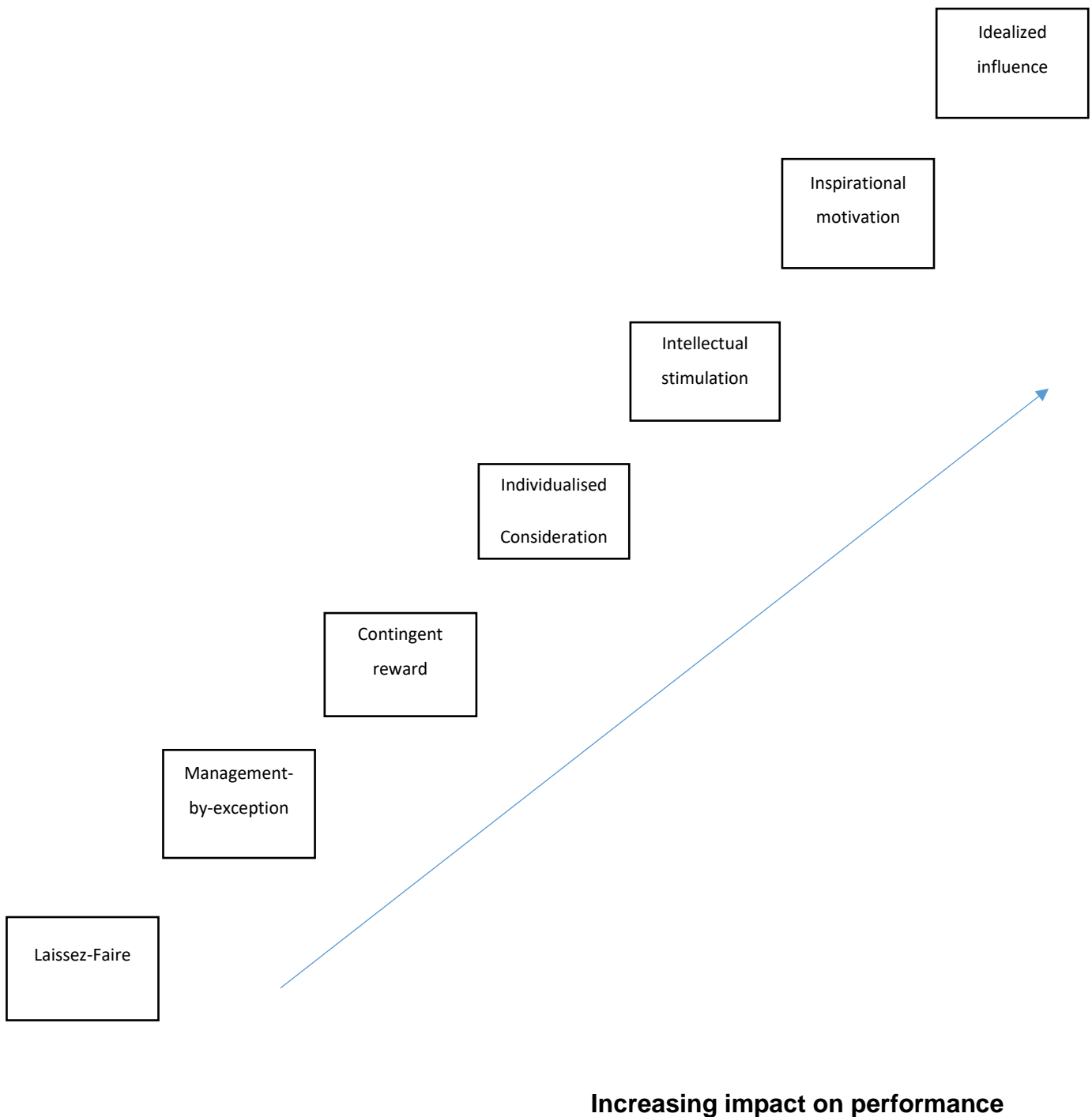
The transactional leadership style consists of active and passive management by exception and the contingent reward. Management-by-exception (passive) means that leaders extract from being a leader while management-by-exception (active) means that the leader is attentive to problems that may occur and has a system in place for early detection of problems that might arise (Kirkbride, 2006). In addition, contingent reward means that leaders award incentives and extrinsic compensation in order to motivate employees to adopt better performance (Zhang, Cao, & Wang, 2018). Finally, there is nonexistent leadership in the laissez-faire approach as leaders assign more responsibility to the subordinates and avoid direct handling of the critical issues that may arise (Zhang et al., 2018).

The full-range model of transformational leadership, as depicted below, includes the above-discussed four dimensions of transformational leadership style (the idealized, Inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration) and the transactional leadership style consisting of contingent rewards, the active and passive management-by exception and the laissez-faire non-leadership style. In simple terms, the full-range model of transformational leadership seeks to explain the transition from the non-leadership to the more transformational leadership styles.

As a result, the full-range model of leadership is chosen as the basis of this study because it is widely used by many researchers. The model is aligned with leadership behaviour scale used in the research methodology to measure transformational



leadership through four components of the transformational leadership style; the idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Jensen et al., 2019). The model is also aligned with Bass' definition of transformational leadership. The full-range model is necessary because it was formulated to ensure the sufficient measurement of the effective transformational leadership style (Mathieu, Neumann, Babiak, & Hare, 2015). Thus, the full-range model is a better option for the study due to its positive prediction of motivation, performance as well as job engagement (Johnsen, Eid, Pallesen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2009). The following figure shows the full-range model of transformational leadership.



*Figure 3.4.* Full-range model of transformational leadership (Kirkbride, 2006).

### **3.4 Steps in the Transformational Leadership Process**

The transformational leadership process consists of four essential steps that the leaders need follow to transform the organisation (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The steps include; making a compelling case for change, inspiring a shared vision, leading the

transition and imbedding the change (Lussier & Achua, 2007). These steps are discussed below.

First, it is important to make a compelling case for change. Change in the organisation arises after the transformational leaders' identification of the change needed and this includes the willingness of the transformational leader to take risks and identify opportunities that could make the transition possible (Lussier & Achua, 2007). In order to identify change in the organisation, the transformational leader should be innovative, resourceful and have the necessary background of the organisation (Bergh & Theron, 1999). Finally, the transformational leader must have a clear vision about the future of the organisation and determine the required objectives for the organisation's transformation (Van Zyl, 2016).

Secondly, it is necessary for the transformational leader to inspire the shared vision. This step requires the transformational leader to motivate followers to think of new ways of transitions, a better future for the firm and look for broader inputs from all members of the team (Hay, 2006). The transformational leader invites the followers to move toward the new vision that is presented in ideological terms (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Furthermore, transformational leaders need to strive for an ongoing improvement and innovation, which they must place center-stage in the business' transformation, and communicate the values and norms of the business to followers (Van Zyl, 2016).

Thirdly, the transformational leader has to lead the transition. In this step, it is important for the leader to introduce a sense of urgency. The transformational leader should support and ensure that there is collaboration amongst followers, which helps to form a working environment characterized by a sharing of ideas and knowledge (Van Zyl, 2016). It is important that the leader empower, increase the self-confidence and optimism of followers so that it can be easier to understand the need for a transformed organisation (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Lastly, the transformational leader has to implant change. Transformational leaders apply this last step to assist followers to find self-fulfillment with the new vision, initiate personnel changes and team-building workshops (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Change takes place after transformational leaders' actions that amend the reward and

performance appraisal processes, monitor progress and recruit highly skilled employees who will commit to group cooperation (Hay, 2006).

### **3.5 Characteristics of Transformational Leaders**

Sadler (2003) points out that transformational leadership consists of certain characteristics. Transformational leaders are perceived by the world as change agents who are brave and resilient, have faith in people, believe in motivation, and trust as well as enable their followers (Sadler, 2003). Transformational leaders are also directed by a strong set of values and are life-long learners (Sadler, 2003).

Transformed leaders regard mistakes as a learning opportunity, they are natural thinkers, and can cope well with complexity and uncertainty (Sadler, 2003). Transformational leaders are also known to be persistent, strategic, have clear sense of purpose, passionate, risk-takers, visionary and to consider the needs of employees (Hay, 2006). Finally, transformational leaders are recognised as role models because they focus on the followers needs for growth and development.

Moreover, Lussier and Achua (2007) note that transformed leaders are recognised for their strength, which brings change in the organisation by encouraging followers to dream about their future. Transformed leaders are indeed concerned about improving the morals and intentions of their followers. They are generally good decision makers who motivate and inspire employees to search for solutions to major challenges using logical methods (Ahmad, Abbas, Latif, & Rasheed, 2014). In addition, Aamodt (2016) points out that a transformational leader must create a visible vision for the organisation, find a strategy to attain that vision, communicate and promote the vision, have a positive outlook and act confident, as well as embrace success and set an example to his followers (Aamodt, 2016).

Transformational leaders have the power to introduce change and direct employees to think differently, and they do not lead the employees and the organization by fear (White et al., 2017).

They have the ability to anticipate a stimulating future vision, provide intellectual stimulation because they motivate followers to think critically, and are creative and innovative (Kark et al., 2018). In addition transformational leaders have the ability to encourage employees to put more effort in their work, motivate employees to view old problems from a new perspective and pay attention to the needs and growth of their

employees within the organisation (Nurcahyo, Della, Irawan, & Ronaldy, 2018). Finally, transformational leaders are visionaries and known for best results because they set high performance standards needed for the attainment of communal goals (Frieder, Wang, & Oh, 2018).

### **3.6 Advantages of Transformational leadership**

There are various advantages of the transformational leadership within an organization. Northhouse (2010) notes that there exists a high volume of research on transformational leadership in well-known organizations since its introduction in the 1970s, which indicates that transformational leadership has been regarded as a key point for most leadership studies. Transformational leadership is viewed as the most realistic type of leadership styles because it is easy to apply, understand and mostly motivates employees within the firms (Ghasabeh & Provitera, 2017).

Furthermore, Bosselut et al. (2018) state that transformational leadership is a vigorous and effective form of leadership that motivates and improves job performance. Researchers, Luo, Guchait, Lee, and Madera (2019) also affirm that transformational leadership affects the employee's performance in a positive way and inspires employees to perform in a manner that can accomplish organisational goals. In addition, transformational leadership is considered as essential towards enhancing employee's satisfaction at work, extra efforts and effectiveness (Taiwan, Nan-Nan, & Ngudgratoke, 2017). Finally, transformational leadership is an influential and necessary approach in many organisations. Ma and Jiang (2018) state that transformational leadership is connected to individual creativity and extraordinary performance.

In addition, Urban and Govender (2017) argue that transformational leadership assists in building and forming an organisation's culture by seeking opportunities for employees, encouraging collaboration, creating shared values and giving employees a chance to behave like leaders (Urban & Govender, 2017).

### **3.7 Criticisms of Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership has been subjected to various criticisms. Firstly, transformational leadership does not have a conceptual clarity and it can be hard to identify its parameters because it encompasses various activities and characteristics such as motivating followers, creating a vision and building trust (Northhouse, 2010).

Transformational leadership has been criticised for not making means for learning and development in the organisation such as equality, shared leadership, consensus and participative decision making (Van Zyl, 2016). Transformational leadership also makes use of impression management, which could possibly result in exaggerated commendation (Van Zyl, 2016). Transformational leadership puts more emphasis on how the followers perform best to achieve the goals of the organisation and not on how followers can benefit from the organisation (Lee, 2014).

This happens because leaders always influence followers to bring extra efforts needed to fulfil the firm's goals. The disadvantage of this unidirectional influence coming from the leader to the follower is that it makes followers more prone to deception (Lee, 2014). Furthermore, transformational leadership regards leadership as a personality trait instead of a form of behavior that followers can learn. If leadership is regarded as a trait, teaching followers can be a challenge since it becomes hard to train followers how to modify their traits (Northhouse, 2010). Finally, transformational leadership is also criticised for focusing more on the individualised approaches rather than collectivist approaches (Zehndorfer, 2014). Transformational leadership has also been criticised for being "antidemocratic" because leaders put their needs beyond the needs of followers (Lee, 2014).

### **3.8 Transformational Leadership amongst Employees in the Consumer Goods Companies**

Transformational leadership has been and continues to be a popular subject within the consumer goods companies. Its popularity is due to the manager's roles in motivating employees to be innovative and in implementing change seeking to enhance the success of the firm (Salau et al., 2018). A recent study by Viera, Perin, and Sampaio (2018) notes that transformational leaders working in consumer goods companies influence employees' values and aspirations. For instance, transformational leaders inspire employees to adopt new values in order to attract new customers and maintaining good relationships with old customers. Transformational leaders also encourage employees in consumer goods companies to do away with traditional product sales approaches and instead work with new ideas and perspectives, and consider the important needs of customers and new methods of carrying out sales activities (Viera et al., 2018).

However, employees working in consumer goods companies struggle to cope with daily pressures of satisfying customers' needs and providing good quality products and services. Transformational leaders' roles then are to encourage employees to be more creative, and be open to new ways of dealing with customers' demands and how to survive inside the competitive environment (Birasnav & Bienstock, 2019).

Transformational leaders can also provide further support by engaging in strategic decisions that affect the consumer goods firms positively, which in turn contributes to the excellent performance of employees and lead to better services as well as the strength to cope within the competitive working environment (Chen, Sharma, Zhan, & Liu, 2019). In addition, transformational leaders within the consumer goods companies pay attention to the employees' psychological safety and encourage them to engage in risk taking behaviors with the assurance that it will not result in any harm, which then encourages to work harder based on the trust from their managers (Afsar, Shahjehan, Shah, & Wajid, 2019).

Finally, transformational leaders within the consumer goods companies develop an organisational culture where employees are motivated to listen carefully to the demands of the customers and respond in a good manner to serve the needs of the clients in a better way (Jha, Balaji, Ranjan, & Sharma, 2019). Transformational managers within the consumer goods company also establish a trustworthy relationship with employees, set high service standards, provide ideas to employees on how to deal with a challenging complaint or a client and offer employees the chance to realise their potential (Jha et al., 2019).

### **3.9 Summary**

This chapter focused on the concept of transformational leadership. It reviewed the definition of transformational leadership presented by numerous authors and went on to outline the different models of transformational leadership (the full-range, path-goal, value-centered and the contingency models)

The full-range model of leadership was chosen as the basis of this study because the model measures the four dimensions of the transformational leadership (Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration). Furthermore, the chapter discussed steps in the transformational leadership, the characteristics of a transformational leaders, advantages and

criticisms of transformational leadership, and concluded with the discussion on transformational leadership amongst employees in the consumer goods companies.

The next chapter focuses on personality.



## **Chapter 4: Personality**

### **4.1 General introduction**

The history of psychology and personality indicates that the interest of personality theorists has been on personality as a factor made up of stable traits (Anglim, Lievens, Everton, Grant, & Marty, 2018). Most research on personality and psychology has focused on understanding behaviour and people's differences. In addition, previous research on personality notes that researchers are interested in discovering the ordinary behaviour of individuals, which includes observing patterns of behaviour and how individuals conduct themselves (Furnham, 2008). While, current research underscores that personality is vital due to its concern for describing an individual variances and behaviour (Al-Samarraie, Sarsam, Alzahrani, & Alalwan, 2018). Finally, personality has been predicted to explain environmental attitudes and behavior and in particular, how the environment can influence individual behaviour (Marcus & Roy, 2017).

Generally, personality theorists consider personality as linked to the steady behaviour of people and their experiences with the world (Al-Samarraie et al., 2018). Other studies note that personality is also concerned with people's feelings and thinking abilities because personality determines how people think and feel in many situations (Marcus & Roy, 2017). Likewise, humans vary from each other based on their different thoughts, emotions and movements (Yarkoni, 2010). Thus, personality has been observed as an inclusive subject that describes psychological characteristics such as cognitive, emotions and behaviour of employees linked to the environment (Obi, Nwankwo, Agu, Aboh, & Sydney-Agbor, 2013). In addition, research states that personality is connected to the performance of employees at work and that personality determines how well employees perform their duties and how they solve any of the difficult issues that they encounter (Youshan & Hassan, 2015).

Personality can be used to examine an individual's values, features and life skills in an attempt to enhance performance and individual's involvement in an organisation (Youshan & Hassan, 2015). Other studies report that personality affects an individual's ability to bring solutions to problems and an individual's adjustment to the changing environment (White, Wagner, Gowan, & Braithwaite, 2017).

Moreover, Strober (2017) adds that personality is used in psychology research to define the individuals' differences based on their health, psychological well-being and coping mechanisms.

Therefore, this chapter focuses on the nature and definitions of personality, determinants of personality, theories and models of personality. It also focuses on personality and psychological capital, individual differences, proactive behaviour and the personality of employees in the consumer goods company.

## **4.2 Nature and Definitions of Personality**

The topic of personality began in the twentieth century and ever since it has gained popularity in the field of psychology (Reale, Dingemanse, Kazem, & Wright, 2010). The concept of personality has been recently defined as an important factor of humanity because of its major role in the development of an individual (Fisher & Robie, 2019). Personality is recognised as entailing the social skills and efficacy found within social groups with the social skills being in the form of an individual's beliefs and control of behaviour (Selvam, 2019). Foris, Zebunke, Langbein, and Melzer (2018) define personality as a steady component that determines the differences in an individual's behaviour. Moreover, Mironenko (2018) refers to personality as the degree to which an individual is classified under the object and subjects of biosocial associations such as the broad, social and individual traits. In addition, personality is defined as the wide range of an individual characteristics consisting of emotions, opinions, thoughts and motivation that shape behaviour of a person (Uher, 2017).

Research done by Wrzus and Roberts (2017) describes personality as a concept that entails stable traits such as of behaviour, cognition, emotion and motivation, which explains that people can be of the same culture but still be different from each other. Personality is also referred to as a broad set of fixed psychological characteristics that are widely conscious, not easily changed and appear in every part of functioning (Millon, 2016).

According to Boyce, Wood, and Powdthavee (2013) personality entails a psychological element of an individual driven across personal circumstances.

Researchers, Zaidi, Wajid, Zaidi, Zaidi, and Zaidi (2013, p.1344) explain personality as "relatively enduring personal characteristics in sense of generalized and basic conduct tendencies which reflects long term, pervasive individual differences in

emotional style and general influence on emotional response". Furthermore, personality refers to the degree to which a person regards himself as different from others and is considered to be special inner and outer aspects of an individual's character that affect the behaviour (Schultz & Schultz, 2009). Lastly, personality is defined as the inherent traits or personal characteristics that are displayed by people (Anglim et al., 2018).

The study's focus is based on the definition of personality as the inherent traits or personal characteristics that are displayed by people (Anglim et al., 2018). The reason for choosing this definition is that it is linked to models of personality, which are the five-factor model, HEXACO model of personality and the integrated model of psychological capital that are discussed later in the chapter. All the afore-mentioned focuses on the personality traits of people. Bar, Leurer, Warshawski, and Itzhaki (2018) also confirm that these personal traits are constant and psychological and help to explain why people behave in certain ways. Finally, Quick and Nelson (2009) view personality as a group of steady traits that have an impact on an individual's behavior.

#### **4.3 The Determinants of Personality**

Past interests of various personality researchers were on the origins of personality and individual differences. Personality researchers have been curious to find out why there is a difference in people and why some individuals are talkative, assertive, achievement orientated, creative as compared to others (Derlega, Winstead, & Jones, 2005). It has been noted that personality can be a result of genetics or the environment (Robbins, 2001). A study by Ng, Woo, Tay, and Foster (2016) argues that personality and the unique traits of individuals are hereditary and can be explained via human genes. Personality is also influenced by genetics and other biological aspects, which have an effect on the way people act in social settings (Weber, Johnson, & Arceneaux, 2011).

Furthermore, research done by Dochtermann, Schwab, and Sih (2015) confirms that personality and differences in humans are genetically constructed. In terms of environment, studies agree that individuals' personality and unique traits can be determined by the environment, because the environment can affect how individual act in the real world. Finally, individuals who are more agreeable and extraverted tend to be more compassionate and connected to their environment (Hirsh, 2010).

The environment plays a major role in personality. It is considered essential in explaining people's behaviour and their perceptions about events (Rudin, Tomkins, & Simmons, 2018). In addition, the environment can influence individual differences including the vulnerability of individuals toward the environmental demands and their positive response (Keltikangas-Jarvinen & Jokela, 2010). Kandler (2012) also notes that both the genetic and environmental factors explain why people are different and why they act in certain ways.

#### **4.4 Theories of Personality**

The personality theories discussed in this section include the social cognitive theory, Gray's reinforcement sensitivity theory, personal construct theory, Allport trait theory of personality, Eysenck hierarchy personality theory, and Cattell's theory of personality traits. Each is discussed below.

##### **4.4.1 Social Cognitive Theory**

The social cognitive theory, developed by Bandura, recognises personality as a concept, which consists of a wide range of intrapersonal elements that control and influence the behaviour of people (Stajkovic, Bandura, Locke, Lee, & Sergent, 2018). The social cognitive theory (SCT) originates from an agentic view where to be an agent means that individuals have control over their daily functioning (Stajkovic et al., 2018). Further research by Feist, Feist, and Roberts (2018) affirms that the social cognitive theory relies on the agentic belief that people have the ability to take control of their environment and quality of their lives because the people are creators and products of their environment.

The social cognitive theory postulates that personality can be studied through triadic reciprocal causation. The triadic causation represents the three distinguishable factors, the physical and social environment, cognitive and affective systems, which encompass the individual, their behaviour and how it is measured in the society (Boyle, Matthews, & Saklofske, 2008). The social cognitive theory also claims that people use external (people's physical and social environment) and internal aspects (individual's observation, judgmental process and reactions) to control their behavior (Feist et al., 2018). Previous research notes further that the reciprocal determinism consists of the external determinants that include rewards and punishment while the internal

determinants include views, beliefs and anticipations that influence an individual's conduct (Burger, 2011).

Furthermore, the social cognitive theory considers an individual's conduct, personal characteristics and environmental factors as equal (Font, Garay, & Jones, 2016). An individual's behaviour is influenced by environmental and personal traits and in turn personality can determine an individual's environment. The social cognitive theory also asserts that individuals select their actions on the basis of their preferences, proficiencies, environment and cultural influences that build their behaviour (Font et al., 2016). The theory focuses on the self-efficacy as well. The triadic reciprocal causation suggests that the individual, behaviour and the environment affect each other, which means that self-efficacy is the personal factor within the triadic reciprocal causation (Feist et al., 2018). Nonetheless, Zheng, Wang, and Xu (2016) affirm that self-efficacy is the belief that individuals have in their power to accumulate better performance that has a great effect on occasions that in turn impact positively on themselves. Similarly, self-efficacy in the work place is enhanced when employees utilise their professional skills to resolve difficulties experienced by others. Individuals that receive help with their problems gain significant experience along the process and are ultimately able to polish their tasks (Zheng et al., 2016).

Therefore, the SCT proposes that humans control their conduct through moral agency. Self-efficacy, particularly its association with the assessment of an individual's capabilities to utilise their competencies (skills) in certain areas and situations plays a significant role here (Hoyle, 2010).

Thus, when people find themselves in an immoral situations they correct their behaviour, eliminate the consequences of their behaviour, refuse to be accountable and blame other people for their wrong actions, which underscores the SCT's role in controlling people's agency (Feist et al., 2018).

#### **4.4.2 Gray's Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory of Personality**

Recent research by Miles, Smyrniotis, Jackson, and Francis (2019) defines Gray's reinforcement sensitivity theory as a natural personality theory that classifies individual differences according to two components, which are the behavioral activation system (BAS) and the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS). This theory presumes that humans, just like any other subjects, respond actively or passively to threatening stimuli

(Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Furthermore, Gray's reinforcement sensitivity theory of personality emphasises more on behavioral principles of conditioning reward and punishment.

The behavioral activation system (BAS) motivates the behaviour of individuals towards gaining a reward by making a person aware of the reward and providing the go-ahead indication that elicit the behaviour (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). On the contrary, the behavioral inhibition system (BIS) consists of an anxiety system that restrains behaviour connected with insufficient reward or punishment (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Thus, the behavioral activation system is viewed as a motivational approach that leads to employees who are impulsive, extraverted and highly reactive to immediate rewards, while anxiety and avoidance is classified under the behavioral inhibition system. The primary role of behavioral inhibition system lies on elevating conflicting goals (Kimbrel, Mitchell, Hundt, Robertson, & Nelson –Gray, 2012).

In addition, the research points out that individuals who display strong BAS in an organisation are sensitive to rewards with their behaviour associated with enthusiasm and the enjoyment of their duties, and thus, are naturally goal driven persons (Lerner, Hatak, & Rauch, 2018). Individuals with strong BAS are likely to experience positive feelings and participate in approach behaviour (Santens et al., 2018). People classified under the BAS category are also reward sensitive, highly likely to be involved in high-risk behaviour and more thoughtless (Afshari, Rasouli-Azad, & Ghoreishi, 2019).

Nonetheless, the activity of the BIS can result in anxiety and individuals who are strongly related to the BIS can indicate the signs of danger that may occur (Afshari et al., 2019). Finally, the behaviour of individuals with high BIS is linked to risk valuations, anxiety, uncertainty and avoidance (Lerner et al., 2018).

#### **4.4.3 Personal Construct Theory of Personality**

Stojnov and Pavlovic (2010) state that the personal construct theory of personality was developed by Kelly, as a psychological framework in the 1950s, to understand individuals and their personal surroundings. The personal construct theory relies on the relativist analysis, which views behaviour of an individual as an experiment and not as an outcome thus, the judgement about an individual is not based on their behaviour (Mallick & Watts, 2007). The personal construct theory also suggests that people can be treated as scientists. This suggestion was made on the basis that the

only way to understand people is to view them as scientists who constantly try to find a meaning from their life experiences (Stojnov & Pavlovic, 2010). Furthermore, Paz, Pucurull, and Feixas (2016) maintain that personal construct theory is based on the belief that people actively represent their realities, and are scientists who formulate theories about themselves.

Every individual has a unique system of personal constructs used to anticipate and understand the events around them (Paz et al., 2016). A study by Feist et al. (2018) also notes that individuals anticipate events by using the meanings they attach to those events, and that these meanings are known as personal constructs. Individuals' behaviour within the real world is influenced by how the environment is structured. Furthermore, the personal construct theory believes in constructive alternativism, which proposes that individuals are active agents and their actions are based on how they anticipate their events (Feist et al., 2018). According to Feist, Feist, and Roberts (2013) the personal construct theory is not intended at defining the nature, instead it is aimed at understanding the construction of events. Here, constructive alternativism assumes that the current interpretations of the world are subject to change, and the world as well as the events can be observed from an alternative viewpoint (Feist et al., 2013).

Research by Hamad et al. (2017) indicates that the personal construct theory refers to the tendency of an individual to create meaning from their personal circumstances, experiences and life events. Individuals use their personal constructs, which is verbal language that includes words, adjectives and non-verbal expressions to envisage and integrate their realities (Hamad et al., 2017). Moreover, personal constructs are referred to as bipolar judgements in that they include happiness or sadness, however not all the judgements that people make are labelled verbally (Paz et al., 2016). Recent research indicates that the ability to understand an individual is facilitated by the knowledge of the structure, content and dynamics of personal constructs, and that personal constructs may be helpful to predict events and generate ways of meanings to these events (Cervone & Little, 2019).

#### **4.4.4 Allport's Trait Theory of Personality**

Friedman and Schustack (2012) point out that the concept of trait means that personality is rooted within an individual. The trait theory, as proposed by Allport,

argues that a trait influences an individual to react to similar environmental conditions in the same way (Olson & Hergenhahn, 2011). The trait theory postulates that an individual's personality is made up of a set of observable traits used to understand how people behave (Quick & Nelson, 2009). The trait theory suggests that an individual's trait of shapes the experiences and guides their behaviour because every individual uses their own traits to deal with the outside world (Olson &Hergenhahn, 2011).

Furthermore, the trait theory asserts that a trait can be grouped into cardinal, central traits and secondary dispositions. Cardinal traits are traits that are apparent and affect every movement of an individual (Olson & Hergenhahn, 2011).The central traits are mainly there to understand how an individual operates (Burger, 2011). Central traits include being honest, kind and self-confident, and these are varied and occur in a wide range of situations (Pervin & Cervone, 2010). The trait theory also postulates that while the quantity of the central traits differ from one individual to another, just one trait is needed to direct the behaviour (Burger, 2011). Finally, secondary dispositions are defined as traits that are steady and generalised, which implies that individuals have traits that make for different values and that traits represent what an individual does across many situations and what will happen in any one circumstance (Pervin & Cervone, 2010).

Further, secondary dispositions are applicable to a variety of behaviours and can be referred to habits or attitudes in more generalised ways (Olson &Hergenhahn, 2011).

#### **4.4.5 The Eysenck Hierarchy Theory of Personality**

The hierarchy theory of personality, as developed by the theorist Eysenck, perceives personality as a hierarchy that consists of three basic layers ranging from bottom to the highest level, which are the specific responses, habitual responses and the generalised traits (Engler, 2009). The hierarchy theory of personality proposes that the behaviour of an individual can be interpreted through particular responses that are connected to produce more common habits, and the groups of habits that occur at the same time that generate traits (Pervin & Cervone, 2010).

The specific behaviour entails the conduct of an individual that is visible, while habitual response describes the behaviour that happens in the same situations and the traits



encompasses the extraversion-introversion and neuroticism-emotions dimensions (Engler, 2009).

The hierarchy theory of personality is based on the notion that traits are hereditary and originate from the psychophysiological principle (Larsen & Buss, 2010). The extraversion trait as represented at the high level of hierarchy is used to describe individuals that are more sociable. Extraverted individuals are more outgoing, have more social contacts, participate in group activities and are spontaneous, while introverted individuals are more reserved, quiet, introspective and are normally distant from other people (Burger, 2019). People who are high in extraversion traits are likely to be vigorous, strong and receive social support from colleagues (Yang & Yang, 2019).

The hierarchy theory of personality also emphasises on the neuroticism trait and argues that the neuroticism trait is connected to anxiety and that neurotic people have reactive sympathetic nervous systems (Biernacki & Tarnowski, 2011). Individuals high in the neuroticism dimension are likely to react emotionally to situations and such individuals act strongly to minor frustrations and may take time to overcome these frustrations (Burger, 2019).

Traits of neuroticism also include anxiety, irritability, lack of self-esteem, moodiness and nervousness (Larsen & Buss, 2010). Moreover, individuals who are highly neurotic normally go under high levels of stress and are dissatisfied all the times (Yang & Yang, 2019).

#### **4.4.6 Cattell's Theory of Personality Traits**

Cattell drew this theory based on the number of traits that can be used to describe the differences in individuals. These traits are common and unique traits, temperament, basic and dynamic traits, constitutional and environmental mold traits, and the surface and source traits. Common traits are considered to be shared by all individuals while the unique traits are not held by all people and only visible in a person's interests and attitudes (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). Ability traits explain the effectiveness associated with attaining the goal and temperament focuses on the emotional aspects, such as anger and confidence, of an individual behaviour (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). The dynamic traits are the factors that encourage, inspire and interest a person (Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

Furthermore, Swartz, de la Rey, Duncan, Townsend, and O'Neill (2016) distinguish between the surface traits and the source traits. Surface traits refer to the plain behaviour displayed by an individual, where, for instance, an individual who is very quiet and shy may avoid social groups and activities (Swartz et al., 2016). While the source traits are considered as the primary source of surface traits (Swartz et al., 2016). Cattell recognizes the source traits as consisting of 16 personality factors. Jin, Qinghua, Haifei, and Wenbin (2005) outline the 16 personality factors and focus on the low score versus the high score. Schultz and Schultz (2013) are also of the view that there is a difference between the constitutional and environmental mold traits. Constitutional traits are based on the biological situations but are not inherent while the environmental mold traits are made of social and physical surroundings that affect the behaviour of an individual (Schultz & Schultz, 2013). See Table 4.1 that shows Cattell's 16 Personality Factors.

Table 4.1:

*Cattell 16 Personality Factor*

Factor	Description		
A	Warmth	Reserved	Outgoing
B	Reasoning	Less Intelligent	More Intelligent
C	Emotional Stability	Affected by feelings	Emotionally stable
E	Dominance	Humble	Assertive
F	Liveliness	Sober	Happy-go-lucky
G	Rule Consciousness	Expedient	Conscientious
H	Social Boldness	Shy	Venturesome
I	Sensitivity	Tough-minded	Tender-minded
L	Vigilance	Trusting	Suspicious
M	Abstractedness	Practical	Imaginative
N	Privateness	Straightforward	Shrewd
O	Apprehension	Self-Assured	Apprehensive
Q1	Openness to Change	Conservative	Experimenting
Q2	Self-Reliance	Group-dependent	Self-sufficient
Q3	Perfectionism	Self-conflict	Self-control
Q4	Tension	Relaxed	Tense

*Note.* From “The research of mining association rules between personality and behavior of learner under web-based learning environment” by D. Jin, Z. Qinghua , L. Haifei, & Y. Wenbin, (2005), the 4<sup>th</sup> International Conference in Web-Based , p.5.

The study chooses Allport trait theory, Eysenck hierarchy theory of personality and Cattell theory of personality as the basis of the study. The aforementioned theories were selected because all the chosen theories represent the personality traits.

The trait theories provide a platform to understand human behaviour in the real world. The theories also explain why and how people act in different situations and postulate that people depend on their personality traits to respond to the environment. Further trait theories note that personality traits direct and shape the behaviour of individuals.

The trait theories are also aligned with definition of personality that is chosen as the basis of this section, which is that personality is the inherent traits or personal characteristics that are displayed by people (Anglim et al., 2018).

Ultimately, the study focuses on the five-factor model, HEXACO Model and the Integrated Model of Psychological Capital at the workplace in an effort to support the trait theories.

#### **4.5 Models of Personality**

The models of personality consist of the five-factor model of personality, HEXACO model of personality and the integrated model of psychological capital at the workplace. Each of these models is discussed below.

##### **4.5.1 The Five- Factor Model of Personality**

The five -factor model is regarded as the most popular and broad theory valuable for research on personality (Devaraj, Easley, & Crant, 2008). The five-factor model of personality is referred to as a descriptive model that organises the main characteristics of personality based on the verbal terms that individuals apply to define themselves and other people (Carvalho & Nobre, 2019). As a result, various personality theorists apply the model of personality to understand individual behavior, which implies that personality theorists are of the view that patterns of individual behavior can be divided into observable characteristics (Quick & Nelson, 2009).

The five-factor model of personality, which is used to define the basic construction of personality, originates from the lexical hypothesis that means “that individual differences that are most significant in the daily transactions of persons with each other will eventually become encoded in their language” (Smith et al., 2018, p. 2). The model has continued to be stable and as a result, various scholars use it due to its significance in predicting job satisfaction, job performance, career outcomes, employee’s wellbeing and leadership efficiency (Smith, Patmos, & Pitts, 2018).

Thus, the five-factor model is regarded highly as a theory that structures personality traits within a broad system for the purpose of guiding research in the area of personality (Carvalho & Nobre, 2019). Furthermore, the five-factor model of personality is considered as the building blocks of personality, which provide the basis for understanding the foundation of individual differences (Forestell & Nezlek, 2018).

The five- factor model is also important because it provides the collective language for use in the labeling of personality across the fields of psychology (Bucher & Samuel, 2019). The model is also viewed as essential drivers of a person’s behavior and performance in the workplace (Rai & Ajith- Kumar, 2012). Moreover, the five-factor

model of personality is used to represent the personality traits consisting of five elements, which are neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience (Falkenbach, Reinhard, & Zappala, 2019). The elements of the big- five theory are described below and presented in figure 4.1 and 4.2 as follows:

- **Neuroticism:** Neuroticism is viewed as an ordinary element of personality, which refers to the psychological distress that an employee encounters (Rua, Stead & Poklar ,2018). Further, neuroticism is viewed as the anxious behaviour that affects employees negatively (Whaite, Shensa, Sidani, Colditz, & Primack, 2018).
- **Extraversion:** Kok and Meyer (2018) posits that extraverted people like social gatherings and prefer to operate in a group because they are naturally talkative and lively.
- **Agreeableness:** The agreeableness element asserts that an agreeable employee is highly likely to have better interactive adjustments, promote social relationships and is more cooperative and supportive (Rogers & Glendon, 2018). An employee viewed as agreeable is regarded as an individual who pays attention to interpersonal behavior that includes being accommodating and trustworthy (Rua et al., 2018).
- **Conscientiousness:** Conscientiousness consists of meticulousness and organised behaviour, which help employees to be in control of their emotions (Whaite et al., 2018). According to Rapp, Ingold, and Freitag (2019), conscientious people think about problems before they act, are rational, make plans beforehand and maintain a controlled life.
- **Openness to experience:** According to Sahraee and Abdullah (2018), an employee who is open to experience is considered creative, innovative, inquisitive and open mindedness, and holding interest in their work. In addition, an individual who is open to experience seeks new opportunities, new experiences and philosophies (Nezlek & Forestell, 2019). Normally employees who are open to experience display a behaviour associated with intellectualism and inventiveness (Whaite et al., 2018).

---

Extraversion	➡	Assertive and sociable
Agreeableness	➡	Warm, cooperative
Conscientiousness	➡	Hardworking, organized and dependable
Emotional Stability	➡	Calm, Self-Confident and cool
Open To Experience	➡	Creative, curious and cultured

---

*Figure 4.1.* The five elements of the five- factor model of personality (Quick & Nelson, 2009).



*Figure 4.2.* The Five-Factor Model of Personality (Campbell, 2018).

#### 4.5.2 The HEXACO Model of Personality

Recent research shows the popular use of the HEXACO model in research on personality (Romero, Villar, & Lopez-Romero, 2015). Researchers are of the opinions that the five-factor model is not sufficient to explain the individual differences, instead the personality researchers propose the use of the HEXACO Model that consist of six

dimensions of personality (de Vries, Tybur, Pollet, & van Vugt, 2016). Just as the five-factor model, the HEXACO model of personality originates from the lexical hypothesis (Burtaverde, Chraif, Anitei, & Dumitru, 2017). The acronym HEXACO represents the names and number of the six factors contained in the model and these are honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience (Bourdage, Lee, Ashton, & Perry, 2007).

Researchers define the nature of these HEXACO factors in various ways. Honesty-Humility is presented by Lee and Ashton (2014) as characterised by fairness, genuineness and modesty versus greed, dishonesty and arrogance. Smith et al. (2018) state that emotionality refers to being nervous, easily irritable and sensitive versus being tough and unafraid. Extraversion refers to a situation where an individual is socially active, companionable and outgoing versus an individual who is shy and reserved (Nezlek & Forestell, 2019). Agreeableness means being tolerant, compassionate, sympathetic versus inflexibility and harsh (Daft, 2008). While conscientiousness is associated with working hard and being determined and goal orientated versus being lazy and irresponsible (Frieder et al., 2018). Finally, openness to experience describes individuals who are creative and intellectual versus those who are uninspired and simple (Lee & Ashton, 2016).

Previous research shows that the HEXACO model entails the same three traits as the five-factor model and these are extraversion, conscientiousness and openness (Bourdage et al., 2007). The HEXACO model shares most of the same dimensions with the five-factor model except on the inclusion of the additional factor called honesty-humility. It is also important to note that the two elements of agreeableness and emotionality are not interpreted in the same way within the HEXACO and the five-factor model.

For example, the factor of agreeableness in the HEXACO model entails irritation, which best represents neuroticism in the five-factor model (McGrath, Neilson, Lee, Rash, & Rad, 2018). While the emotionality factor of the HEXACO entails sensitivity and sentimentality, which best represent agreeableness in the five-factor model (Knight, Dahlen, Bullock-Yowell, & Madson, 2018). Finally, individuals who are more agreeable, such as being patient and accepting in the HEXACO model, are assumed highly neurotic in the five-factor model (Knight et al., 2018).

Other studies also underscore that sentiment and dependence in the HEXACO model belong to the emotionality factor and not to the agreeableness factor while hostility belongs to agreeableness and not to emotionality as it is within the five-factor model (Romero et al., 2015).

The HEXACO personality model is mainly applied to review the structure of personality traits because of its origin from the lexical studies (Ashton, Lee, & Visser, 2019). Research confirms that since its introduction in the 2000s, the HEXACO personality model has been broadly applied as an organising structure in the study of personality (Lee & Ashton, 2018). The HEXACO model has also been known to explain workplace behaviour, such as anti-social behaviour, self-centeredness and workplace misbehavior, in a better way than the five factor-model (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017). Tran (2018) provides an outline of the HEXACO model of personality and describes the factors as follows:

- **Honesty-Humility (H)** - Sincerity, fairness, greed avoidance and modesty.
- **Emotionality (E)** - Fearfulness, anxiety, dependence and sentimentality.
- **Extraversion (X)** - Social, self-esteem, social boldness, social liveliness.
- **Agreeableness (A)** - Forgiving, gentleness, flexibility and patience.
- **Conscientiousness (C)** - Organisation, diligence, perfectionism and prudence.
- **Open to experience (O)** – Aesthetic, appreciation, inquisitiveness, creativity and unconventionality.





*Figure 4.3. The HEXACO Model of Personality (Tran, 2018)*

#### **4.5.3 The Integrated Model of Psychological Capital in the Workplace**

The integrated model of psychological capital has been widely applied to performance and work related outcomes. According to Luthans, Youssef, and Avolio (2007) psychological capital is intended to describe the positive emotional state of a person, which consist of four psychological elements, self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. The psychological capital of an employee is regarded as one of the essential aspects in the workplace (Wang, Tsai, Tsai, Huang,& de la Cruz, 2018). A study by Youssef-Morgan and Luthans (2015) states that the four psychological elements of PsyCap bring about positive traits, perceptions and favorable work results. The integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace is necessary because it contributes to the PsyCap research and positive psychology, the model emphasises on the positive and negative hypotheses, number of traits and states and various analyses and outcomes (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015).

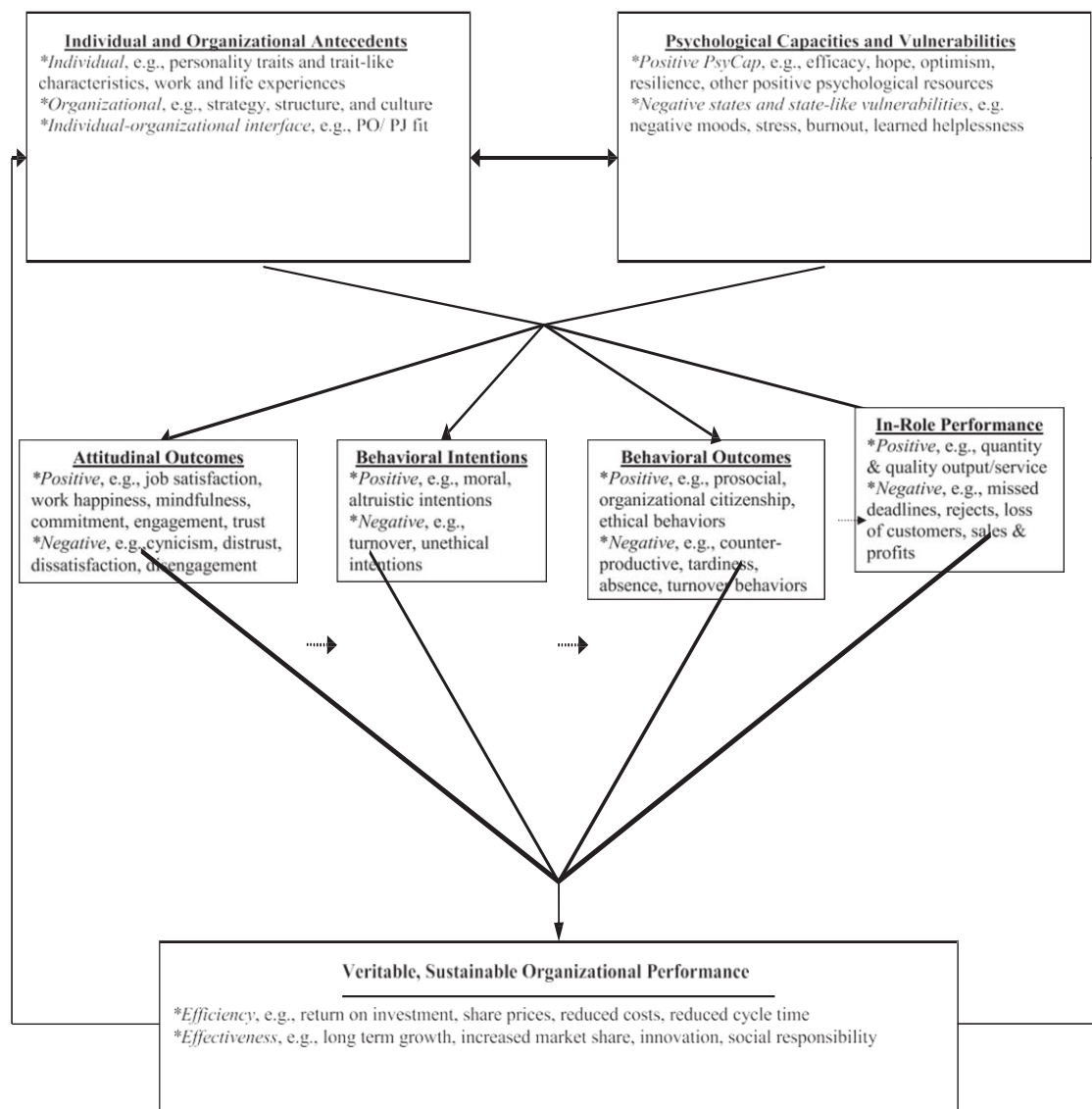
Furthermore, other studies are of the view that the PsyCap research has focused specifically on employees and the results of their work, and that the components of PsyCap can be applied to enhance performance in the workplace (Sheldon, Kashdan,

& Steger, 2011). Thus, the integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace includes the individual and organisational antecedents. Individual antecedents include personality traits, person-organisation fit and person job-fit and core self-evaluations (Sheldon et al., 2011). The organisation antecedents included the strategy, structure and culture (Linley, Harrington, & Garcea, 2010).

Basically, the integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace explains that psychological capital is positively correlated with favorable work outcomes, which includes role performance, job satisfaction, work happiness, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and is negatively connected to stress, counterproductive behaviour, cynicism, absenteeism and turnover (Sheldon et al., 2011). Another view is that the PsyCap leads to desirable outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and connect with the supportive organisational climate and job performance (Linley et al., 2010). Research done by Wan and Hu (2017) confirms that psychological capital has a positive connection with the employees' commitment and satisfaction with their job and that psychological capital is negatively related with employee's intention to exit the organisation.

In addition, Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, and Avolio (2015) are of the opinion that PsyCap can affect behaviour, intentions and positive attitudes. Various personality traits or individual characteristics are also more likely to have an impact on psychological capital and its growth. Moreover, Yildiz (2017) indicates that it is important for organisations to understand the personality traits of their workers. This is because personality plays a major role in an organisation's outcomes that include, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, happiness, job performance, organisation trust, managing stress, burnout and counterproductive behaviour (Yildiz, 2017).

Finally, the integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace is included in this section because the model contains an element of an individual antecedents. The element of individual antecedents entails the personality traits and individual characteristics. The inclusion of psychological capital in the section of personality is also necessary because the psychological capital questionnaire is used in the methodology section to measure personality. The following figure shows the model of psychological capital in the workplace.



**Figure 4.4.** The Integrated Model of Psychological Capital in the Workplace (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015).

Finally, the three models of personality, the five-factor, HEXACO model and the integrated model of psychological capital at the workplace, are selected as the basis of this study. The selection rests on the view that the models include the basic personality traits, support the trait theories (Allport trait theory, Eysenck's hierarchy theory of personality and Cattell's theory of personality) and are connected with the chosen definition of personality, as indicated earlier. Finally, the three models make it easier to understand the basis of individual differences.

#### **4.6 Psychological Capital and Personality**

The study seeks to understand personality through the components of psychological capital. The components of psychological capital include self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. Psychological capital, through its components, is regarded as part of personality because psychological capital entails positive resources that contribute to an individual development (Liran & Miller, 2019). Psychological capital emphasises that an individual owns a set of positive aspects that help shape their psychological behaviour (Kole & Kurt, 2018). Psychological capital has been associated with individual behaviour within an organisation (Thomas & Tankha, 2017). Furthermore, psychological capital has been linked with good performance, individual characteristics and organisational behaviour (Datu, King, & Valdez, 2018). In addition, psychological capital is linked with personality because it is viewed in the workplace as the positive mental state of the development of an individual (Carmona-Halty, Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2019).

Furthermore, several researchers observe the associations between the components of psychological capital and personality traits. Bozgeyikli (2017) notes that psychological capital is negatively connected to neuroticism and positively related to extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Whereas, Limura and Taku (2018) point out that resilience is directly related to extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness and indirectly related to neuroticism. Halama (2010) found out that hope is positively linked to extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness and negatively with neuroticism. At the same time, optimism was found to be correlated with high levels of extraversion and low levels of neuroticism (Sharpe, Martin, & Roth, 2011).

Self-Efficacy was also noted to be related to agreeableness, extraversion and conscientiousness (Wang, Chang, Yao, & Liang, 2016). Finally, strong correlations were found between two personality traits (extraversion and conscientiousness) and the PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2015). The components of psychological capital are described in the subsections below.

#### **4.6.1 Self -Efficacy**

Self-efficacy within the sector refers to an individual tendency to be motivated and use cognitive resources to complete task's productively (Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewe, 2019). Self-efficacy is similar to confidence, individuals with high confidence are likely to make an attribution about their present and future achievements (Kumar & Shah, 2016).

#### **4.6.2 Hope**

Hope is visible when an individual has faith that there are various ways to attain the desirable goals (Jancenelle, Javalgi, & Cavusgil, 2018). Furthermore, hope includes determination and a belief that goals will be successfully attained (Wu & Chen, 2018).

#### **4.6.3 Optimism**

Optimism means that an individual has dealt with the past, is happy with their present situation and seeks opportunities for the future (Luthans, Luthans, & Chaffin, 2019). Optimistic individuals trust that things at work will turn out to be positive in the future and as such, optimism enhances job performance and organisational outcomes (Baur et al., 2018). Finally, optimism refers to the general belief and anticipation that a person will still encounter good things, irrespective of present evil things, and realise better results in the future (Kapikiran & Acun-Kapikiran, 2016).

#### **4.6.4 Resilience**

Resilience refers to an individual's ability to respond well in unfavorable situations, and bounce back from adversity and failure (Anglin et al., 2018). Resilience is also regarded as a responsive mode, which implies that an individual is strong enough to react to an obstacle (Kotze, 2018). In addition, Schultz and Smith (2016) note that resilience could be referred to as the state where workers are able to foresee, become ready, adjust to varying situations and recuperate from distractions.

## **4.7 Individual Differences and Personality**

The discussion on individual differences and personality is currently popular in various studies. Any researcher's definition of a psychological phenomenon is associated with an explanation of how and why the specific phenomenon differs amongst a group of people (Barford, Fayn, Silvia, & Smillie, 2018). This section concerns itself with the possible relations between individual differences in aspects such as intelligence, cognitive abilities, creativity, gender, age and personality.

### **4.7.1 Intelligence and Personality**

Intelligence is defined by Antonio, Ianawati, Wiriana, and Christina (2014) as an individual's ability to learn, gain and apply knowledge in many situations and the ability to cope in a stressful environment. The association between personality and intelligence has been proved to be fundamental in today's society because many organisations use both intelligence and personality tests during the selection processes (Kretzschmar, Spengler, Schubert, Steinmayr, & Ziegler, 2018). Several studies indicate the relationship between intelligence and the dimensions of personality (the big-five traits) and go on to show, amongst all five dimensions, openness to experience as the highly related in relation to intelligence (Osmon et al., 2018).

In fact, Stankov (2018) notes that research on personality and intelligence has long been observed in the history of psychology with openness to experience always found as strongly linked with intelligence. Furnham and Treglown (2018) also affirm that openness to experience is positively linked to intelligence and state further that neuroticism has an indirect relationship with intelligence. Thus, employees who are classified under the neuroticism experience high level of stress, which decreases their ability to perform better and lowers their chances of success. Nonetheless, openness to experience relates to employees who are dedicated, hardworking and organised highly, as well as likely to be top performers (Furnham & Treglown, 2018).

Finally, other studies support the view that personality dimensions associated with openness to experience and conscientiousness have strong correlations with intelligence, while neuroticism has a weak relation with intelligence (Harris, Brett, Johnson, & Deary, 2016).

#### **4.7.2 Cognitive Abilities and Personality**

Cognitive abilities determine what an employee can accomplish within the workplace (Furnham & Treglown, 2018). Personality is important for the cognitive functioning of working individuals. Research shows that employees who are extraverted perform better in reaction-based activities than introverted employees. In addition, employees who are introverted perform better than the extroverted when confronted with tasks that require thinking and reasoning abilities (Allen, laborde, & Walter, 2019). Openness to experience has also been positively associated with cognitive abilities of working individuals. Normally employees who are open to experience possess intellectual traits that assist them to convert basic cognitive abilities into attainment of knowledge (Rammstedt, Lechner, & Danner, 2018). In contrast, research shows that cognitive ability is indirectly related to extraversion and the conscientiousness dimensions of personality traits (Rammstedt, Danner, & Martin, 2016).

#### **4.7.3 Creativity and Personality**

Creativity refers to the manner in which an individual uses the initial purposeful thoughts to bring new solutions to problems in an organisation (Feist, 2019). Personality helps to explain why certain individuals have creative opinions and behaviours and why some individuals are less creative (Feist, 2019). The research by Hu, Wang, Zhang, and Bin (2018) locates personality at the centre of the formation of creativity because creativity is measured at an individual level. Creative people have the necessary skills and abilities to change the working environment and produce favorable results for the organisation, therefore personality enhances the creativity among individuals because it determines the psychological difference between people (Akgunduz et al., 2018). Finally, openness to experience is perceived as related to creativity (Tyagi, Hanoach, Choma, & Denham, 2018). Indeed creativity is positively related to openness to the experience dimension of personality because people who are open to experience seek new ideas and resolutions and take part in intellectual activities (Kok & Meyer, 2018).

#### **4.7.4 Gender Differences and Personality**

Understanding the relations between gender differences and personality has been an interest for researchers. The basic characteristics of males and females tend to vary, with some studies revealing that there is a link between gender differences and the neuroticism dimension of personality that entails, negative emotions, anxiety and fear (Schmitt et al., 2017). Research indicates that females are more agreeable than males and less neurotic nor emotionally negative, while males are less agreeable and highly neurotic (Gronlund & Magnusson, 2018). In addition, it has been found that females are highly extraverted, agreeable and conscientious when matched with males (Vianello, Schnabel, Sriram, & Nosek, 2013). Recent studies affirm that females score higher in agreeableness and neuroticism than males (Flinn, Todd, & Zhang, 2018). Finally, although females are highly extraverted, agreeable and trustworthy, males have been noted to be assertive and to possess high levels of self-esteem (Rahmani & lavasani, 2012).

#### **4.7.5 Age and Personality**

Research indicates that young working individuals are less emotionally stable as compared to older workers (Bertolino, Truxillo, & Fraccaroli, 2012). Following the extraversion dimension of personality, older employees are perceived to be highly neurotic and less sociable (Mottus, Johnson, & Deary, 2012). Younger employees tend to be more conscientiousness and agreeable than the older working individuals because young workers are normally warm, kind and generous in the services they provide (Ojha & Pramanick, 2010). In addition, conscientiousness get higher when employees are still young and active, while openness to experiences drops as employees get older (Bertolino et al., 2012).

#### **4.8 Proactive Behaviour and the Dimensions of Personality**

The study strives to explain the linkage between the behaviour of proactive employees and the big five personality traits. Recent research explains proactive behaviour as upcoming and self-initiated behaviours aimed at bringing positive change within the work context (Wang, Ang, Jiang, & Wu, 2019). Proactive employees tend to have positive experiences about their work environment with their behaviour most likely to contribute to success (Maurer & Chapman, 2018).



A study by Giebels, de Reuver, Rispens, and Ufkes (2016) indicates that proactive behaviour is highly associated with openness to experience, extraversion, and conscientiousness and less related to neuroticism.

There is a view that proactive employees are open to experience because they constantly search for new opportunities that will bring new developments. Such employees do not rely on other people for information and opportunities, but rather take action and look for new ideas to improvise situations (Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017). The research conducted by Wang, Zhang, Thomas, Yu, and Spitzmueller (2017) states that proactive employees are important for the organisation because they always look out for possible opportunities to initiate useful alterations that help to improve their environment. Thus, proactive behaviour results in favorable outcomes, for example, it leads to the success of the organisation, enhances employee performance, and brings positive work attitudes and team effectiveness (Wang et al., 2017). Wang et al. (2019) affirm that proactive individuals are resourcefulness, in control of their situations, propose solutions to issues, and introduce and encourage other people to apply new methods to work. In addition, highly proactive employees tend to be innovative, find solutions to problems and find opportunities that allow for the improvement of their interests and professions (Jiang, 2017).

Furthermore, highly proactive employees prefer to follow their goals and influence their environment as compared to less proactive employees (Jiang, 2017). They are also known to apply their own personal initiatives when confronted with a wide range of events and situations (Li, Wang, Gao, & You, 2017). Other research notes that highly proactive individuals are highly extraverted because they tend to do well at work and form strong social relations with coworkers (Newman et al., 2017). Finally, employees who are proactive are actively involved in their work and can develop actions that impact positively on their work environment (Turban, Moake, Wu, & Cheung, 2017).

#### **4.9 Personality amongst Employees in the Consumer Goods Company**

The personality of employees plays a major role within the consumer goods companies. These employees serve clients within a complex and functional environments. As a result, personality is needed to shape the behaviour of employees within the consumer goods company to ensure that clients are handled in a

respectable manner (Bush, Bush, Oakley, & Cicala, 2017). Good personality traits possessed by employees can improve the success of the company and reduce customer's complaints (Berry, Tanford, Montgomery, & Green, 2018). In addition, personality within the consumer goods company is measured based on the behaviour of employees because it determines how employees act, treat and interact with valuable customers (Chang, 2016). Therefore, the reality that consumer goods employees deal directly with employees makes the way they interact and behave around customers significant in determining the service that they offer (Kim, Gazzoli, Qu, & Kim, 2016).

A recent study by Caliskan (2019) argues that agreeableness, emotional stability and extraversion are the important personality traits that are suitable to describe an employee working in consumer goods Company. Extraverted individuals can be described as highly confident, energetic, sociable, passionate and happy (Hachana, Berraies, & Ftiti, 2018). While an agreeable individual is considered to be cooperative, trusting, merciful, empathetic and thoughtful (Hachana et al., 2018). Interestingly, research affirms that employees in the consumer goods companies are highly extraverted and agreeable because they are sociable, customer-orientated, considerate and prioritise the needs of the clients (Leischnig & Kasper-Brauer, 2015).

In addition, such workers are considered cooperative, helpful in meeting the needs of clients, supportive and attentive to the expectations raised by clients (Castillo, 2017). Other studies point out that workers in the consumer goods companies are reliable, friendly, trustworthy and customer-orientated, which helps in attracting more customers to the stores (Schellong, Kraiczy, Malar, & Hack, 2018).

Some studies stress that an important trait of an employee within the consumer goods company is flexibility, which can be linked with extraversion, for when an employee is flexible and able to interact appropriately with customers, their behaviour tends to increase customer's fulfillment (Coelho, Lages, & Sousa, 2018).

Other researchers noted that employees who constantly interact with customers have to be empathetic, determined and assertive (Eberechukwu, Onyedikachi, & Awah, 2017). Finally, consumer goods employees tend to display a certain behaviour that enables them to be good and provide accurate quality services to customers, with this

good behaviour in turn leading to the increased number of customers (Tsaur, Luoh, & Syue, 2015).

#### **4.10 Summary**

This chapter focused on the nature and definitions of personality and the determinants of personality (Genetics and Environment). It also focused on six theories of personality and these included the social cognitive theory, Gray's reinforcement theory, the personal construct theory, Allport's theory of personality, Eysenck's hierarchy personality theory and Cattell's personality theory. The chapter also discussed the five-factor model, HEXACO model and the integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace. Furthermore, the study focused on the components of psychological capital linked with personality and the relationship between personality and individual differences such as intelligence, cognitive ability, creativity, age and gender, and personality. Finally, chapter also reviewed ideas related to the notion of proactive behaviour and personality traits and personality amongst employees in the consumer goods company.

The next chapter focuses on the research methodology used in this study.

## **Chapter 5: Research Methodology**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the quantitative research approach used to investigate the research problem of the present study. The chapter's discussion mainly focuses on the quantitative approach to research, survey research design, ethical considerations and clearance, selection of respondents, data collection, measuring instruments and statistical methods. Thus, the chapter starts with a brief description of the quantitative approach to research, and the advantages and disadvantages of the quantitative approach.

### **5.2 Quantitative Approach to Research**

The quantitative research approach entails analysing data statistically and reporting results in a numerical format (Gomm, 2008). The approach is a vigorous model that is concerned with investigating correlations between variables (Dandekar, 2005). It is also a simplified approach used to interpret data obtained from participants (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016).

#### **5.2.1 The Advantages of Quantitative Research Approach**

Various advantages are derived from using the quantitative research approach. Neuman (2014) notes that the quantitative research approach enables researchers to capture the details of the social world and interpret the meaning in numbers. As a result, the quantitative research approach assists researchers to make decisions about variables and transform them into actions before the gathering and analysing the data (Neuman, 2014).

Moreover, McCarthy, Whittaker, Boyle, and Eyal (2017) maintain that another advantage of the quantitative research approach is that it is developed from the positivist framework that is applied to discover a measured and quantified truth in research. Other studies point out that quantitative research does not rely on the social process and as such has a specific focus and deals strictly with the quantities and the analysis of associations of variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003).

#### **5.2.2 The Disadvantages of the Quantitative Research Approach**

In contrast, Bryman (2012) points out that the quantitative research approach is unable to differentiate social institutions and humans from the world of nature. The approach relies heavily on instruments that can hinder the linkage between research and

everyday life. This means that there are potential challenges to determining if the participants have the necessary knowledge to respond to questions and whether the questions are related to their everyday life (Bryman, 2012). Even though the quantitative research approach insists on promoting statistical thinking, many researchers find this form of research approach to be irrelevant, uninteresting and associated with anxieties (Baglin, Reece, & Baker, 2015).

Another limitation is that the analysis of relationships between variables present a view of social life that is not dependent on people's lives. Bryman (2012) notes that the researcher may not have an idea about the correlation between two or more variables produced by people who participated in the research. However, care was taken in this study to ensure that the variable being studied had a bearing on their work context. In addition, all the questions that were asked were linked with the participants' day-to-day activities.

### **5.2.3 The Characteristics of the Survey Research Design**

This section considers the characteristics, advantages and disadvantages of the survey research design as a specific quantitative research design. The survey research design originates from the positivist perspective, which believes that social reality is built from objectives and stable facts (Neuman, 2012). Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, and Zechmeister (2015) identify various characteristics of the survey research. Firstly, the survey research design is widely applied to deal with thoughts, feelings and opinions of the study participants. Secondly, the survey research design is more specific and limited in scope. Thirdly, the survey research design has procedures that can be used to test whether the surveys are biased. Lastly, the survey research design determines the predetermined set of questions to be included in the questionnaire and to select samples of the study (Shaughnessy et al., 2015).

The survey research design is the simplest form of gathering data with samples of groups of people. It can be used in the form of a questionnaire or an interview and mainly takes the form of questionnaires (Little, 2013). The survey research design is mainly effective in addressing the practical problems of social reality (Little, 2013). Finally, the survey research design is a technique designed to ask participants of the study questions about themselves (Cozby & Bates, 2015).

#### **5.2.4 The Advantages of the Survey Research Design**

The various advantages of the survey research design include its significance in studying human behaviour. Surveys makes it easier to study several behaviours, such as self-reports behaviours, attitudes and emotional states, at once (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The survey research design is highly effective and can include many questions that need to be answered in one sitting. A researcher can also use a single survey to test many variables and hypotheses (Neuman, 2012).

Furthermore, the survey research design is also a necessary form of quantitative research approach. It enables the researchers to determine the correlation between variables and the change in attitudes and behaviours (Cozby & Bates, 2015). It is also convenient because the study participants often answer questions in the correct way and the information provided is accurate (Cozby & Bates, 2015). In addition, Mahmud (2009) argues that the survey research design is a rapid, efficient and reliable means to obtain information about the population. It is also a flexible and accurate method of collecting data when used appropriately by the researcher (Mahmud, 2009).

#### **5.2.5 The Disadvantages of the Survey Research Design**

One of the disadvantages of the survey research design is that its information relies on the answers of the respondents or the organisation, and what a participant indicates may be different from their actions or behaviours (Neuman, 2012). This implies that the quality of answers or responses provided by the participants is based on their previous experience. Other disadvantages related to this are inconsistencies found within the answers provided by respondents and that sometimes respondents have no clear understanding of what they would have been asked about in the survey. This means that participants can easily select statements or provide answers that appear to be socially desirable (Merckle, Octobre, & Jacobs, 2015).

Further disadvantages are associated with the survey research design. Respondents are sometimes not willing to provide answers to sensitive questions. Survey research designs can be more time-consuming and expensive because the researcher has to travel to the company or research site where the data will be collected (Mahmud, 2009). In addition, the surveys or questionnaire can be lengthy and take very long to

administer to participants (Mahmud, 2009). According to Adams and Lawrence (2015), it is possible that self-reports of the survey research design can be inaccurate because participants are likely to deceive the researcher or themselves. This is called the social desirability bias where respondents answer questions based on how they want to be perceived by the researcher instead of their true thinking and behaviour (Adams & Lawrence, 2015).

### **5.3 Ethical Considerations and Ethical Clearance**

Ethical clearance and institutional permission from a large retail organisation and the University of the Free State's Ethics Committee was obtained prior to data collection. The study's ethical clearance number is **UFS –HSD 2016/1578**. The study's data was collected from the five stores of this large retail organisation in Bloemfontein. Even though the study set a sample of 200 participants, 150 individuals participated in the study, and the process adhered to ethical standards such as informed consent, anonymity, and voluntary participation.

### **5.4 Selection of the Respondents**

During the selection process of participants, it becomes necessary to differentiate two types of sampling. Sampling plays a significant role in the entire research process. The two forms of sampling, probability and non-probability sampling, are considered in this section as they play a significant role in this study.

#### **5.4.1 Probability Sampling**

Probability sampling means that individuals are aware of their participation in the study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). All the participants were aware that they participated in the study. The reason for using probability sampling is because the researcher has access to the sampling frame (a complete list of all the individuals in the population).

The sampling frame is used to randomly select individuals from the population to participate in the study. Researchers, such as Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016) are of the view that probability sampling offers every participant a fair probability of being chosen to participate in the study. Welman, Kruger, and Mitchell (2005) also note that probability sampling enables the researcher to predict the probability that every member of the population will be part of the sample. Therefore, probability sampling

has a unique way of finding the best predictions about the qualities of the population, which explains why in most cases the sample results are highly representative of the population (Mahmud, 2009).

#### **5.4.2 Non-probability Sampling**

Non-probability sampling refers to the inability of the researcher to calculate the likelihood of an individual's participation in a sample (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012). This form of sampling emphasises efforts seeking to attain information easily and cheaply (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Non-probability sampling is only relevant for a study if there are no appropriate frames of sampling for the population (David & Sutton, 2011). Other studies point to non-probability sampling as a research tool that is used when researchers have no clue about the quantity or place of those individuals who make up a population from which researchers intend to draw a sample (Glicken, 2003). This form of sampling requires the researcher to compile several steps in order to point out the population to obtain the right sample (Glicken, 2003). In non-probability sampling, the participants are not randomly selected to participate in the study. Hence, it is more difficult to ensure a representative sample when using non-probability sampling.

#### **5.4.3 Convenience Sampling**

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), convenience sampling refers to the gathering of data from easily accessible and present study participants. This type of sampling is mostly applied during the exploratory stage of research, and it is viewed as the most appropriate method for attaining well-organised data speedily (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Researchers who find difficulties on finding a population to draw a sample from often resort to whoever is accessible to take part in the study.

This technique assumes that the engagement of these few available individuals would provide the same data if a more substantial population were available for investigation (Glicken, 2003).

Moreover, Welman et al. (2005) state, in agreement with the above that, convenience sampling is mainly applied by the researchers when the aim is to choose participants that are easily accessible to be included in the sample. The selection process can go further as long as the sample size that the researcher needs is obtained (Welman et al., 2005). It is essential to use convenience sampling when the population is not



known and in situations where the researcher seeks to discover a new research location (David & Sutton, 2011). The convenience non-probability sampling is chosen as the basis for the selection of respondents in the present study. This is because the researcher had an idea of the target group and the organisation where the population would come from. However, the researcher had no access to the sampling frame. In the following section, the focus is on the data collection and the description of the measuring instruments as well as the discussion on the statistical methods (descriptive and inferential statistics).

## **5.5 Data Collection and Measuring Instruments**

A questionnaire was used to collect data. The questionnaire included the demographic information of employees at a large retail organisation with stores in Bloemfontein. Information was collected on the subjects' gender, age, race, highest qualification and job position in the company. The questionnaire also consisted of four scales measuring transformational leadership, personality and work engagement. Questions were rated on a Likert scale.

The questionnaire was self-administered by respondents and directed by the researcher to meet the requirements of validity. Participants completed the questionnaire by themselves. However, the researcher explained to the participants the purpose of the study before administering the survey and provided them with the opportunity to ask questions if they did not understand. A comprehensive description of the scales administered to participants is provided beneath. This section explains the measures together with its nature, composition, reliability, validity and rationale for their inclusion.

### **5.5.1 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)**

#### **5.5.1.1 Nature and Composition of a Measuring Instruments**

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was used to measure work engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) developed the above-mentioned measure and the scale consists of 17 item version. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is also a favorite instrument, which is divided into three subscales: *Vigour*, which consists of 6 items, *Dedication*, which comprises five items, and *Absorption*, which entails six items (Shimazu et al., 2008). Likewise, all items are scored based on 7-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (Never) to 6 (every day) (Shimazu et al., 2008).

A recent study by Gupta and Shukla (2018) states that the three sub-dimensions of work engagement can be explained as follows; Vigour is associated with a high amount of energy, efforts and perseverance that employees have in their work. Dedication is characterised by a high sense of pride, inspiration and enthusiasm, especially when the employee's work is challenging. Absorption represents the extent to which employees are happily engaged in their work in such a way that it becomes difficult to separate from it (Gupta & Shukla, 2018).

#### **5.5.1.2 Rationale for inclusion**

The study used the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) because it measures the theoretical components of work engagement using a reliable and valid measuring instrument. The measure is applicable for the study because it was proven to have validity and reliability and recommended for future researchers (Seppala et al., 2009). Moreover, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) has excellent internal reliability, which entails the median alpha of .92 for the whole scale (Alok & Israel, 2012). The psychometric information of the UWES shows that the three sub-dimensions of work engagement have strong internal consistencies (Rothmann & Storm, 2003). Research points out that the Cronbach alphas vary as per the dimension of the UWES; for example, the Cronbach alpha for vigour was found to be between .78 and .79, the dedication was between .84 and .89. Absorption has been shown to have a Cronbach alpha between .73 and .72, which is regarded as the lowest of them all (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006).

#### **5.5.2 The Leadership Behaviour Scale (LBS)**

##### **5.5.2.1 Nature and Composition of a Measuring Instrument**

The leadership behaviour scale (LBS) is used in this study to measure transformational leadership. The leadership behaviour scale is chosen in this study because it is widely recognised to measure the six behaviours related to transformational leaders. Researchers are of the opinion that the leadership behaviour scale measures crucial aspects such as (a) identifying and articulating a vision, (b) providing an appropriate model (c) fostering the acceptance of group goals (d) high performance expectations (e) providing individualised support and (f) intellectual stimulation, which are associated with leaders (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Furthermore, Day and Antonakis (2012) explain the sub-dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale as follows;

- **Identifying and articulating a vision-** It is when the leader is inspirational to his/her followers, actively searches for new opportunities and gets his/her followers to go in the same right direction.
- **Providing an appropriate model-** The leader becomes a good role model to his/her followers and instead of telling them what to do he/she demonstrates by doing.
- **Fostering the acceptance of group goals-** This means that the leader believes in teamwork and encourages good cooperation towards achieving the same goals.
- **High-performance expectations-** This happens when the leader sets high-performance standards and expects excellent performance from his/her followers.
- **Providing individualised support-** This means that the leader is thoughtful and sensitive to his/her followers' feelings.
- **Intellectual stimulation-** This means that followers are challenged to be more creative and think about old problems in new ways, and rethink their ideas about the future.

Items on the leadership behaviour scale are scored on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree) (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

#### ***5.5.2.2 Rationale for inclusion***

The leadership behaviour scale (LBS) is an acceptable measure that is proven valid and reliable for assessing transformational leadership. It is also evident that the measure has high levels of convergent validity with significant correlations among the concepts of the measure equivalent to or higher than .90 (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

The reliability of the core transformational leader behaviour (identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model and fostering the acceptance of group goals) is .87, high performance expectations is .78, providing individualised support .90 while intellectual stimulation is .91. (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

### **5.5.3 Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ)**

#### **5.5.3.1 Nature and Composition of a Measuring Instrument**

The Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) is employed in this study to measure psychological capital. The Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) measures four components and these are hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy. In addition, this measure consists of 24 items (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Hope is applied to describe individuals who are highly confident in the work they do (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). Hope consists of agency and pathways. Agency means that an individual is motivated to perform better and achieve a particular goal while pathways refer to the ability of an individual to find possible ways to attain a desirable goal (Newman et al., 2014).

Resilience refers to the ability of an individual to quickly adjust to stressful situations, adversity and failure while still able to perform beyond set goals (Gorgens-Ekermans & Herbert, 2013). Optimism refers to the degree to which an individual believes in the future and possesses an understanding of past or current experiences (Yim, Seo, Cho, & Kim, 2017). Self-efficacy means an individual is highly confident, competent and can do well (Nguyen, Jefferies, & Rojas, 2018). Using this measure, participants responded to questions on a 6-point Likert scale, which consisted of 1- Strongly disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Somewhat Disagree, 4 – Somewhat agree, 5- Agree and 6- Strongly agree.

#### **5.5.3.2 Rationale for Inclusion**

The Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) is chosen in this study because it is valid. The measure has been used widely in previous research and has been confirmed as reliable to use in workplace studies (Luthans et al., 2007). Studies show that the PCQ has excellent internal consistency and also documents the reliability coefficients, with the Cronbach Alphas of the four dimensions as follows; Hope-.87, Optimism-.78, Resilience.72 and Self-Efficacy-.87 (Simons & Buitendach, 2013).

### **5.5.4 Self-liking and Competence Scale-revised (SLCS-R)**

#### **5.5.4.1 Nature and Composition of a Measuring Instrument**

This study uses the Self-liking and Competence scale-revised (SLCS-R) measuring instrument to measure self-esteem as part of the personality. Self-liking and

Competence scale-revised (SLCS-R) measure consists of 16 items. Furthermore, the measure is divided into two subscales, which are the self-liking subscale and self-competence subscale. The two subscales entail eight items, respectively (Silvera, Lavack, & Kropp, 2008).

Self-competence is defined as the experience of an individual as a causal agent and the degree to which one can achieve favourable outcomes through exercising their power (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001). While, self-liking is when an individual perceives their behaviour as bad or good in a social act (Tafarodi & Swann Jr, 2001). Researchers reported that both the self-liking (.87) and self-competence (.77) indicate internal reliability (Silvera et al., 2008). Other studies indicated that the Cronbach Alphas for self-liking is .90 and for self-competence is .80 (Rosen, Underwood, Gentsch, Rahdah, & Wharton, 2012). Items on the self-liking and competence scale-revised (SLCS-R) are scored on five-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Consequently, participants in this study were required to respond to questions on a 5-point Likert scale (Silvera et al., 2008).

#### **5.5.4.2 Rationale for Inclusion**

The Self-liking and Competence scale-revised (SLCS-R) measure is chosen in this study because it is proven to be valid and has shown excellent internal reliability, Self-Liking with the alpha of .87 and self-competence with the alpha of .77 (Silvera et al., 2008).

### **5.6 Statistical Methods**

Statistical methods are divided into two categories, namely, the descriptive and the inferential statistics. The current study employs both the descriptive and inferential statistical methods in analysing data.

#### **5.6.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics present all essential aspects of the collected data set in a summarised form of graphs, tables and charts (Jaggia & Kelly, 2014). According to Walliman (2001) descriptive statistics quantify aspects of data and have a unique way of identifying the centre of the data and assess how different aspects of the data are linked to one another. Thus, the descriptive statistics method is employed in this study

using tables and frequencies with the components of mean, median and mode, which form part of the measures of central tendency, applied as well.

#### **5.6.1.1 Measures of Central Tendency**

Measures of central tendency consist of three essential elements which are mean, median and mode.

- **Mean-** is an average that is determined by adding the whole set of scores and dividing the result by the number that one would have started with (Allen, 2017). Other studies define the mean as a widely used measure of central tendency that is applied in combination with interval and ratio levels of measurement; meaning the sum of scores divided by the number of scores (Jankowski & Flannelly, 2015).
- **Median-** according to Manikandan (2011), the median is the middle number found when the frequency distribution is separated into two halves. Median in simple terms means a midpoint in a group of scores (Walker, 2010).
- **Mode-** is a measure of central tendency that can be applied together with nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio data; it is referred to as the frequent number that occurs (Neuman, 2014). In addition, Allen (2017) notes that mode is regarded as the most popular number that occurs many times in a set of numbers.

#### **5.6.2 Inferential Statistics**

Inferential statistics focus on making predictions through inferences on the analysed set of data (Walliman, 2005). Inferential statistics is also referred to as inductive statistics because researchers go as far as beyond describing the data and make inferences about the phenomenon for which the data sample has been reached (Weiers, Gray, & Peters, 2008). Inferential statistics also enable the researcher to draw conclusions on the results of the sample of the population based on the findings of a single study conducted with a sample from the population (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). The objectives of the present study demand that the correlational analysis and stepwise multiple regression analysis and the Mann-Whitney U-test be employed to test the different hypotheses/objectives. The study makes use of correlational analysis and stepwise multiple regression to determine the effect of the independent variables

on the dependent variable. In addition, the Mann-Whitney U-test is used to determine differences based on gender.

#### **5.6.2.1 Correlational Analysis**

Correlational analysis employs statistical tests to examine two (or more) variables and indicate if there is a relationship (Walker, 2010). The correlational analysis provides a number between zero and one and explains the strong relationship between the variable when the number is near to one, weak relationship between the variables is found when the number is near zero (Walker, 2010). The correlational analysis and multiple regression focus on making predictions about the relationship between the variables (Shaughnessy et al., 2015). Furthermore, Van Ornum, Dunlap, and Shore (2008) agree that the correlational analysis is mainly practical when the goal of the researcher is to determine the correlation between the two variables and whether one variable could influence the other variable to behave in a particular way.

#### **5.6.2.2 Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis**

The study employs the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis approach to determine the effects of all three variables. This method was chosen because the primary focus of this study is to determine the effect of transformational leadership and personality on work engagement. The stepwise multiple regression analysis is applied when using quantitative variables, where the dependent variable is to be studied as an essential element of or in associations with any factors concerned with the independent variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Other studies, maintain that the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis' emphasis is on the correlations of three variables (Kleinbaum, Kupper, Nizam, & Muller, 2008). Nonetheless, this form of analysis is highly suitable for hypotheses produced by researchers from the behavioural, health sciences and education (Cohen et al., 2003).

#### **5.6.2.3 Mann-Whitney U Test**

The Mann-Whitney U test is used when the distribution of values within the independent samples is not transparent or when the values are not in the standard distribution (Milenovic, 2011). According to Nachar (2008), the Mann-Whitney U test is the widely used non-parametric tests that help researchers to investigate research questions related to differences between two groups. Furthermore, Milenovic (2011) agrees that the Mann-Whitney U Test is a non-parametric statistical technique, which

is practical when using independent samples. Field (2013) also supports the view that the Mann-Whitney U test is commonly used when the researcher is interested in observing the differences of the ranked positions of scores within various groups. Onurlubas (2015) explains the Mann Whitney U test as the technique that is mainly used to identify the differences between variables about gender. Based on the evidence above, it is clear that the Mann-Whitney U test is significant in any research that seeks to find the differences within groups. In this study, the Mann Whitney U test is used in determining possible differences about work engagement existing between females and males.

## **5.7 Summary**

This research methodology chapter focused on the quantitative approach to research and outlined its advantages and disadvantages. The chapter also discussed the survey research design together with its characteristics, advantages and disadvantages. It also briefly discussed the ethical considerations and ethical clearance of the study. Both the probability and non-probability sampling techniques were discussed, with a specific focus on convenience sampling (non-probability sampling). Discussed further, are the four measuring instruments: The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), The Leadership Behaviour Scale (LBS), Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ), and the Self-liking and Competence scale-revised (SLCS-R). The statistical methods namely the descriptive and the inferential statistics used in the study were also outlined. The focus on descriptive statistics was on the measures of central tendency (mean, median and Mode) while that on inferential statistics was on the correlational analysis, the stepwise multiple regression analysis, and the Mann-Whitney U Test. The following chapter focuses on the study results, conclusions and recommendations.



## Chapter 6: Results, Conclusions and Recommendations

### 6.1 Introduction

The present chapter presents and discusses the results of the study. The presentation of the research results is in the form of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics are presented in the form of tables. The main purpose of the descriptive statistics is to describe the biographical information of the participants of the study. The inferential statistics focus on the reliability estimates of the measures, correlations, regression and Mann-Whitney U test. The last section of the chapters focuses on the study implications, shortcomings, and recommendations.

### 6.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics provide an overview of the basic features of the sample that participated in the present study. Tables are used to represent the frequency distribution of the sample based on collected biographical data.

#### 6.2.1 Biographical Information

The biographical information gathered entails age, gender, race, highest qualification and job position in the company. Data was collected from 150 respondents. The frequency distributions are presented below.

Table 6.1

#### *Frequency Distribution (Age)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-25 years	37	24.7	24.7	24.7
	26-35 years	62	41.3	41.3	66.0
	36-45 years	34	22.7	22.7	88.7
	46-55 years	16	10.7	10.7	99.3
	56-65 years	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.1 reflects the age distribution of respondents. The results show that the majority of the respondents (41.3%) were between the ages of 26 and 35 years, followed by the respondents between the age 18 and 25 (22.7%).

Table 6.2

*Frequency Distribution (Gender)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	56	37.3	37.3	37.3
	Female	94	62.7	62.7	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.2 shows the gender distribution of the respondents. The results indicate that majority of respondents were females (62.7%), with 37.3% of the sample being males.

Table 6.3

*Frequency Distribution (Race)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Black	132	88.0	88.0	88.0
	White	4	2.7	2.7	90.7
	Coloured	14	9.3	9.3	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.3 depicts the race frequency distribution of the respondents. The results indicate that many of respondents were blacks (88%). The results also show that a few respondents were whites (2.7%).

Table 6.4

*Frequency Distribution (Highest Qualification)*

Qualification		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Grade 10	11	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Grade 11	26	17.3	17.3	24.7
	Grade 12	96	64.0	64.0	88.7
	Diploma	17	11.3	11.3	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.4 presents the qualification frequency distribution of the respondents. The results indicate that the majority of the respondents (64%) have a Grade 12 qualification, followed by 17.3% of the respondents who have a Grade 11 qualification.

Table 6.5

*Frequency Distribution (Job Position)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Cleaner	7	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Cashier	44	29.3	29.3	34.0
	Store Manager	1	.7	.7	34.7
	Assistant Store Manager	4	2.7	2.7	37.3
	Admin Manager	5	3.3	3.3	40.7
	Floor Manager	8	5.3	5.3	46.0
	Customer Manager	6	4.0	4.0	50.0
	Other	75	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	150	100.0	100.0	

According to Table 6.5, the majority of respondents (50%) hold other positions (e.g. merchandisers, stock takers, shelf packers, bakery assistant and deli assistant), followed by respondents who are employed as Cashiers (29.3 %).

The focus in the next section is on the presentation and discussion of the reliability estimates of the measuring instruments used in the study.

### 6.2.2 Reliability Estimates

The reliability estimates for various measures used in the current research are reported in table 6.6.

Table 6.6

*Reliability Estimates*

<b>Measurement scales</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Number of Items</b>
<b>Leadership Behaviour Scale</b>		
Articulating a vision	0.838	5
Providing and appropriate model	0.806	3
Fostering acceptance of group goals	0.855	4
HP- High-performance expectations	0.489	3
IS-Providing individualised support	0.452	4
INTSTIM-Intellectual stimulation	0.781	4
CR – Contingent reward	0.754	5

<b>Utrecht Work Engagement Scale</b>		
Vigour	0.703	6
Dedication	0.780	5
Absorption	0.734	6
<b>Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Scale</b>		
Efficacy/Confidence	0.767	6
Hope	0.760	6
Resilience	0.566	6
Optimism	0.444	6
<b>Self-liking and Competence Scale</b>		
Self-Liking	0.540	8
Self-Competence	0.444	8

The reliability estimates for the four measures used in the current study range between 0.444 and 0.855. Optimism, as a dimension of the psychological capital, has the lowest reliability estimate (0.444) just as the self-competence dimension of the self-liking and

competence scale. The leadership behaviour scale with specific reference to the dimension of fostering acceptance of group goals has the highest reliability estimate (0.855)

#### *The Leadership Behaviour Scale*

The study results show that the Cronbach's alpha reliability of the dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale are as follows; identifying and articulating a vision ( $\alpha = .83$ ), providing an appropriate model ( $\alpha = .80$ ), fostering the acceptance of group goals ( $\alpha = .85$ ), high performance expectations ( $\alpha = .48$ ), providing individualised support ( $\alpha = .45$ ), while intellectual stimulation is ( $\alpha = .78$ ).

The dimensions of identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals ( $\alpha = .87$ ), as found by Podsakoff and his colleagues (1990) are to some extent similar to those obtained in the current study; identifying and articulating a vision ( $\alpha = .83$ ), providing an appropriate model ( $\alpha = .80$ ), fostering the acceptance of group goals ( $\alpha = .85$ ). Furthermore, the dimensions of high performance expectations ( $\alpha = .78$ ), providing individualised support ( $\alpha = .90$ ), and intellectual stimulation ( $\alpha = .91$ ) as found by Podsakoff and his colleagues (1990) are better than those obtained for the current study; high performance expectations ( $\alpha = .48$ ), providing individualised support ( $\alpha = .45$ ) and intellectual stimulation is ( $\alpha = .78$ ).

#### *The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale*

The results from this study also indicate that the Cronbach's alpha reliability for the dimensions of the Utrecht Work Engagement is as follows; vigour ( $\alpha = .70$ ), dedication ( $\alpha = .78$ ), and absorption ( $\alpha = .73$ ).

The vigour dimension ( $\alpha = .78$  and  $\alpha = .79$ ) as found by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006) is slightly higher to the one obtained for the current study; vigour ( $\alpha = .70$ ). The dedication dimension ( $\alpha = .84$  and  $\alpha = .89$ ) as found by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006) is better than the one obtained for the current study; dedication ( $\alpha = .78$ ). Moreover, the absorption dimension ( $\alpha = .73$  and  $\alpha = .72$ ) as identified by Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2006) is similar to the one obtained in the study Absorption ( $\alpha = .73$ ).

### Psychological Capital

The results show that the Cronbach's alpha reliability for the psychological capital scale's four dimensions. These are as follows; hope ( $\alpha = .76$ ), optimism ( $\alpha = .44$ ), resilience ( $\alpha = .56$ ) and self-efficacy ( $\alpha = .76$ ). The obtained reliabilities of the psychological capital scale are acceptable.

The dimensions of hope ( $\alpha = .87$ ), optimism ( $\alpha = .78$ ), resilience ( $\alpha = .72$ ) and self-efficacy ( $\alpha = .87$ ) as found by Simons and Buitendijk (2013) are better than those obtained for the current study; hope ( $\alpha = .76$ ) optimism ( $\alpha = .44$ ), resilience ( $\alpha = .56$ ) and self-efficacy ( $\alpha = .76$ ).

### The Self-Liking/Competence Scale

The current study's results show that the Cronbach's alpha reliability for the self-liking and competence scale is as follows; self-liking ( $\alpha = .54$ ) and self-competence ( $\alpha = .44$ ). The obtained reliabilities of the self-liking and competence scale leave much room for improvement. The dimensions of the self-liking ( $\alpha = .87$ ) and Competence ( $\alpha = .77$ ), as determined by Silvera et al. (2008), are better than those obtained for the current study self-liking ( $\alpha = .54$ ) and self-competence ( $\alpha = .44$ ).

In summary, all the scales used in the present study had acceptable reliability estimates (with both Optimism and Self-Competence leaving room for improvement). With reliable measures, the present study continued to use inferential statistics to answer the research questions.

## **6.3 Inferential Statistics**

The discussion on the inferential statistics focuses on correlations, stepwise multiple regression and Mann-Whitney U Test. The correlation and stepwise multiple regression results are presented and discussed in relation to the primary research question: Does transformational leadership and personality have an effect on employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein?

The Mann-Whitney U Test results are presented and discussed in line with the secondary research questions: Do differences exist in the levels of employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein with regards to gender?



### **6.3.1 Correlations**

The presentation of the correlations focuses on both the relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement, and the relationship between psychological capital and work engagement. Psychological capital is discussed as a component of personality. Finally, the focus moves to the relationship between self-liking and self-competence with work engagement.

Table 6.7 presents the correlations between transformational leadership and work engagement

Table 6.7

*Correlations*

		UWES
AV-Identifying and articulating a vision. (LBS)- Leadership behaviour scale	Pearson Correlation	.462**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
PAM- Providing an appropriate model (LBS)- Leadership behaviour Scale	Pearson Correlation	.368**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
FAG- Fostering the acceptance of group goals (LBS)- Leadership behaviour Scale	Pearson Correlation	.352**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
HP- High-performance expectations (LBS)- Leadership behaviour Scale	Pearson Correlation	.279**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	150
IS - Providing individualised support (LBS)- Leadership behaviour Scale	Pearson Correlation	.308**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
INTSTIM - Intellectual stimulation (LBS)- Leadership behaviour Scale	Pearson Correlation	.356**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
CR – Contingent Reward Leadership behaviour Scale (LBS)	Pearson Correlation	.349**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150

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

The correlation results presented in Table 6.7 show that there is a statistically significant correlation between transformational leadership and work engagement. The correlation results show a statistical significant relationship between articulating a vision ( $r = .462$ ) and work engagement, providing and appropriate model ( $r = .368$ ) and work engagement, fostering acceptance of group goals ( $r = .352$ ) and work engagement, high performance ( $r = .279$ ) and work engagement, individualised support ( $r = .308$ ) and work engagement and intellectual stimulation ( $r = .356$ ) and work engagement. The correlations range between  $r = .279$  and  $r = .462$ . The highest correlation was found between transformational leadership and work engagement with specific reference to identifying and articulating vision dimension ( $r = .462$ ). The lowest correlation was found between transformational leadership and work engagement with specific reference to high performance expectations dimension ( $r = .279$ ).

Table 6.8

*Correlations between Psychological Capital and Work Engagement*

		UWES
Efficacy (PsyCap)	Pearson Correlation	.467**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
Hope (PsyCap)	Pearson Correlation	.540**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
Resiliency (PsyCap)	Pearson Correlation	.346**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150
Optimism (PsyCap)	Pearson Correlation	.347**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	150

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

According to Table 6.8, the correlation results show that there is a statistically significant correlation between psychological capital and work engagement. The correlation results show that there is a statistical significant relationship with efficacy ( $r = .467$ ) and work engagement, hope ( $r = .540$ ) and work engagement, resiliency ( $r = .346$ ) and work engagement, as well as optimism ( $r = .347$ ) and work engagement. The correlations range between  $r = .346$  and  $r = .540$ . The highest correlation was found between the psychological capital and work engagement with specific reference to hope ( $r = .540$ ). The lowest correlation was found between psychological capital and work engagement with specific reference to resilience ( $r = .346$ ).

Table 6.9

*Correlations between Self-liking and Self-Competence with Work Engagement*

		UWES
SL (SLCS)	Pearson Correlation	.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.126
	N	150
SC (SLCS)	Pearson Correlation	.265**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	149

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

Table 6.9 presents the correlation results. It shows that there is a non-significant correlation between self-liking ( $r = .126$ ) and work engagement, while self-competence ( $r = .265$ ) has a significant correlation with work engagement. The self-competence dimension has a stronger relationship work engagement.

### 6.3.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

The stepwise multiple regression results are presented and discussed in this section to determine whether transformational leadership and personality has an effect on work engagement as stated in the primary research question. Although correlations are useful in determining the relationship between a dependent variable (work engagement) and independent variables (leadership and PsyCap), they do not help to determine the predictive ability of the independent variables. Therefore, a stepwise multiple regression was used to determine the independent variables that act as significant predictors of work engagement.

Table 6.10

*Stepwise Multiple Regression*

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	16.662	5.945		2.803	.006
	Hope (PsyCap)	1.057	.249	.343	4.249	.000
	AV (LBS)	.664	.154	.296	4.306	.000
	Efficacy (PsyCap)	.466	.221	.169	2.112	.036

The above results shows that only three variables were significant predictors of work engagement: hope ( $\beta = .343$ ,  $p = .000$ ), articulating a vision ( $\beta = .296$ ,  $p = .000$ ), and efficacy ( $\beta = .169$ ,  $p = .036$ ). More specifically, hope contributed 29% of the variance in work engagement, while articulating a vision and efficacy respectively accounted for 9% and 2% of the variance in work engagement. All three variables explained 40% of the variance in work engagement. This regression model is statistically significant ( $F = 31.909$ ,  $p = .000$ ). The results also indicate that personality (as measured by PsyCap) seems to have a greater influence (31%) on employees' levels of work engagement than leadership (9%). Finally, partial support was found for the alternative hypothesis associated with Research Question 1.

### 6.3.3 Differences in Work Engagement with regards to Gender

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to evaluate the secondary research question: Do differences exist in the levels of employees' work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein concerning gender? The results, which are based on Table 6.11, results show that there is no statistically significant difference in work engagement scores with regards to gender (Mann-Whitney U = 2426.5,  $p = .424$ ). Furthermore, the total mean rank for female participants (77.69) is higher than the mean rank for the male participants (71.83). The fact that there are no significant differences in work engagement concerning gender, means that the alternative hypothesis associated with Research Question 2 is not supported.

Table 6.11

*Gender differences concerning Work Engagement*

Ranks				
	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
UWES	Male	56	71.83	4022.50
	Female	94	77.69	7302.50
	Total	150		

Test Statistics <sup>a</sup>	
	UWES
Mann-Whitney U	2426.500
Wilcoxon W	4022.500
Z	-.799
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.424

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

#### 6.4 Discussion on Results related to the Primary Research Question

The results presented in this study partially support the primary research question: “Does transformational leadership and personality have an effect on employees’ work engagement in a consumer goods company in Bloemfontein?”

The next section discusses the above findings as obtained from the correlations and stepwise multiple regression.

##### 6.4.1 Results on Transformational Leadership (and its sub-dimensions) and Work Engagement

Work engagement, as defined by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), refers to a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is associated with the three components, vigour, dedication, and absorption. Bass (2000) defines transformational leadership as a form of leadership that is characterised by idealised influence, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration.

The results of the present study indicate that there are significant correlations between leadership (and its sub-dimensions) and work engagement. This observation links with

Gautam and Enslin's (2019) opinion that the type of leadership style that managers apply is important for explaining work engagement. Transformational leadership is indeed a form of leadership style that increases work engagement, because transformed leaders can create a working environment that is exciting (inspirational motivation), they are empathetic (individualised consideration) and accept new ideas and new approaches (intellectual stimulation) (Gautam & Enslin, 2019). Moreover, managers who use the transformational leadership style are involved in employees' engagement, increase passion and give recognition to the growth of employees (Milhem, Muda, & Ahmed, 2019). Research done by Zakaria, Idris, Samah, and Abiddin (2018) prove that transformational leadership is a vital leadership approach because such leaders have the ability to motivate and strengthen their followers, thus contributing to work engagement.

In addition, transformational leaders have the ability to implement a meaningful and motivating work environment, which encourages employees to become engaged (Sultana & Jabeen, 2018). A recent study by Gerards, de Grip, and Baudewijns (2018) also supports the view that transformational leadership is positively correlated to work engagement. Transformational leaders contribute to meaningful work engagement because of their ability to motivate employees to perform higher than what is expected (Jena, Pradhan, & Panigrahy, 2018). They enhance work engagement by assisting their employees to discover their potential, showing positive emotions and offering a positive challenge (Balwant, 2019). Finally, the positive emotions displayed by leaders foster employees to be emotionally engaged in their work and relates highly with co-workers and clients (Balwant, 2019).

Various conclusions can be drawn from an observation of the four characteristics of transformational leadership and their possible influence on work engagement (Mu, Lee, & Duan, 2018). The idealised influence leader acts as role model and improves employees' sense of value and involvement with their work, which leads to higher levels of engagement (Ghadi et al., 2013). The inspirational motivation leader enhances engagement of employees by providing meaningful work and the courage to accept challenges (Chua & Ayoko, 2019). The individualised considerate leader increases engagement when she/he is sensitive, caring, supportive and pays attention to employees' needs for achievement and development (Ghadi et al., 2013).

Employees who work in a supportive environment are often more determined and positive in their attempts at handling challenging situations (Pinck & Sonnentag, 2018).

Moreover, an intellectually stimulating leader motivates employees to solve problems using new viewpoints, while employees who think critically engage more in their work (Chua & Ayoko, 2019). Employees also engage more in their work when stimulated, supported, motivated and directed by their leader (Mu et al., 2018). Thus, transformational leadership contributes to employee's involvement in their work, commitment and better performance (Mu et al., 2018).

Furthermore, some of the dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale may be similar to the four original dimensions of transformational leadership. The dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale consists of identifying and articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high-performance expectations, providing individualised support and Intellectual stimulation. The original dimensions of transformational leadership consist of idealised influence, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and the idealised consideration.

According to Podsakoff et al. (1990) some dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale, such as identifying and articulating a vision, acceptance of group goals, providing an appropriate model as well as intellectual stimulation, have been acknowledged as essential elements of the transformational leadership process. Based on the above findings, it becomes necessary to identify those dimensions of the leadership behaviour scale related to the original dimensions of transformational leadership.

- ***Firstly, identifying and articulating a vision as well fostering acceptance of group goals are theoretically related to the Inspirational leadership***

This type of a leader is interested in searching for new opportunities for the company and inspiring his /her followers to follow the same vision for the future (Podsakoff et al., 1990). This type of a leader also encourages followers to collaborate and work toward achieving a common goal (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

- ***Secondly, providing an appropriate model is similar to the Idealised Influence***



The leader becomes a good role model to his/her followers, instead of telling them what to do he/she demonstrates by doing (Day & Antonakis, 2012). The leader sets an example for followers to adopt that is consistent with the values that he/she seeks to promote (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

- ***Thirdly, Intellectual stimulation is similar to the intellectually stimulating leader***

This type of a leader challenges followers to be more creative, think about old problems in new ways and rethink their ideas about their future (Day & Antonakis, 2012). The leader challenges employees to reconsider some of their expectations about their work and change the ways of doing their work (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

- ***Fourthly, providing individualised support is related to individualised consideration***

This kind of a leader is thoughtful, caring and sensitive to his/her followers' feelings and needs (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

#### **6.4.2 Results on PsyCap (and its sub-dimensions) and Work Engagement.**

Psychological capital is considered as part of personality because it entails positive resources that contribute to an individual's development (Liran & Miller, 2019). Psychological capital emphasises that an individual owns a set of positive aspects that help shape their psychological behaviour (Kole & Kurt, 2018).

The results of the present study indicate that there are significant correlations between PsyCap (and its sub-dimensions) and work engagement. According to Paek, Schuckert, Kim, and Lee (2015), PsyCap is a person's positive psychological state of growth that consists of four components; self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience that are directly linked to work engagement. Scholars, Cooke, Cooper, Bartram, Wang, and Mei (2019) note that psychological capital increases the motivation of employees at work. At the same time, employee engagement at work is a result of the use of PsyCap such as resilience, optimism and self-efficacy.

Kang and Busser (2018) argue that PsyCap is important for explaining different levels of engagement at work and those employees with greater levels of PsyCap turn to be highly engaged in their job tasks. Employees who are high in self-efficacy and hopeful are more engaged because they enjoy challenging tasks and set realistic goals (Kang

& Busser, 2018). In addition, optimistic employees are highly engaged because they believe in transformation and seek opportunities that will contribute to the future of the organisation (Kang & Busser, 2018).

Resilient workers also engage more in their task because of their positive attitude and the strength to adjust well in difficult work situations (Kang & Busser, 2018).

Research by Costantini et al. (2017) asserts that psychological capital, as an important personal resource, enhances favourable work outcomes like work engagement. The personal resources, such as self-esteem, confidence and optimism, help employees to overcome pressure and enhance work ability (Costantini et al., 2017). Furthermore, workers with high levels of work engagement score higher on the personal resources of self-esteem, optimistic and self-efficacy (Adil & Kamal, 2016). These personal resources create an efficient working environment for employees, thus leading to greater levels of engagement (Adil & Kamal, 2016). Within the effective working environment, personal resources enable engaged employees to be more energetic, highly confident, take part in various roles of the organization and expect positive results for their work (Adil & Kamal, 2016).

Aybas and Acar (2017) support the view that psychological capital is a personal resource and that it is highly connected to work engagement through self-efficacy, optimism and resiliency. They argue further that psychological capital elements may result in energetic, dedicated and engaged workers (Aybas & Acar, 2017). A further observation that they make is that employees that are high in psychological capital feel valuable and vital to the sector, they are also optimistic about the future and remain engaged in their jobs (Aybas & Acar, 2017). In addition, du Plessis and Boshoff (2018) affirm that employees who are high in psychological capital dimensions (self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience) are energised and self-motivated. While Joo, Lim, and Kim (2016) state that workers with high PsyCap are highly motivated, and show attributes of fulfilment, vigour, dedication and absorption in their work, which in turn lead to increased employee productivity. The findings made by Kotze (2018) underscore psychological capital as a personal resource that enhances work engagement. Higher PsyCap enhances engagement at work by allowing workers to assess their work resources, support, team climate, career opportunities and

interpersonal relations more favourably and apply them efficiently in the workplace (Kotze, 2018).

A further study by Alessandri, Consiglio, Luthans, and Borgogni (2018) also notes that there is a positive relationship between psychological capital and work engagement. For instance confident employees who master their work (self- efficacy) are more absorbed in attaining the goals of their job tasks without an interruption (absorption), devote their efforts with the intention to yield better work outcomes (vigour) and highly immersed with their work (dedication) (Alessandri et al., 2018).

Employees who are optimistic are highly likely to be engaged because they display positive attitude in dealing with frustrations and difficulties at work with the belief that they will succeed (Chen, 2015). Hope, involving a goal and ways to attain it, offers an employee more energy (vigor) and the readiness to achieve goals (dedication) (Alessandri et al., 2018). Resilience is connected to all three components of work engagement, vigor, dedication and absorption (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Thus, resilient employees are able to deal with the demands of the job and to get rid of the negative impacts of previous work burdens (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Recent research by Ozturk and Karatepe (2019) notes that employees high in self-efficacy, resilient and optimistic can deal with challenges at work and meet the necessities of the job.

Therefore, Psychological Capital helps employees to redesign their job and work environment, which leads to higher engagement (Van Steenbergen, van der Ven, Peeters , & Taris, 2018). Psychological capital improves employee's effectiveness at work and is needed for motivation, success and greater performance (Cheng, Hong, & Yang, 2018). Psychological capital also results in resilient employees who are capable of dealing with problems at work and optimistic employees who believe in the accomplishment of job goals (Cheng et al., 2018).

#### **6.4.3 Results on Self- Esteem and Work- Engagement**

Self-esteem refers to the manner in which an employee evaluates and values oneself and it includes self-competence and self-liking (Lee & Ok, 2015). It has to do with employees' hope that they can perform better (Nel, Stander, & Latif, 2015). Being self-competent means that a given individual employee possess the necessary skills to perform their work (Macsinga, Sulea, Sarbescu, Fischmann, & Dumitru, 2015).

The results of the present study indicate that there is a significant correlation between self-competence and work engagement. Stander and Rothmann (2010) affirm that the self-competence of employees is one of the psychological conditions that is strongly related to work engagement. Employees who are competent and confident about their work goals are more likely to be internally motivated and become more engaged in their work roles (Stander & Rothmann, 2010). Moreover, Jose and Mampilly (2014) agree that there is a strong correlation between self-competence and work engagement. Thus, highly competent employees become more engaged in their successful work and ought to feel happy with their work, and they are dedicated, have less intention to leave work and show more positive work performance (Jose & Mampilly, 2014).

Recent research by Nawangsari and Sutawidjaya (2019) proves that self-competence is strongly connected to employees' engagement. Competent employees have the ability to combine knowledge and skills in performing different related tasks (Nawangsari & Sutawidjaya, 2019). Engaged employees have the cognitive, social and functional competence that enable them to perform their job tasks (Nawangsari & Sutawidjaya, 2019). In addition, employees may hold both emotional and social competencies in the form of knowledge, motivation, traits and talents that are connected to higher performance and higher engagement (Pittenger, 2015). Just as , highly engaged employees view themselves as capable of dealing with the demand of their work competently (Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

Finally, the results of the present study indicate that there is no significant correlation between self-liking and work engagement. Self-liking is when an individual employee approves of their self in a social working environment, it entails feelings of enjoyment and contentment about one's work (Kircaburun & Griffiths, 2018). Self-liking is far from being highly confident and self-praising employees (Kircaburun & Griffiths, 2018). Nonetheless, self-liking employees are usually highly proficient, significant, feel worthy and engage more in tasks that enable them to achieve the desired goals (Cai et al., 2015). Eissa, Chinchanchokchai, and Wyland's study (2017) also underscores that self-liking employees are risk takers, engage in difficult work activities, highly confident, naturally motivated and valued by co-workers, as well as creative that they add solutions to a challenging work, which in turn lead to higher work engagement levels (Eissa et al., 2017).

#### **6.4.4 Hope, Articulating a Vision, and Self-efficacy as the Best Predictors of Work Engagement.**

The present study's results indicate that hope, articulating a vision and self-efficacy are the three best predictors of work engagement. Hope is the best predictor, articulating a vision is the second best predictor and self-efficacy is the third best predictor of work engagement.

##### ***6.4.4.1 Hope as the First Best Predictor of Work Engagement***

Recent studies by Yoon, Bailey, Amundson, and Niles (2019) identify hope as a predictor of work engagement. Hope is needed in any organisation for higher engagement because it affects employee's performance and their approach to work in a positive way (Othman & Nasurdin, 2011). Hope motivates employees to become more engaged in their job tasks (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & van Wijhe, 2012). In addition, hope allows employees to invest their energy in their work and dedicate their time in reaching goals (Karatepe, 2014).

Therefore, as research notes, hopeful employees are dedicated to finding strategies that enable them to achieve their goals at work (Yotsidi, Pagoulitou, Kyriazos, & Stalikas, 2018). In addition, hopeful employees have a higher level of engagement because they possess more goal-orientated approaches and are motivated for goal accomplishment (Karatepe, 2014).

##### ***6.4.4.2 Articulating a Vision as the Second Best Predictor of Work Engagement***

The results of the present study reveal that articulating a vision as a component of transformational leadership predicts work engagement highly. A transformational leader who articulates a vision for his employees contributes to higher levels of engagement at work (Gozukara & Simsek, 2016). Such a leader encourages employees to follow a clear and sensible vision that empowers them to attain personal and workplace goals (Gozukara & Simsek, 2016). Lather and Jain (2015) affirm this view in their observation that leaders who communicate vision to employees are highly likely to improve their engagement. Finally, a transformed leader is inspiring, visionary and likely to enhance engagement because they encourage employees to accept workplace challenges (Chin, Lok, & Kong, 2019). Employees who follow the leader's vision will then be motivated, absorbed and committed to the future vision (Cheema, Akram, & Javed, 2015).

In addition, a transformed leader with a clear vision, promotes employees development, inspires them to excel in their job tasks, helps them to realise their potential, and motivates performance that is above what is required (Pourbarkhordari, Zhou, & Pourkarimi, 2016).

#### **6.4.4.3 Self- Efficacy as the Third Best Predictor of Work Engagement**

Self-efficacy is viewed as one of the major personal resources that predict work engagement (Buric & Macuka, 2018). Employees who have a high self-efficacy are more likely to be internally driven and pursue their goals and this results in better performance and higher levels of engagement at work (Buric & Macuka, 2018).

Various studies prove that self-efficacy is connected to higher work engagement because the confidence that employees have in their abilities and competence is essential to guaranteeing a sustained engagement at work (Alessandri, Borgogni, Schaufeli, Caprara, & Consiglio, 2015). Confidence enables employees to activate their energy in dealing with work demands, which motivates them to be attached to their work (Gupta & Shaheen, 2017). Furthermore, employees who are high in self-efficacy devote their energy, positive emotions and dedicate long-term engagement in their job activities (Li, et al., 2017). High self-efficacious employees also have the belief that they can deal with the demands of their work effectively and are highly optimistic because they expect better results from their work (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011).

Moreover, personality and leadership appears to be the significant predictors of work engagement. Ongore (2014) admits that personality is a significant variable that influence employee's engagement at work as noted in an example where two or more workers doing the same job in one environment may have various levels of engagement. Individuals who are highly or less engaged in the workplace are prone to have different traits in a similar way they differ in performing their work, therefore engagement is viewed as a primary function of personality (Inceoglu & Warr, 2012).

A recent study by Kong and Li (2018) underscored that personality predicts work engagement because employees with active personality invest more efforts in their jobs and tend to perform well. In fact, employees with active personality are more likely to be engaged because they are persistent, inventiveness and more involved in their job activities (Lv et al., 2018).

Finally, findings by Shu (2015) suggest that leaders who are actively involved in the working lives of employees have a significant role in defining employees' level of work engagement. Transformational leaders increase employees' engagement because they allow them to take part in the decision-making process and to have control over their job-related tasks (Besieux et al., 2018). Transformational leaders contribute to the good behaviour of employees and enhance job satisfaction, which can lead to higher engagement and higher productivity (Hayati et al., 2014). In addition, a transformed leader enhances employees' engagement by providing meaningful work and the courage to accept challenges (Chua & Ayoko, 2019).

### **6.5 Discussion on Results Related to the Secondary Research Question: Results on Gender and Work- Engagement**

The following section discusses results related to the secondary research question that shows that there are no significant differences between genders in terms of work engagement.

The present study found no significant differences between genders in terms of work engagement. Recent research by Lee and Eissenstat (2018) indicates that there is limited and unreliable research on gender and work engagement. Ariani (2013) also reports that the relationship between gender and work engagement is weak and unclear. In most service industries there are no gender differences perceived in employee's work engagement (Ariani, 2013).

Nonetheless, the lack of research on work engagement did not stop Camgoz et al. (2016) from making the observation that females are more engaged because of their identification and high involvement with their work. Latta and Fait (2016) support the view that females display high levels of engagement at work than males.

While Strauser, O'sullivan, and Wong (2012) argue that there are gender differences in relation to work engagement and that females usually show greater levels of work engagement than males do. Tanskanen et al. (2016) study reports that females are somewhat more engaged in their job tasks than males. Finally, females engage more in their work than males do because they deal better with stressful tasks, are generally cooperative and value shared inputs about the organisation (Guchait et al., 2018).

Based on the findings by Dubbelt, Rispens, and Demerouti (2016) females score higher on engagement than males because they find work engagement to be valuable. High levels of engagement at work help females to remain focused and dedicated in their work, enables them to achieve higher performance and results in increased productivity (Dubbelt et al., 2016). In contrast, Banihani and Syed (2017) report that males are more physically, cognitively and emotionally engaged in their work than females (Banihani & Syed, 2017). A study done by Kong (2009) explains that females and males differ in ways they engage in their work. Males score higher than females on vigour and absorption while females score higher than males on levels of dedication (Kong, 2009). Ironically, a recent study by Biron and Hanuka (2018) argues that females are more inactive, less confident and less motivated to add more efforts in their work, while males are active, assertive, tend to be more engaged and attain a professional accomplishment.

Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) pointed out that males scored higher on the three elements of work engagement (vigour, absorption and dedication) than females. Garg (2014) suggests that female workers are likely to gain more fulfilment than male workers. Nonetheless, other studies point out that males are seen as more involved in their work than females (Attridge, 2009). Mache, Danzer, Klapp, and Groneberg (2013) also observed that females could not be fully effective and capable to engage in their work than males do. It becomes very easy for male employees to engage in their work than female employees because male employees have a good critical thinking, are rational and more dedicated to their jobs (Guchait et al., 2018), and yet Lee and Ok (2015) add that males are less engaged in their work than females are.

Moreover, Pena, Rey, and Extremera (2012) are of the opinion that gender differences in work engagement can be viewed from how the employee's occupation is assessed. In a situation where the occupation is masculine, the levels of engagement at work may be greater for males than it is for females (Pena et al., 2012). According to Williamson and Geldenhuys (2014) females report greater contentment, they are happier, satisfied and more engaged in their work. Finally, females are generally competent, manage highly demanding situations at work and engage in high quality job tasks (Keller, Meier, Gross, & Semmer, 2015).



## 6.6 Overall Conclusions

This section discusses the conclusions based on the literature review, research methodology and the results of the study. It is necessary to state, in relation to the conclusion of the literature review, that the study investigated the effect of transformational leadership and personality on work engagement.

Work engagement as the dependent variable was defined as an optimistic, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is associated with three components, vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

In addition, transformational leadership was defined as an interactive leadership where employees gain trust from leaders, show respect and are encouraged to perform further than job expectations in order to realise organisational goals (Boamah et al., 2018). Transformational leadership is characterised by four elements, which are idealised influence, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 2000). The conclusion was that transformational leadership seemed to have a relationship with work engagement. For example, it was revealed in the literature that employees engage more in their work when they are stimulated, supported, motivated and directed by their leader (Mu et al., 2018).

The effect of personality on work engagement was also covered. Personality was defined as the inherent traits or personal characteristics that are displayed by people (Anglim et al., 2018). The conclusion was that the psychological capital, as a form of personality, seemed to have a relationship with work engagement. For instance, du Plessis and Boshoff (2018) affirm that employees who are high in psychological capital dimensions (self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience) are energised and self-motivated. Thus, workers with a high PsyCap are highly motivated, and show attributes of fulfilment, vigour, dedication and absorption in their work, which in turn leads to increased employee productivity (Joo et al., 2016).

The job demand–resource model was used to explain work engagement. The model included the elements of work engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption). The full-range model was also discussed to better understand the transformational leadership. The model was linked to the transformational leadership because it contains the same elements of idealised influence, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Martinez et al., 2018).

Furthermore, the study focused on the five-factor model as well as the integrated model of psychological capital in the workplace in attempt to explain personality.

The conclusion based on the research methodology section shows that the data of this study was collected from the five stores of the large retail organisation in Bloemfontein. Even though the study set a sample of 200 participants, 150 individuals participated in the study, which adhered to ethical standards such as informed consent, anonymity, and voluntary participation. The data gathering instruments used in this study were the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), The Leadership Behaviour Scale (LBS), the Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Questionnaire (PCQ) and the Self-liking and Competence Scale-revised (SLCS-R).

The conclusion based on the study results indicates all the variables (transformational leadership and personality) had a significant relationship with work engagement. Additionally, the multiple regression analysis results showed that hope was the first best predictor of work engagement, articulating a vision was the second best predictor of work engagement and self-efficacy was the third best predictor of work engagement. Personality (as measured by PsyCap) also had a greater effect (31%) on employees' levels of work engagement than leadership (9%). The results of the study concluded that there were no significant differences between male and females concerning work engagement.

Furthermore, the following hypotheses were considered in the investigation of the effect of transformational leadership and personality on employees' work engagement.

***Null Hypothesis (H0):*** Variances in a Bloemfontein-based consumer goods company's employees' work engagement scores cannot be statistically explained by transformational leadership and personality.

***Alternative Hypothesis (H1):*** Variances in a Bloemfontein-based consumer goods company's employees' work engagement can be statistically explained by transformational leadership and personality.

***Null Hypothesis (H0):*** There are no statistical significant differences in scores achieved on levels of employees' work engagement with regards to biographical variables such as gender.

**Alternative Hypothesis (H1):** There is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on the levels of employees' work engagement with regards to biographical variables like gender.

The following alternative hypothesis is accepted;

Variances in a Bloemfontein-based Consumer Goods Company's employees' work engagement can be statistically explained by transformational leadership and personality. Therefore, the study showed that transformational leadership and personality had a significant relationship with work engagement. There was partial support found for the alternative hypothesis associated with Research Question 1.

The following alternative hypothesis is rejected;

There is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on the levels of employees' work engagement with regards to biographical variables like gender. The fact that there are no significant differences in work engagement concerning gender, means that the alternative hypothesis associated with Research Question 2 is not supported.

## **6.7 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Use**

This section of this research discusses some of the limitations to this study and outlines recommendations for future research.

### **6.7.1 Limitations of the Present Research Study**

- The study has a small sample. Although this did not influence the results, it reflects the willingness of the individuals to participate.
- Related to the above, only the stores in Bloemfontein were targeted. This may have an influence on the study's ability to generalise the findings to other stores or similar work environments.
- Three of the variables had low reliability estimates (optimism, self-competence, and self-liking). This could account for the low correlations between these variables and work engagement.
- Several studies have investigated the relationship between job demands, job resources and work engagement. Only limited research has observed the relationship within the consumer goods companies.

### 6.7.2 Recommendations for Future

The recommendations for future research are:

- According to Paek et al. (2015) the job demands-resources model suggests that job resources including the personal psychological capital result in enhanced employee engagement and has a positive effect in job related outcomes. Therefore, future researchers need to emphasize more on the investigation of the correlations between personal psychological capital, work engagement and job related outcomes such as job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Paek et al., 2015).
- In future, other variables may be considered to better understand service workers' levels of engagement. Future researchers can include the psychological capital of the supervisor. Future researchers need to focus on other measures related to personality.
- Self-competence and self-liking had low reliability estimates, thus future research should focus on alternative measures of self-esteem. An example of alternative measures will include the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).
- The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a 10 item scale which entails a combination of positive and negative feelings about oneself (Brewer & Kerslake, 2015). The scale has proven to have better acceptable reliability  $\alpha = .911$ . (Brewer & Kerslake, 2015).
- Further, no differences were found between the genders. Ariani (2013) supported that in many service industries there were no gender differences found in employee's work engagement. Future researchers need to study the type of work (masculine versus feminine) as no differences were found between the gender. Future researchers may need to explore the relationship between job demand, job resources and work engagement within the consumer goods companies.

### 6.7.3 Recommendations for Practice

Organizations should consider developing interventions of work engagement that will focus on both individuals and the organisation at large. The purpose of both individual and organisational interventions is to reduce the negative job-related outcomes such as poor morale, high turnover and high psychological tension (Biggs, Brough, & Barbour, 2014). Moreover, Knight, Patterson, Dawson, and Brown (2017) suggest four types of interventions that will enhance engagement at work.

- Firstly, the personal resource building intervention encourages positive self-evaluations and resilience (Knight et al., 2017).
- Secondly, the job resource building intervention focuses on promoting the physical and social aspects of the job such as feedback, social support and developmental opportunities (Knight et al., 2017).
- Thirdly, the leadership training intervention includes skill and knowledge interventions for supervisors (Knight et al., 2017).
- Fourthly, the health promoting programmes emphasises on healthy lifestyles such as exercise and mindful trainings (Knight et al., 2017).

In addition, organisations should consider the following in order to create a better work environment:

- Emphasising more on innovative work behaviour- Li et al. (2019) propose that transformational leaders can enforce innovative behaviour by providing various developmental workshops to employees. The necessary learning tasks will help them develop alternative solutions that will solve problems within the organisation (Li et al., 2019).
- Promoting employee psychological empowerment-it is important for transformational leaders to empower employees to make own decisions in relation to their work (Li et al., 2019). Therefore, it is necessary to empower employees in order to promote higher levels of work engagement (Li et al., 2019).
- Encouraging a trusting relationship between leaders and followers- Pourbarkhordari et al. (2016) recommended that transformational leaders should stimulate high amount of trust to their employees by serving as a role models and providing idealized influence.

## 6.8 Summary

This chapter presented the results of the study. It was found out that all the variables (transformational leadership and personality) had a significant relationship with work engagement. The multiple regression results indicated that only three variables, hope, articulating a vision and self-efficacy, were significant predictors of work engagement. Generally, it appears that personality contributed more to the prediction of work engagement than leadership. As noted earlier in this chapter, personality (as measured by PsyCap) seemed to have a greater influence (31%) on employees' levels of work engagement than leadership (9%). Although females scored higher than males, the present results indicated that there were no significant differences between male and females with regards to the work engagement.

The chapter also focused on limitations and recommendations from the study. The noted limitation related to the fact that the study had a small sample. Although this did not influence the results, it reflected the willingness of the individuals to participate. Optimism, self-competence, and self-liking had low reliability estimates, which could account for the low correlations between these variables and work engagement. Furthermore, the study recommended that future researchers could include the psychological capital of the supervisor as another variable. It was also recommended that future researchers consider alternative measures of self-esteem such as the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. There were no differences found between the genders, hence the study recommended that future researchers should focus on the type of work (masculine versus feminine) that might be of interest. Recommendations for practice were that organisations should adopt innovative work behaviour, enhance employee psychological empowerment and encourage trust between leaders and followers.

## References

- Aamodt, M.G. (2016). *Industrial/organizational psychology: An applied approach* (8th ed.). United States of America: Cengage Learning.
- Adams, K.A., & Lawrence, E.K. (2015). *Research methods, statistics, and applications*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Adil, A., & Kamal, A. (2016). Impact of psychological capital and authentic leadership on work engagement and job related affective well-being. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 31 (1), 01-21.
- Afsar, B., Shahjehan, A., Shah, S.I., & Wajid, A. (2019). The mediating role of transformational leadership in the relationship between cultural intelligence and employee voice behavior: A case of hotel employees. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 69, 66-75.
- Afshari, B., Rasouli-Azad, M., & Ghoreishi, F.S. (2019). Comparison of original and revised reinforcement sensitivity theory in clinically-stable schizophrenia and bipolar disorder patients. *Personality and Individual Differences Journal*, 138, 321-327. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2018.10.026
- Agigi, A., Niemann, W., & Kotze, T. (2016). Supply chain design approaches for supply chain resilience: A qualitative study of South African fast-moving consumer goods grocery manufacturers. *Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management*, 10 (1), 1-15.
- Ahmad, F., Abbas, T., Latif, S., & Rasheed, A. (2014). Impact of transformational leadership on employee motivation in telecommunication sector. *Journal of Management Policies and Practices*, 2 (2), 11-25.

Akgunduz, Y., Alkan, C., & Gok, O.A. (2018). Perceived organizational support, employee creativity and proactive personality: The mediating effect of meaning of work. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 34, 105-114.

Akhtar, R., Boustani, L., Tsivrikos, D., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2015). The engageable personality: Personality and trait EI as predictors of work engagement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 73, 44-49.

Akingbola, K., & Van den Berg, H.A. (2019). Antecedents, consequences and context of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 39 (1), 46-74. DOI: 10.1177/0734371X16684910

Aktar, A., & Pangil, F. (2017). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement: A conceptual study. *Journal of Business and Management* 19 (6), 54-67. DOI: 10.9790/487X-1906065467

Alarcon, G.M., Edwards, J.M., & Menke, L.E. (2011). Student burnout and engagement: A test of the conservation of resources theory. *The Journal of Psychology*, 145 (3), 211-227. DOI: 10.1080/00223980.2011.555432

Alatalo, S., Oikarinen, E., Reiman, A., Tan, T.M., Heikka, E., Hurmelinna-Laukkanen, P., Muhos, M., & Vuorela, T. (2018). Linking concepts of playfulness and well-being at work in retail sector. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 43, 226-233. DOI:10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.03.013

Alessandri, G., Borgogni, L., Schaufeli, W.B., Caprara, G.V., & Consiglio, C. (2015). From positive orientation to job performance: The role of work engagement and self-efficacy beliefs. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 16, 767-788. DOI: 10.1007/s10902-014-9533-4



Alessandri, G., Consiglio, C., Luthans, F., & Borgogni, L. (2018). Testing a dynamic model of the impact of psychological capital on work engagement and job performance. *Career Development International Journal*, 23(1), 33-47. DOI:10.1108/CDI-11-2016-0210

Allen, M.S., Laborde, S., & Walter, E.E. (2019). Health-related behavior mediates the association between personality and memory performance in older adults. *Journal of Applied Gerontology*, 38 (2), 232-252. DOI: 10.1177/0733464817698816

Allen, R. (2017). *Statistics and experimental design for psychologist: A model comparison approach*. Europe: World Scientific Publishing.

Alok, K., & Israel, D. (2012). Authentic leadership & work engagement. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 47 (3), 498-510.

Al-Samarraie, H., Sarsam, S.M., Alzahrani, A.I., & Alalwan, N. (2018). Personality and individual differences: The potential of using preferences for visual stimuli to predict the big five traits. *Cognition, Technology & Work*, 1-13. DOI:10.1007/s10111-018-0470-6

Anglim, J., Lievens, F., Everton, L., Grant, S.L., & Marty, A. (2018). HEXACO personality predicts counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior in low-stakes and job applicant contexts. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 77, 11-20. DOI:10.1016/j.jrp.2018.09.003

Anglin, A.H., Short, J.C., Drover, W., Stevenson, R.M., McKenny, A.F., & Allison, T.H. (2018). The power of positivity? The influence of positive psychological capital language on crowdfunding performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 33, 470-492. DOI:10.1016/j.jbusvent.2018.03.003

- Antonio, T., Lanawati, S., Wiriana, T.A., & Christina, L. (2014). Correlations creativity, intelligence, personality, and entrepreneurship achievement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences Journal*, 115, 251-257. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.02.433
- Ariani, D.W. (2013). The relationship between employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 4(2), 46-56. DOI:10.5430/ijba.v4n2p46
- Ariani, D.W. (2014). *Relationship leadership, employee engagement and organizational citizenship behaviour*. Atma Jaya Yogyakarta University.
- Ariza-Montes, A., Arjona-Fuentes, J.M, Han, H., & Law, R. (2018). Work environment and well-being of different occupational groups in hospitality: Job demand-control-support model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 73, 1-11. DOI:10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.01.010
- Ashton, M.C., Lee, K. & Visser, B.A. (2019). Where's the H? relations between BFI-2 and HEXACO-60 scales. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 137, 71-75. DOI:10.1016/j.paid.2018.08.013
- Attridge, M. (2009). Employee work engagement: Best practices for employers. *Research Works Journal*, 1(2), 1-12.
- Aybas, M., & Acar, A.C. (2017). The effect of human resource management practices on employees' work engagement and the mediating and moderating role of positive psychological capital. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 7(1), 363-372.

Babcock-Roberson, M.E., & Strickland, O.J. (2010). The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Journal of Psychology*, 144(3), 313-326.

Baglin, J., Reece, J., & Baker, J. (2015). Virtualising the quantitative research methods course: An Island-based approach. *Statistics Education Research Journal*, 14 (2) , 28-52.

Bakar, R.A., Cooke, F.L., & Muenjohn, N. (2018). Religiosity as a source of Influence on work engagement: A study of the Malaysian finance industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 29 (18), 2632-2658.  
DOI:10.1080/09585192.2016.1254103

Bakker, A.B. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science Journal*, 20(4), 265-269.DOI: 10.1177/0963721411414534

Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2007).The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.

Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International Journal*, 13 (3), 209-223.

Bakker, A.B., & Leiter, M.P. (2010). *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research*. United States of America: Psychology Press.

Bakker, A.B., Albrecht, S.L., & Leiter, M.P. (2011). Key questions regarding work engagement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20 (1), 4-28.  
DOI: 10.1080/1359432X.2010.485352

- Balwant, P. (2019). Stay close! the role of leader distance in the relationship between transformational leadership, work engagement, and performance in undergraduate project teams. *Journal of Education for Business*, 94 (6), 369-380.DOI: 10.1080/08832323.2018.1541851
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory of mass communication. *Media Psychology Journal*, 3 (3), 265-299.
- Banihani, M., & Syed, J. (2017). A macro-national level analysis of Arab women's work engagement. *European Management Review*, 14, 133-142.DOI: 10.1111/emre.12095
- Banihani, M., & Syed, J. (2017). Gendered work engagement: Qualitative insights from Jordan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-27.DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2017.1355838
- Bar, M.A., Leurer, M.K., Warshawski, S., & Itzhaki, M. (2018). The role of personal resilience and personality traits of healthcare students on their attitudes towards interprofessional collaboration. *Nurse Education Today Journal*, 61, 36-42. DOI:10.1016/j.nedt.2017.11.005
- Barford, K.A., Fayn, K., Silvia, P.J., & Smillie, L.D. (2018). Individual differences in conflicting stimulus evaluations: Openness/intellect predicts mixed-valenced appraisals of visual art. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 73, 46-55. DOI:10.1016/j.jrp.2017.11.006
- Barkhuizen, N., & Rothmann, S. (2006). Work engagement of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *Management Dynamics Journal*, 15(1), 38-46.
- Bass, M.B. (2000). The future of leadership in learning organizations. *The Journal of Leadership Studies* 7(3), 18-40.

Baur, J.E., Haynie, J.J., Buckley, M.R., Palar, J.M., Novicevic, M.M., & Humphreys, J.H. (2018). When things go from bad to worse: The impact of relative contextual extremity on Benjamin Montgomery's positive leadership and psychological capital. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 25 (3), 323-338. DOI: 10.1177/1548051817753342

Bergh, Z.C., & Theron, A.L. (1999). *Psychology in the work context*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Berry, R., Tanford, S., Montgomery, R., & Green, A.J. (2018). How we complain: The effect of personality on consumer complaint channels. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 42(1), 74-101. DOI: 10.1177/1096348014550921

Bertolino, M., Truxillo, D.M., & Fraccaroli, F. (2012). Age effects on perceived personality and job performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(7), 867-885. DOI: 10.1108/JMP-07-2013-0222

Besieux, T., Baillien, E., Verbeke, A.L., & Euwema, M.C. (2018). What goes around comes around: The mediation of corporate social responsibility in the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement. *Economic and Industrial Democracy Journal*, 39 (2), 249-271. DOI: 10.1177/0143831X15614914

Bezuidenhout, A., & Schultz, C. (2013). Transformational leadership and employee engagement in the mining industry. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 1-19.

Biernacki, M., & Tarnowski, A. (2011). The effect of age and personality on the main cognitive processes in drivers. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 24 (4), 367-379. DOI: 10.2478/s13382-011-0035-x

Biggs, A., Brough, P., & Barbour, J.P. (2014). Enhancing work-related attitudes and work engagement: A quasi-experimental study of the impact of an organizational intervention. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 21(1), 43-68.DOI: 10.1037/a0034508

Birasnav, M., & Bienstock, J. (2019). Supply chain integration, advanced manufacturing technology, and strategic leadership: An empirical study. *Computers & Industrial Engineering*, 130, 142-157. DOI:10.1016/j.cie.2019.01.021

Biron, M., & Hanuka, H. (2018). Non-cognitive antecedents of pay and pay expectations: Gender-based differences in a masculine work setting. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 27 (1), 100-111.DOI: 10.1080/1359432X.2017.1400967

Blatny, M., Kveton, P., Jelinek, M., Solcova, I., Zabrodska, K., Mudrak, J., & Machovcova, K. (2018). The influence of personality traits on life satisfaction through work engagement and job satisfaction among academic faculty members. *Studia Psychologica*, 60 (4), 274-286. DOI: 10.21909/sp.2018.04.767

Boamah, S.A., & Tremblay, P. (2018). Examining the factor structure of the MLQ transactional and transformational leadership dimensions in nursing context. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 1-19. DOI: 10.1177/0193945918778833

Boamah, S.A., Laschinger, H.K.S., Wong, C., & Clarke, S. (2018). Effect of transformational leadership on Job satisfaction and patient safety outcomes. *Nursing Outlook* ,66(2), 180-189. DOI:10.1016/j.outlook.2017.10.004

Bosselut, G., Boiche, J., Salame, B., Fouquereau, E., Guilbert, L., & Serrano, O.C. (2018). Transformational leadership and group cohesion in sport: Examining the mediating role of interactional justice using a within-and between-team approach.

*International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 13(6), 912-928.DOI: 10.1177/1747954118801156

Botha, C., & Mostert, K. (2014). A structural model of job resources, organisational and individual strengths use and work engagement. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40(1), 1-11. DOI: 10.4102/sajip. v40i1.1135

Bourdage, J.S., Lee, K., Ashton, M.C., & Perry, A. (2007). Big five and HEXACO model personality correlates of sexuality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 43, 1506-1516. DOI:10.1016/j.paid.2007.04.008

Boyce, C.J., Wood, A.M., & Powdthavee, N. (2013). Is personality fixed? personality changes as much as “variable” economic factors and more strongly predicts changes to life satisfaction. *Social Indicators Research*, 111(1), 287-305). DOI:10.1007/s11205-012-0006-z

Boyle, G.J., Matthews, G., & Saklofske, D.H. (2008) *Personality theory and assessment, vol 1 personality theories and models*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Bozgeyikli, H. (2017). Big five personality traits as the predictor of teachers' organizational psychological capital. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8 (18), 125-135.

Bratton, J., Grint, K., & Nelson, D.L. (2005). *Organizational Leadership*. United States of America: Thomson South-Western.

Breevaart, K., & de Vries, R.E. (2017). Supervisor's HEXACO personality traits and subordinate perceptions of abusive supervision. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 691-700. DOI: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.02.001

Brewer, G., & Kerslake, J. (2015). Cyberbullying, self-esteem, empathy and loneliness. *Computers in Human Behavior* 48, 255-260.

Bryman, A. (2012) *Social research methods* (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bucher, M.A., & Samuel, D.B. (2019). Development of a short form of the abridged big five-dimensional circumplex model to aid with the organization of personality traits. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 101(1),16-24.

Buil, I., Martinez, E., & Matute, J. (2019). Transformational leadership and employee performance: The role of identification, engagement and proactive personality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 64-75.

Burger, J.M. (2011). *Introduction to personality*. (8th ed.). Canada: Cengage Learning.

Burger, J.M. (2019). *Personality*. (10th ed.). United States of America: Cengage learning.

Buric, I., & Macuka, I. (2018). Self-efficacy, emotions and work engagement among teachers: A two wave cross-lagged analysis. *Journal Happiness Studies*,19, 1917-1933. DOI: 10.1007/s10902-017-9903-9

Burtaverde, V., Chraif, M., Anitei, M., & Dumitru, D. (2017). The HEXACO model of personality and risky driving behaviour. *Psychological Reports*, 120 (2), 255-270. DOI: 10.1177/0033294116688890

Bush, V., Bush, A.J., Oakley, J., & Cicala, J.E. (2017). The sales profession as a subculture: Implications for ethical decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 142, 549-565. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-015-2753-7



Bussin, M., & Nel, M. (2015). Relationship between CEO remuneration and company financial performance in the South African retail and consumer goods sector. *Acta Commercii*, 15 (1), 1-11. DOI:10.4102/ac.v15i1.240

Cai, Z., Guan, Y., Li, H., Shi, W., Guo, K., Liu, Y., Li, Q., Han, X., Jiang, P., Fang, Z., & Hua, H. (2015). Self-esteem and proactive personality as predictors of future work self and career adaptability: An examination of mediating and moderating processes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 86, 86-94. DOI: 10.1016/j.jvb.2014.10.004

Caliskan, A. (2019). Applying the right relationship marketing strategy through big five personality traits. *Journal of Relationship Marketing*, 1-21. DOI: 10.1080/15332667.2019.1589241

Camgoz, S.M., Ekmekci, O.T., Karapinar, P.B., & Guler, B.K. (2016). Job insecurity and turnover intentions: Gender differences and the mediating role of work engagement. *Sex Roles*, 75, 583-598. DOI:10.1007/s11199-016-0595-0

Campbell, J. (2018, January 3). Diving into the ocean of personality. Retrieved from diving into the ocean of personality: <http://farthertogo.com/diving-ocean-personality-traits/>

Caniels, M.C.J., Semeijn, J.H., & Renders, I.H.M. (2018) mind the mindset! The interaction of proactive personality, transformational leadership and growth mindset for engagement at work. *Career Development International*, 23 (1), 48-66. DOI: 10.1108/CDI-11-2016-0194

Carmona-Halty, M., Salanova, M., Llorens, S., & Schaufeli, W.B. (2019). How psychological capital mediates between study-related positive emotions and academic performance. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 20, 605-617. DOI: 10.1007/s10902-018-9963-5

Carvalho, J., & Nobre, P.J. (2019). Five-factor model of personality and sexual aggression. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 63 (5), 797-814. DOI: 10.1177/0306624X13481941

Castillo, J. (2017). The relationship between big five personality traits, customer empowerment and customer satisfaction in the retail industry. *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research*, 11(2), 11-29.

Cervone, D., & Little, B.R. (2019). Personality architecture and dynamics: The new agenda and what's new about it. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 136, 12-23. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2017.07.001

Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2015). *Personality and Individual differences* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). United Kingdom: British Psychological Society and John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Chang, K. (2016). Effect of servicescape on customer behavioral intentions: Moderating roles of service climate and employee engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 53, 116-128. DOI:10.1016/j.ijhm.2015.12.003

Chatterjee, K., Adhikary, K., Sen, S., & Kar, S. (2018). Identification and analysis of factors affecting consumer behaviour in fast moving consumer goods sector. *Business Perspectives*, 17 (1), 1-17.

Cheema, S., Akram, A., & Javed, F. (2015). Employee engagement and visionary leadership: Impact on customer and employee satisfaction. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 7(2), 139-148.

Chen, C., Westman., & Hobfoll, S.E. (2015). The commerce and crossover of resources: Resource conservation in the service of resilience. *Stress Health*, 31(2) , 95-105.

Chen, S. (2015). The relationship of leader psychological capital and follower psychological capital, job engagement and job performance: A multilevel mediating perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26 (18), 2349-2365. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2015.1020443

Chen,J., Sharma, P., Zhan, W., & Liu, L. (2019). Demystifying the impact of CEO transformational leadership on firm performance: Interactive roles of exploratory innovation and environmental uncertainty. *Journal of Business Research*, 96, 85-96. DOI: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.10.061

Cheng, T., Hong, C., & Yang, B. (2018). Examining the moderating effects of service climate on psychological capital, work engagement, and service behavior among flight attendants. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 67, 94-102.DOI: 10.1016/j.jairtraman.2017.11.009

Chin, T.L., Lok, S.Y.P., & Kong, P.K.P. (2019). Does transformational leadership influence employee engagement. *Global Business and Management Research: An International Journal*, 11(2), 92-97.

Choi, S.B., Tran, T.B.H., & Park, B.I. (2015). Inclusive leadership and work engagement: Mediating roles of affective organizational commitment and creativity. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 43 (6), 931-943. DOI:10.2224/sbp.2015.43.6.931

Chua, J., & Ayoko, O.B. (2019). Employees' self-determined motivation, transformational leadership and work engagement. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 1-21. DOI:10.1017/jmo.2018.74

Cifre, E., Vera, M., Rodriguez-Sachez, A.M., & Pastor, M.C. (2013). Job-person fit and well-being from a gender perspective. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29, 161-168. DOI: 10.5093/tr2013a22

Coelho, F.J., Lages, C.R., & Sousa, C.M.P. (2018). Personality and the creativity of frontline service employees: Linear and curvilinear effects. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 29 (17), 2580-2607.

Coetzee, M., & van Dyk, J. (2018). Workplace bullying and turnover intention: Exploring work engagement as a potential mediator. *Psychological Reports* 121 (2), 375-392. DOI: 10.1177/0033294117725073

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken, L.S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioural sciences* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York: Routledge.

Cooke, F.L., Cooper, B., Bartram, T., Wang, J., & Mei, H. (2019). Mapping the relationship between high-performance work systems, employee resilience and engagement: A study of the banking industry in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 30 (8), 1239-1260.

Costantini, A., De Paola, F., Ceschi, A., Sartori, R., Meneghini, A. M., & Di Fabio, A. (2017). Work engagement and psychological capital in the Italian Public Administration: A new resource-based intervention programme. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 43(0), 1-11. DOI: 10.4102/sajip.v43i0.1413

Cozby, P.C., & Bates, S.C. (2015). *Methods in behavioural research*. (12th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M.S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31 (6), 874-900. DOI: 10.1177/0149206305279602

- Daft, R.I. (2008). *Leadership* (5 th ed.).China: Cengage Learning.
- Dandekar, H.C. (2005). Qualitative methods in planning research and practice. *Journal of Architectural and Planning Research*, 22(2), 129-137.
- Datu, J.A.D., King, R.B., & Valdez, J.P.M. (2018). Psychological capital bolsters motivation, engagement, and achievement: Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 13(3), 260-270.
- David, M., & Sutton, C.D. (2011). *Social research, an introduction* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Day, D.V., & Antonakis, J. (2012). *The nature of leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- De Braine, R., & Roodt, G. (2011). The job demands resource model as predictor of work identity and work engagement: A comparative analysis. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37 (2), 1-11. DOI:10.4102/sajip.v37i2.889
- de Crom, N., & Rothmann, S.I. (2018). Demands-abilities fit, work beliefs, meaningful work and engagement in nature-based jobs. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 44(0), 1-12. DOI:10.4102/sajip.v44i0.1496
- de Oliveira, L.B., & da Costa Rocha, J. (2017). Work engagement: Individual and situational antecedents and its relationship with turnover intention. *Review of Business Management*, 19 (65), 415-431. DOI: 10.7819/rbgn.v19i64.3373
- de Vries, R.E., Tybur, J.M., Pollet, T.V., & van Vugt, M. (2016) Evolution, situational affordances, and the HEXACO model of personality. *Evolution and Human Behaviour*, 37, 407-421. DOI: 10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2016.04.001

- Deinert, A., Homan, A.C., Boer, D., Voelpel, S.C., & Gutermann, D. (2015). Transformational leadership sub-dimensions and their link to leaders' personality and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26, 1095-1120.
- Denzin, N.K., & Lincoln, Y.S. (2003). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: SAGE Publications.
- Derlega, V.A., Winstead, B.A., & Jones, W.H. (2005). *Personality: Contemporary theory and research* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Canada: Thomson, Wadsworth.
- Devaraj, S., Easley, R.F., & Crant, J.M. (2008). Research note: How does personality matter? relating the five-factor model to technology acceptance and use. *Information Systems Research*, 19 (1), 93-105. DOI: 10.1287/isre.1070.0153
- Dixon, M.L., & Hart, L.K. (2010). The impact of path-goal leadership styles on work group effectiveness and turnover intention. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 22 (1), 52-69.
- Dochtermann, N.A., Schwab, T., & Sih, A. (2015). The contribution of additive genetic variation to personality variation: Heritability of personality. *Biological Sciences*, 282 (1798), 1-5.
- du Plessis, M., & Boshoff, A.B. (2018). Authentic leadership, followership, and psychological capital as antecedents of work engagement. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 28(1), 26-32. DOI: 10.1080/14330237.2018.1438832
- Dubbelt, L., Rispens, S., & Demerouti, E. (2016). Work engagement and research output among female and male scientists. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 15(2), 55-65. DOI: 10.1027/1866-5888/a000150

- Dubihlela, J., & Ngxukumeshe, T. (2016). Eco-friendly retail product attributes, customer attributes and the repurchase intentions of South African consumers. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 15 (4), 163-174.
- Durbin, A.J. (2010). *Principles of leadership* (6th ed.). Canada: Cengage learning.
- Durbin, A.J. (2013). *Principles of leadership* (7th ed.). China: Cengage learning.
- Eberechukwu, A.J., Onyedikachi, A.E., & Awah, A.E. (2017). Salesman's personality trait and its effects on sales performance: Study of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) in Abia State, Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 8 (24), 81-88.
- Einarsen, S., Skogstad, A., Rorvik, E., Lande, A.B., & Nielsen, M.B. (2018). Climate for conflict management, exposure to workplace bullying and work engagement: A moderated mediation analysis. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 29 (3), 549-570.
- Eisenberg, J., Post, C., & DiTomaso, N. (2019). Team dispersion and performance: The role of team communication and transformational leadership. *Small Group Research*, 1-33. DOI: 10.1177/1046496419827376
- Eissa, G., Chinchachokchai, S., & Wyland, R. (2017). The influence of supervisor undermining on self-esteem, creativity, and overall job performance: A multiple mediation model. *Organization Management Journal*, 14(4), 185-197. DOI: 10.1080/15416518.2017.1382321
- Eldor, L. (2016). Work engagement: Toward a general theoretical enriching model. *Human Resource Development Review*, 15 (3), 317-339.

Engler, B. (2009). *Personality theories: An introduction* (8th ed.). United States of America: Cengage Learning.

Enwereuzor, I.K., Ugwu, L.I., & Eze, O.A. (2018) How transformational leadership influences work engagement among nurses: Does person-job fit matter. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 40(3), 346-366. DOI: 10.1177/0193945916682449

Eriksson, P., & Kovalainen, A. (2016). *Qualitative methods in business research*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: SAGE publications.

Esther, N., & Katuse, P. (2013). Third party logistics in distribution efficiency delivery for competitive advantage in fast moving consumer goods companies in Kenya. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Entrepreneurship*, 1(8), 1-12.

Etikan, I., Musa, S.A., & Alkassim, R.S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1-4. DOI: 10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Eustace, A., & Martins, N. (2014). The role of leadership in shaping organizational climate: An example from the fast moving consumer goods industry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40 (1), 1-13. DOI:10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1112

Falkenbach, D.M., Reinhard, E.E., & Zappala, M. (2019). Identifying psychopathy subtypes using a broader model of personality: An investigation of the five factor Model using model-based cluster analysis. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 1-24. DOI: 10.1177/0886260519831388

Farahnak, L.R., Ehrhart, M.G., Torres, E.M., & Aarons, G.A. (2019). The influence of transformational leadership and leader attitudes on subordinate attitudes and implementation success. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 1-14. DOI: 10.1177/1548051818824529



Farhan, B.Y. (2018). Application of path-goal leadership theory and learning theory in a learning organization. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 34 (1), 13-22.

Fearon, C., McLaughlin, H., & Morris, L. (2013). Conceptualising work engagement: An individual, collective and organisational efficacy perspective. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 37(3), 244-256. DOI:10.1108/03090591311312723

Feist, G.J. (2019). Creativity and the big two model of personality: Plasticity and stability. *Current Opinion in Behavioural Sciences*, 27, 31-35. DOI: 10.1016/j.cobeha.2018.07.005

Feist, J., Feist, G.J., & Roberts, T. (2013). *Theories of personality* (8th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Feist, J., Feist, G.J., & Roberts, T. (2018). *Theories of personality*. (9th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). Singapore: SAGE publications.

Finkelstein, L.M., Truxillo, D.M., Fraccaroli, F., & Kanfer, R. (2015). *Facing the challenge of a multi-age workforce; a use-inspired approach*. New York: Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group.

Fisher, P.A., & Robie, C. (2019). A latent profile analysis of the five- factor model of personality: A constructive replication and extension. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 139, 343-348. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2018.12.002

Flinn, C.J., Todd, P.E., & Zhang, W. (2018). Personality traits, intra-household allocation and the gender wage gap. *European Economic Review*, 109, 191-220. DOI: 10.1016/j.euroecorev.2017.11.003

- Font, X., Garay, L., & Jones, S. (2016). A social cognitive theory of sustainability empathy. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 58, 65-80. DOI: 10.1016/j.annals.2016.02.004
- Forestell, C.A., & Nezlek, J.B. (2018). Vegetarianism, depression, and the five-factor model of personality. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition*, 57(3), 246-259. DOI: 10.1080/03670244.2018.1455675
- Foris, B., Zebunke, M., Langbein, J., & Melzer, N. (2018). Evaluating the temporal and situational consistency of personality traits in adult dairy cattle. *Plos One*, 13(10), 1-16. DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0204619
- Foulkes-Bert, D., Volk, F., Garzon, F., & Pride, M. (2019). The relationship between transformational leadership behavior, adult attachment, and God attachment. *Journal of Psychology and Theology*, 47(1), 20-33. DOI: 10.1177/0091647118795181
- Frieder, R.E., Wang, G., & Oh, I. (2018). Linking job-relevant personality traits, transformational leadership, and job performance via perceived meaningfulness at work: A moderated mediation model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103 (3), 324-333. DOI: 10.1037/apl0000274
- Friedman, H.S., & Schustack, M.W. (2012). *Personality: Classic theories and modern research*. (5th ed.). United States of America: Pearson.
- Furnham, A. (2008). *Personality and intelligence at work: Exploring and explaining individual differences at work*. New York: Routledge.
- Furnham, A., & Treglown, L. (2018). High potential personality and intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 128, 81-87. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2018.02.025
- Garg, N. (2014). Employee and individual differences: A study in Indian Context. *Management Studies and Economic Systems (MSES)* 1 (1), 41-50.

Gautam, A., & Enslin, E. (2019). Transformational leadership and work engagement in the automotive retail industry: A study of South Africa. *International Business Research*, 12 (5), 133-141. DOI:10.5539/ibr.v12n5p133

Gawke, J.C., Gorgievski, M.J., & Bakker, A.B. (2017). Employee intrapreneurship and work engagement: A latent change score approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 100, 88-100. DOI:10.1016/j.jvb.2017.03.002

Geldenhuys, M., Laba, K., & Venter, C.M. (2014). Meaningful work, work engagement and organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40 (1), 1-10. DOI:10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1098

Gerards, R., de Grip, A., & Baudewijns, C. (2018). Do new ways of working increases work engagement. *Personnel Review*, 47 (2), 517-534. DOI:10.1108/PR-02-2017-0050

Ghadi, M.Y., Fernando, M., & Caputi, P. (2013). Transformational leadership and work engagement: The mediating effect of meaning in work. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 34(6), 532-550. DOI: 10.1108/LODJ-10-2011-0110

Ghasabeh, M.S., & Provitera, M.J. (2017). Transformational leadership: Building an effective culture to manage organizational knowledge. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership*, 10(2), 1-19. DOI: 10.22543/0733.102.1187

Giebels, E., de Reuver, R.S.M., Rispens, S., & Ufkes, E.G. (2016). The critical roles of task conflict and job autonomy in the relationship between proactive personalities and innovative employee behavior. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 52(3), 320-341. DOI: 10.1177/0021886316648774

Glicken, M.D. (2003). *Social research, a simple guide*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Gomm, R. (2008). *Social research methodology: A critical introduction* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Goodboy, A.K., Martin, M.M., Knight, J.M., & Long, Z. (2017). Creating the boiler room environment: The job demand- control- support model as an explanation for workplace bullying. *Communication Research*, 44 (2), 244-262.

Gorgens-Ekermans, G., & Herbert, M. (2013). Psychological capital: Internal and external validity of the psychological capital questionnaire (PCO-24) on a South African Sample. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2), 1-12. DOI: 10.4102/

Goyal, P., & Gupta, M. (2016). Problems of employees in organized retail sector: A survey of selected cities of Punjab. *Journal of Management Research*, 16 (3), 165-176.

Gozukara, I., & Simsek, O.F. (2015). Linking transformational leadership to work engagement and the mediator effect of job autonomy: A study in a Turkish private non-profit University. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 195, 963-971. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.274

Gozukara, I., & Simsek, O.F. (2016). Role of leadership in employees' work engagement: Organizational identification and job autonomy. *International Journal Of Business and Management*, 11(1), 72-84. DOI:10.5539/ijbm.v11n1p72

Grandey, A.A., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). The conservation of resources model applied to work-family conflict and strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54, 350-370.

Gronlund, A., & Magnusson, C. (2018). Do atypical individuals make atypical choices? examining how gender patterns in personality relate to occupational choice and wages

among five professions in Sweden. *Gend. Issues*, 35,153-178. DOI: 10.1007/s12147-017-9194-9

Groves, K.S., & LaRocca, M.A. (2011). Responsible leadership outcomes via stakeholder CSR values: Testing a values-centered model of transformational leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98, 37-55. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-011-1019-2

Guchait, P., Zhao, X., Madera, J., Hua, N., & Okumus, F. (2018). Can error management culture increase work engagement in hotels? The moderating role of gender. *Serv Bus*, 12, 757-778. DOI:10.1007/s11628-018-0374-9

Gupta, M. (2017). Corporate social responsibility, employee-company identification, and organizational commitment: Mediation by employee engagement. *Curr Psychol*, 36, 101-109. DOI: 10.1007/s12144-015-9389-8

Gupta, M., & Shaheen, M. (2017). The relationship between psychological capital and turnover intention: Work engagement as mediator and work experience as moderator. *Jurnal Pengurusan*, 49, 117-126. DOI: 10.17576/pengurusan-2017-49-10

Gupta, M., & Shukla, K. (2018). An empirical clarification on the assessment of engagement at work. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 20 (1) , 44-57. DOI: 10.1177/1523422317741692

Hachana, R., Berraies, S., & Ftiti, Z. (2018). Identifying personality traits associated with entrepreneurial success. Does gender matter? *Journal of Innovation Economics & Management*, 3 (27), 169-193.

Halama, P. (2010). Hope as a mediator between personality traits and life satisfaction. *Studia Psychologica*, 52 (4), 309-314.

Haley, L., Mostert, K., & Els, C. (2013). Burnout and work engagement for different age groups: Examining group-level differences and predictors. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 23 (2), 283-296.

Hamad, E.O., Alhadi, A.N., Lee, C.J., Savundranayagam, M.Y., Holmes, J.D., Kinsella, E.A., & Johnson, A.M. (2017). Assessment of caregiving constructs: Toward a personal, familial, group, and cultural construction of dementia care through the eyes of personal construct psychology. *J Cross Cult Gerontol* 32, 413-431. DOI:10.1007/s10823-017-9320-x

Hamstra, M.R.W., VanYperen, N.W., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2014). Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' achievement goals. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 29, 413-425. DOI: 10.1007/s10869-013-9322-9

Hanaysha, J. (2016). Testing the effects of employee engagement, work environment, and organizational learning on organizational commitment. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 229, 289-297. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.07.139

Harris, M.A., Brett, C.E., Johnson, W., & Deary, I.J. (2016). Personality stability from age 14 to age 77 Years. *Psychology and Aging*, 31(8),862-874.DOI: 10.1037/pag0000133

Hay, I. (2006). Transformational leadership: Characteristics and criticisms. *E-Journal of Organizational Learning and Leadership*, 5 (2), 1-19.

Hayati, D., Charkhabi, M., & Naami, A. (2014). The relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement in governmental hospitals nurses: A survey study. *Springer Plus*, 3 (25), 1-7.

Henly, J.R., & Lambert, S.J. (2014). Unpredictable work timing in retail jobs: Implications for employee work-life conflict. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 67(3), 986-1016.

Hetland, J., Hetland, H., Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2018). Daily transformational leadership and employee job crafting: The role of promotion focus. *European Management Journal*, 36, 746-756. DOI: 10.1016/j.emj.2018.01.002

Hirsh, J.B. (2010). Personality and environmental concern. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 30, 245-248. DOI:10.1016/j.jenvp.2010.01.004

Hobfoll, S.E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50 (3), 337-421.

Hobfoll, S.E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J. & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of recourses in the organizational context: The reality of resources and their consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5, 103-128. DOI:10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Hoch, J.E., Bommer, W.H., Dulebohn, J.H., & Wu, D. (2018). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, 44 (2), 501-529. DOI: 10.1177/0149206316665461

Hoole, C., & Hotz, G. (2016). The impact of a total reward system of work engagement. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 42 (1), 1-14. DOI:10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1317

House, R.J. (1996). Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy and a reformulated theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7 (3), 323-352.

Hoyle, R.H. (2010). *Handbook of personality and self-regulation* (3rd ed.). United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell, A John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. Publication.

Hsieh, C., & Wang, D. (2015). Does supervisor-perceived authentic leadership influence employee work engagement through employee-perceived authentic leadership and employee trust? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26 (18), 2329-2348. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2015.1025234

Hu, R., Wang, L., Zhang, W., & Bin, P. (2018). Creativity, proactive personality, and entrepreneurial intention: The role of entrepreneurial alertness. *Original Research*, 9, 1-10. DOI: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00951

Huber, J., Gossmann, A., & Stuckenschmidt, H. (2017). Cluster-based hierarchical demand forecasting for perishable goods. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 76, 140-151. DOI:10.1016/j.eswa.2017.01.022

Huynh, J., Metzger, J.C., & Winefield, A.H. (2012). Engaged or connected? A perspective of the motivational pathway of the job demands-resources model in volunteers working for nonprofit organizations. *International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 23, (4), 870-898. DOI: 10.1007/s11266-011-9233-1

Inceoglu, I., & Warr, P. (2012). Personality and job engagement. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 1-9.

Jacobs, S., Renard, M., & Snelgar, R.J. (2014). Intrinsic rewards and work engagement in the South African retail industry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 40 (2), 1-13. DOI:10.4102/sajip. v40i2.1195

Jaggia, S., & Kelly, A. (2014). *Essentials of business statistics: Communicating with numbers*. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.



James, J.B., McKechnie, S., & Swanberg, J. (2011). Predicting employee engagement in an age-diverse retail workforce. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 173-196. DOI: 10.1002/job.681

Jancenelle, V.E., Javalgi, R.R.G., & Cavusgil, E. (2018). The role of economic and normative signals in international prosocial crowdfunding: An illustration using market orientation and psychological capital. *International Business Review*, 27, 208-217. DOI:10.1016/j.ibusrev.2017.07.002

Jankowski, K.R.B., & Flannelly, K.J. (2015). Measures of central tendency in chaplaincy, health care, and related research. *Journal of Health Care Chaplaincy*, 21, 39-49. DOI: 10.1080/08854726.2014.989799

Jaworek, M. (2017). The role of occupational and demographic factors in relation to work engagement in polish sample of employees-initial study. *Journal of Positive Management*, 8(4), 44-57. DOI:10.12775/JPM.2017.130

Jena, L.K., Pradhan, S., & Panigrahy, N.P. (2018). Pursuit of organisational trust: Role of employee engagement, psychological well-being and transformational leadership. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 23, 227-234. DOI:10.1016/j.apmr.2017.11.001

Jensen, U.T., Andersen, L.B., Bro, L.L., Bollingtoft, A., Eriksen, T.L.M., Holten, A., Jacobsen, C.B., Ladenburg, J., Nielsen, P.A., Salomonsen, H.H., Westergaard-Nielsen, N., & Wurtz, A. (2019). Conceptualizing and measuring transformational and transactional leadership. *Administration & Society*, 51(1), 3-33. DOI: 10.1177/0095399716667157

Jha, S., Balaji, M.S., Ranjan, K.R., & Sharma, A. (2019). Effect of service-related resources on employee and customer outcomes in trade shows. *Industrial Marketing Management* 76, 48-59. DOI: 10.1016/j.indmarman.2018.07.012

Jiang, Z. (2017). Proactive personality and career adaptability: The role of thriving at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 98, 85-97. DOI:10.1016/j.jvb.2016.10.003

Jin, D., Qinghua, Z., Haifei, L., & Wenbin, Y. (2005). The research of mining association rules between personality and behavior of learner under web-based learning environment. The 4<sup>th</sup> International Conference in Web-Based. DOI: 10.1007/11528043\_42

Johnsen, B.H., Eid, J., Pallesen, S., Bartone, P.T., & Nissestad, O.A. (2009). Predicting transformational leadership in naval cadets: Effects of personality hardiness and training. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 39 (9), 2213-2235.

Jones, J.R., & Harter, J.K. (2005). Race effects on the employee engagement-turnover intention relationship. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 11(2), 78-88.

Joo, B., Lim, D.H., & Kim, S. (2016). Enhancing work engagement: The roles of psychological capital, authentic leadership, and work empowerment. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 37 (8), 1117-1134. DOI:10.1108/LODJ-01-2015-0005

Jose, G., & Mampilly, S.R. (2014). Psychological empowerment as a predictor of employee engagement: An empirical attestation. *Global Business Review*, 15(1), 93-104. DOI: 10.1177/0972150913515589

Jr, P.M., Leal, J.E., & Thome, A.M.T. (2016). A maturity model for demand-driven supply chains in the consumer product goods industry. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 179, 153-165. DOI:10.1016/j.ijpe.2016.06.004

Jung, D.I., & Avolio, B.J. (2000). Opening the black box: an experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 949-964.

Kandler, C. (2012). Nature and nurture in personality development: The case of neuroticism and extraversion. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 21 (5), 290-296. DOI: 10.1177/0963721412452557

Kang, H.J.A., & Busser, J.A. (2018). Impact of service climate and psychological capital on employee engagement: The role of organizational hierarchy. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 75, 1-9. DOI:10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.03.003

Kapikiran, S., & Acun-Kapikiran, N. (2016). Optimism and psychological resilience in relation to depressive symptoms in University students: Examining the mediating role of self-esteem. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 16(6), 2087-2110. DOI:10.12738/estp.2016.6.0107

Karatepe, O.M. (2014). Hope, work engagement, and organizationally valued performance outcomes: An empirical study in the hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 23(6), 678-698. DOI:10.1080/19368623.2014.855994

Kark, R., Van Dijk, D., & Vashdi, D.R. (2018). Motivated or demotivated to be creative: The role of self-regulatory focus in transformational and transactional leadership process. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 67 (1), 186-224. DOI: 10.1111/apps.12122

Kazimoto, P. (2016). Employee engagement and organizational Performance of retails enterprises. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 6, 516-525. DOI: 10.4236/ajibm.2016.64047

- Keller, A.C., Meier, L.L., Gross, S., & Semmer, N.K. (2015). Gender differences in the association of a high quality job and self-esteem over time. A multiwave study. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 24* (1), 113-125. DOI: 10.1080/1359432X.2013.865118
- Keltikangas-Jarvinen, L., & Jokela, M. (2010). Nature and nurture in personality. *The Journal of Lifelong Learning in Psychiatry, VIII* (2), 180-186.
- Keyko, K., Cummings, G.G., Yonge, O., & Wong, C.A. (2016) Work engagement in professional nursing practice: A systematic review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 61*, 142-164. DOI:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2016.06.003
- Kim, M., Kim, A.C.H., Newman, J.I., Ferris, G.R., & Perrewe, P.L. (2019). The antecedents and consequences of positive organizational behavior: The role of psychological capital for promoting employee well-being in sport organizations. *Sport Management Review, 22*, 108-125. DOI:10.1016/j.smr.2018.04.003
- Kim, N., & Kang, S. (2017). Older and more engaged: The mediating role of age-linked resources on work engagement. *Human Resource Management, 56* (5), 731-746. DOI:10.1002/hrm.21802
- Kim, P.B., Gazzoli, G., Qu, H., & Kim, C.S. (2016). Influence of the work relationship between frontline employees and their immediate supervisor on customers' service experience. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 25* (4) 425-448. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2015.1034826
- Kim, S., & Shin, M. (2017). Transformational leadership behaviors, the empowering process, and organizational commitment: investigating the moderating role of organizational structure in Korea. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 1-26*. DOI:10.1080/09585192.2016.1278253

- Kim, W., & Park, J. (2017). Examining structural relationships between work-engagement, organizational procedural justice, knowledge sharing, and innovative work behaviour for sustainable organizations. *Sustainability*, 9 (205), 1-16. DOI:10.3390/su9020205
- Kimbrel, N.A., Mitchell, J.T., Hundt, N.E., Robertson, C.D., & Nelson-Gray, R.O (2012). BIS and BAS interact with perceived parental affectionless control to predict personality disorder symptomatology. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 26 (2), 203-212. DOI:10.1521/pedi.2012.26.2.203
- Kircaburun, K., & Griffiths, M.D. (2018). Instagram addiction and the big five of personality: The mediating role of self-liking. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 7(1), 158-170. DOI: 10.1556/2006.7.2018.15
- Kirkbride, P. (2006). Developing transformational leaders: the full range leadership model in action. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38 (1), 23-32. DOI: 10.1108/00197850610646016
- Kleinbaum, D.G., Kupper, L.L., Nizam, A., & Muller, K.E. (2008). *Applied regression analysis and other multivariable methods* (4th ed.). Canada: Cengage Learning.
- Knight, C., Patterson, M., Dawson, J., & Brown, J. (2017). Building and sustaining work engagement a participatory action intervention to increase work engagement in nursing staff. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 26(5), 634-649. DOI: 10.1080/1359432X.2017.1336999
- Knight, N.M., Dahlen, E.R., Bullock-Yowell, E., & Madson, M.B. (2018) The HEXACO model of personality and dark triad in relational aggression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 122, 109-114. DOI: 10.1016/j.paid.2017.10.016

- Kok, R., & Meyer, L. (2018). Towards an optimal person-environment fit: A baseline study of student teachers' personality traits. *South African Journal of Education*, 38 (3), 1-12. DOI: 10.15700/saje.v38n3a1409
- Kole, M., & Kurt, A. (2018). The moderator role of psychological capital between perceived organizational support and work-family balance: A service sector research. *International Journal of Commerce and Finance*, 4 (2), 134-146.
- Kong, N. (2009). A study on the job engagement of company employees. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 1 (2), 65-68.
- Kong, Y., & Li, M. (2018). Proactive personality and innovative behavior: The mediating roles of job-related affect and work engagement. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, 46 (3), 431-446.
- Korunka, C., Kubicek, B., Schaufeli, W.B., & Hoonakker, P. (2009). Work engagement and burnout: testing the robustness of the job demands-resources model. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4 (3), 243-255. DOI: 10.1080/17439760902879976
- Kotze, M. (2018). The influence of psychological capital, self-leadership, and mindfulness on work engagement. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 48 (2), 279-292. DOI:10.1177/0081246317705812
- Kretzschmar, A., Spengler, M., Schubert, A., Steinmayr, R., & Ziegler, M. (2018). The relation of personality and intelligence-what can the Brunswik symmetry principle tell us? *Journal of Intelligence*, 6(30), 1-38. DOI:10.3390/jintelligence6030030
- Krishnan, V.R. (2002). Transformational leadership and value system congruence. *International Journal of Value-Based Management*, 15, 19-33.

Krishnan, V.R. (2004). Impact of transformational leadership on followers' influence strategies. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25 (1), 58-72. DOI:10.1108/01437730410512778

Kulikowski, K. (2017). Do we all agree on how to measure work engagement? factorial validity of utrecht work -engagement scale as a standard measurement tool –a literature review. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 30 (2), 161 – 175. DOI:10.13075/ijomeh.1896.00947

Kumar, M.M., & Shah, S.A. (2016). Personality traits and psychological capital as predictors of job satisfaction among banking executives. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 5(5), 721-731.

Kurniawan, I.S., & Hutami, L.T.H. (2019). The mediation of job engagement to rewards and recognition toward organizational citizenship behaviour and task performance. *Advances in Economics, Business and Management Research*, 86, 48-52.

Laba, K., & Geldenhuys, M. (2016). Psychological availability and work engagement: The moderating role of sex and race. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 26 (2), 107-112. DOI:10.1080/14330237.2016.1163888

Lambe, C.J., Wittmann, C.M., & Spekman, R.E. (2001). Social exchange theory and research on business-to business relational exchange. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 8 (3), 1-36. DOI:10.1300/J033v08n03\_01

Larsen, R.J., & Buss, D.M. (2010). *Personality psychology: Domains of knowledge about human nature* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Lather, A.S., & Jain, V.K. (2015). Ten C's leadership practices impacting employee engagement: A study of hotel and tourism industry. *Vilakshan, XIMB Journal of Management*, 12 (II), 59-74.

Latta, G.F., & Fait, J.I. (2016). Sources of motivation and work engagement: A cross-industry analysis of differentiated profiles. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 16 (2), 29-44.

Lawler, E.J., & Thye, S.R. (1999). Bringing emotions into social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25, 217-244.

Lee, J.J., & Ok, C.M. (2015). Drivers of work engagement: An examination of core self-evaluations and psychological climate among hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 44, 84-98. DOI:10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.10.008

Lee, K., & Ashton, M.C. (2014). The dark triad, the big five and the HEXACO model. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 67, 2-5. DOI:10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.048

Lee, K., & Ashton, M.C. (2016). The HEXACO model of personality structure. *Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences*, 1-5. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-28099-8\_1227-1

Lee, K., & Ashton, M.C. (2018). Psychometric properties of the HEXACO-100. *Assessment*, 25 (5), 543-556. DOI: 10.1177/1073191116659134

Lee, M. (2014). Transformational leadership: Is it time for a recall? *International Journal of Management and Applied Research*, 1(1), 17-29. DOI:10.18646/2056.11.14-002

Lee, Y., & Eissenstat, S.J. (2018). An application of work engagement in the job demands-resources model to career development: Assessing gender differences. *Human Resource Dev Quarterly*, 29, 143-161. DOI: 10.1002/hrdq.21310



- Lei, K.Y., Basit, A., & Hassan, Z. (2018). The impact of talent management on job satisfaction: A study among the employees of a travel agency in Malaysia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Business and Economic Research*, 1(1), 1-19.
- Leischnig, A., & Kasper-Brauer, K. (2015). Employee adaptive behavior in Service enactments. *Journal of Business Research*, 68, 273-280.
- Lerner, D.A., Hatak, I., & Rauch, A. (2018). Deep roots? behavioral inhibition and behavioral activation system (BIS/BAS) sensitivity and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights*, 9, 107-115. DOI:10.1016/j.jbvi.2018.02.005
- Li, L., Zhong, J.A., Chen, Y., Xie, Y., & Mao, S. (2014). Moderating effects of proactive personality on factors influencing work engagement based on the job demands-resources model. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 42 (1), 7-16.
- Li, M., Wang, Z., Gao., J., & You, X. (2017). Proactive personality and job satisfaction: The mediating effects of self-efficacy and work engagement in teachers. *Curr Psychol*, 36, 48-55. DOI: 10.1007/s12144-015-9383-1
- Limura, S., & Taku, K. (2018). Gender differences in relationship between resilience and big five personality traits in Japanese adolescents. *Psychological Reports*, 121(5), 920-931. DOI: 10.1177/0033294117741654
- Lin, C. (2010). Modeling corporate citizenship, organizational trust, and work engagement based on attachment theory. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 94(4), 517-531. DOI: 10.1007/A10551-009-0279-6
- Linley, P.A., Harrington, S., & Garcea, N. (2010). *Oxford handbook of positive psychology and work*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Liran, B.H., & Miller, P. (2019). The role of psychological capital in academic adjustment among University students. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 20, 51-65. DOI: 10.1007/s10902-017-9933-3

Little, T.D. (2013). *The oxford handbook of quantitative methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lorente, L., Salanova, M., Martinez, I.M., & Vera, M. (2014). How personal resources predict work engagement and self-rated performance among construction workers: A social cognitive perspective. *International Journal of Psychology*, 49 (3), 200-207.

Luo, A., Guchait, P., Lee, L., & Madera, J.M. (2019). Transformational Leadership and service recovery performance: The mediating effect of emotional labor and the influence of culture. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 31-39. DOI: 10.1016/j.ijhm.2018.06.011

Lussier, R.N., & Achua, C.F. (2007). *Effective leadership* (3rd ed.). Canada: Thomson, South-Western.

Luthans, F., Avolio, B.J., Avey, J.B., & Norman, S.M., (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 541-572.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Luthans, F., Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). *Psychological capital and beyond*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Luthans, K.W., Luthans, B.C., & Chaffin, T.D. (2019). Refining grit in academic performance: The mediational role of psychological capital. *Journal of Management Education*, 43 (1), 35-61. DOI: 10.1177/1052562918804282

- Lv, A., Lv, R., Xu, H., Ning, Y., & Li, Y. (2018). Team autonomy amplifies the positive effects of proactive personality on work engagement. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, 46 (7), 1071-1082. DOI:10.2224/sbp.6830
- Ma, X., & Jiang, W. (2018). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and employee creativity in entrepreneurial firms. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 54 (3), 302-324. DOI: 10.1177/0021886318764346
- Mache, S., Danzer, G., Klapp, B.F., & Groneberg, D.A. (2013). Surgeons' work ability and performance in surgical care: Relations between organizational predictors, work engagement and work ability. *Langenbecks Arch Surg*, 398, 317-325. DOI:10.1007/s00423-012-1044-3
- Macsinga, I., Sulea, C., Sarbescu, P., Fischmann, G., & Dumitru, C. (2015). Engaged, committed and helpful employees: The role of psychological empowerment. *The Journal of Psychology*, 149 (3), 263-276. DOI: 10.1080/00223980.2013.874323
- Mahmud, Z. (2009). *Handbook of research methodology, a simplified version*. Malaysia: University Publication Centre (UPENA).
- Maier, T., Tavanti, M., Bombard, P., Gentile, M., & Bradford, B. (2015). Millennial generation perceptions of value-centered leadership principles. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 14(4), 382-397.
- Mallick, J., & Watts, M. (2007). Personal construct theory and constructivist drug education. *Drug and Alcohol Review*, 26, 595-603. DOI:10.1080/09595230701613551
- Manikandan, S. (2011) Measures of central tendency: Median and mode. *Journal of Pharmacology and Pharmacotherapeutics*, 2(3) , 214-215.

Marcus, J., & Roy, J. (2017). In search of sustainable behaviour: The role of core values and personality traits. *Journal of Business of Ethics*, 1-17. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-017-3682-4

Maricutoiu, L.P., Sulea, C., & Iancu, A. (2017). Work engagement or burnout: Which comes first? A meta-analysis of longitudinal evidence. *Burnout Research*, 5, 35-43. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.burn.2017.05.001>

Markos, S., & Sridevi, M.S. (2010). Employee engagement: The key to improving performance. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5 (12), 89-96.

Martinez, S.D., Sun, Y., Gergen, E., & Wheeler, C. (2018). A study of the relationship between school administrator's leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management Science and Business Intelligence*, 3(1), 1-6.

Marturano, A., & Gosling, J. (2008). *Leadership, the key concepts*. United States of America: Routledge.

Mary, N.L. (2005). Transformational leadership in human service organizations. *Administration in Social Work*, 29 (2), 105-118.

Mathieu, C., Neumann, C., Babiak, P., & Hare, R.D. (2015). Corporate psychopathy and the full-range leadership model. *Assessment*, 22 (3), 267-278.

Maurer, T.J., & Chapman, E.F. (2018). Relationship of proactive personality with life satisfaction during late career and early retirement. *Journal of Career Development*, 45 (4), 345-360. DOI: 10.1177/0894845317697381

McCarthy, C.J., Whittaker, T.A., Boyle, L.H., & Eyal, M. (2017). Quantitative approached to group research: Suggestions for best practices. *The Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, 42(1), 3-16. DOI: 10.1080/01933922.2016.1264520

McCormick, I., & Burch G.J. (2008). Personality-focused coaching for leadership development. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 60 (3), 267-278.

McGrath, D.S., Neilson, T., Lee, K., Rash, C.L., & Rad, M. (2018). Associations between the HEXACO model of personality and gambling involvement, motivations to gamble, and gambling severity in young adult gamblers. *Journal of Behavioural Addictions*, 7 (2), 392-400. DOI: 10.1556/2006.7.2018.29

Mendes, F., & Stander, M.W. (2011). Positive organization: The role of leader behavior in work engagement and retention. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(1), 1-13.

Menguc, B., Auh, S., Fisher, M., & Haddad, A. (2013). To be engaged or not to be engaged: The antecedents and consequences of service employee engagement. *Journal of Business Research*, 66, 2163-2170. DOI:10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.01.007

Merckle, P., Octobre, S., & Jacobs, A. (2015). Do survey respondents lie? Inconsistent responses and the biographical illusion in a longitudinal survey on adolescents' leisure outings. *Revue Francaise de Sociologie*, 56 (3), 395-420.

Milenovic, Z.M. (2011). Application of Mann-Whitney U Test in research of professional training of primary school teachers. *Metodicki Obzori*, 6 (1), 73-79.

Miles, G.J., Smyrniotis, K.X., Jackson, M., & Francis, A.J.P. (2019). Reward-punishment sensitivity bias predicts narcissism subtypes: Implications for the etiology of narcissistic personalities. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 141, 143-151.

Milhem, M., Muda, H., & Ahmed, K. (2019). The effect of perceived transformational leadership style on employee engagement: The mediating effect of Leader's emotional intelligence. *Foundations of Management*, 11, 33-42. DOI: 10.2478/fman-2019-0003

Millon, T. (2016). What is a personality disorder? *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 30 (3), 289-306.

Mironenko, I.A. (2018). Personality as a social process: where Peter Giordano meets Boris Parygin. *Integr Psych Behav*, 52, 288-295. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12124-018-9417-y>

Mishra, A., & Vishvas, R. (2019). Retail shopper empowerment: A consumer -centric measure for store performance. *IIMB Management Review*, 31, 20-36.

Mishra, B., Sharma, B.R., & Bhaskar, A.U. (2015). Predictors of employee engagement: The case of an Indian PSU. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 50 (3), 469-478.

Montani, F., Vandenberghe, C., Khedhaouria, A., & Courcy, F. (2019). Examining the inverted U-shaped relationship between workload and innovative work behaviour: The role of work engagement and mindfulness. *Human Relations*, 1-35.

Mottus, R., Johnson, W., & Deary, I.J. (2012). Personality traits in old age: Measurement and rank- order stability and some mean-level change. *Psychology and Aging*, 27 (1), 243-249. DOI: 10.1037/a0023690

Mroz, J., & Kaleta, K. (2016). Relationships between personality, emotional labor, work engagement and job satisfaction in service professions. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 29 (5), 767-782. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.13075/ijomeh.1896.00578>

Mu, H., Lee, Y., & Duan, C. (2018). An empirical Study on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee creativity: Mediating role of perception of

meaning in work and work engagement. *Journal of Digital Convergence*, 16 (8), 117-128. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.14400/JDC.2018.16.8.117>

Nachar, N. (2008). The Mann-Whitney U: A test for assessing whether two independent samples come from the same distribution. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 4 (1), 13-20. DOI:10.20982/tqmp.04.1.p013

Nawangarsi, L.C., & Sutawidjaya, A.H. (2019). Talent management in mediating competencies and motivation to improve employees's engagement. *International Journal of Economics and Business Administration* ,VII (1), 140-152.

Nazir, A., Akram, M.S., & Arshad, M. (2014). Exploring the mediating role of CSR practices among leadership styles and job satisfaction. *Pakistan Journal of Science*, 66(4), 351-355.

Nel, T., Stander, M.W., & Latif, J. (2015). Investigating positive leadership, psychological empowerment, work engagement and satisfaction with Life in a chemical industry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 41 (1), 1-13.

Neuman, W.L. (2012). *Basics of social research: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). United States of America: Pearson Education, Inc.

Neuman, W.L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). England: Pearson Education Limited.

Newman, A., Schwarz, G., Cooper, B., & Sendjaya, S. (2017). How servant leadership influences organizational citizenship behavior: The roles of LMX, empowerment, and proactive personality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 145, 49-62. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-015-2827-6

- Newman, A., Ucbasaran, D., Zhu, F., & Hirst, G. (2014). Psychological capital: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 35, 120-138. DOI: 10.1002/job.1916
- Nezlek, J.B., & Forestell, C.A. (2019). Food neophobia and the five factor model of personality. *Food Quality and Preference*, 73, 210-214.
- Ng, V., Woo, S.E., Tay, L., & Foster, J. (2016). Examining variability in values attributed to culture: Using personality as a relative benchmark. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 47(7), 981-996. DOI: 10.1177/0022022116651333
- Nguyen, A.D., Jefferies, J., & Rojas, B. (2018). Short term, big impact? changes in self-efficacy and cultural intelligence, and the adjustment of multicultural and monocultural students abroad. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 66, 119-129.
- Nickson, D., Price, R., Baxter-Reid, H., & Hurrell, S.A. (2017). Skill requirements in retail work: The case of high-end fashion retailing. *Work, Employment and Society*, 31(4), 692-708. DOI:10.1177/0950017016672791
- Northhouse, P.G. (2010). *Leadership theory and practice* (5th ed.). United States of America: Sage Publications:
- Nurcahyo, R., Della, P., Irawan, D.A., & Ronaldy, J. (2018). How organisational culture, transformational leadership, and job characteristics affect Employee engagement at PT XYZ. *Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities*, 26, 1-12. Retrieved from <http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/>
- Obi, T.C., Nwankwo, B.E., Agu, S.A., Aboh, J.U., & Sydney-Agbor, N. (2013). Influence of personality and age on attitude towards crime among adolescents. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 17(1), 80-86.



Ojha, H., & Pramanick, M. (2010). Do personality characteristics change with advancement of age? *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 36(1), 55-68.

Olson, M.H., & Hergenhahn, B.R. (2011). *An introduction to theories of personality*. (8th ed.). United States of America: Pearson.

Ongore, O. (2014). A study of relationship between personality traits and job engagement. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 141, 1315-1319.

Onurlubas, E. (2015). Determining the factors that affect hedonic consumption. *International Periodical for the Languages , Literature and History of Turkish or Turkic*, 10 (15), 681-696. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.7827/TurkishStudies.9071>

Orgambidez-Ramos, A., & de Almeida, H. (2017). Work engagement, social support, and job satisfaction in Portuguese nursing staff: A winning combination. *Applied Nursing Research*, 36, 37-41.

Osmon, D.C., Santos, O., Kazakov, D., Kassel, M.T., Mano, Q.R., & Morth, A. (2018). Big five personality relationships with general intelligence and specific Cattell-Horn-Carroll factors of intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 131, 51-56.

Othman, N., & Nasurdin, A.M. (2011). Work engagement of Malaysian nurses: Exploring the impact of hope and resilience. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, 5 (12), 1990-1994.

Ouweneel, E., Le Blanc, P.M., Schaufeli, W.B., & van Wijhe, C.I. (2012). Good morning, good day: A diary study on positive emotions, hope, and work engagement. *Human Relations*, 65 (9), 1129-1154. DOI:10.1177/0018726711429382

Owen, D.C., Boswell, C., Opton, L., Franco, L., & Meriwether, C. (2018). Engagement, empowerment, and job satisfaction before implementing an academic model of shared governance. *Applied Nursing Research*, 41, 29-35.

Ozturk, A., & Karatepe, O.M. (2019). Frontline hotel employees' psychological capital, trust in organization, and their effects on nonattendance intentions, absenteeism, and creative performance. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 28(2), 217-239. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2018.1509250

Paek, S., Schuckert, M., Kim, T.T., & Lee, G. (2015). Why is hospitality employees' psychological capital important? The effects of psychological capital on work engagement and employee morale. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50, 9-26.

Paz, C., Pucurull, O., & Feixas, G. (2016). Change in symptoms and personal construct structure in anxiety disorders: A preliminary study on the effects of constructivist therapy. *Journal of Constructivist Psychology*, 29(3), 231-247. DOI: 10.1080/10720537.2014.943914

Pena, M., Rey, L., & Extremera, N. (2012). Life satisfaction and engagement in elementary and primary educators: Differences in emotional intelligence and gender. *Revista de Psicodidactica*, 17 (2), 341-358. DOI: 10.1387/Rev.Psicodidact.4496

Peng, J., & Tseng, M. (2019). Antecedent and consequences of nurse engagement. *The Journal of Psychology*, 153 (3), 342-359. DOI:10.1080/00223980.2018.1536639

Pervin, L.A., & Cervone, D. (2010). *Personality: Theory and research* (11th ed.). Asia: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Pinck, A.S., & Sonnentag, S. (2018). Leader mindfulness and employee well-being: The mediating role of transformational leadership. *Mindfulness*, 9, 884-896. DOI:10.1007/s12671-017-0828-5

Pittenger, L.M. (2015). Emotional and social competencies and perceptions of the interpersonal environment of an organization as related to the engagement of IT professionals. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 1-17. DOI: 10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00623

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, R.H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142.

Pourbarkhordari, A., Zhou, E.H.I., & Pourkarimi, J. (2016). How individual-focused transformational leadership enhances its influences on job performance through employee work engagement. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 11(2), 249-261. DOI:10.5539/ijbm.v11n2p249

Prochazka, J., Vaculik, M., Smutny, P., & Jezek, S. (2018). Leader traits, transformational leadership and leader effectiveness: A mediation study from the Czech Republic. *JEEMS*, 23 (3), 474-501. DOI: 10.5771/0949-6181-2018-3-474

Putra, E.D., Cho, S., & Liu, J. (2017). Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on work engagement in the hospitality industry: Test of motivation crowding theory. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 17 (2), 228-241). DOI: 10.1177/1467358415613393

Quick, J.C., & Nelson, D.L. (2009). *Principles of organizational behavior: Realities and challenges* (6th ed.). South-Western: Cengage Learning.

- Rahmani, S., & Lavasani, M.G. (2012). Gender differences in five factor model of personality and sensation seeking. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 2906-2911. DOI: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.587
- Rai, S., & Ajith-Kumar, V.V. (2012). Five factor model of personality & role stress. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 48 (2), 341-353.
- Rajput, N., & Talan, A. (2017). Work engagement as a mediator of big five personality traits and knowledge sharing. *Delhi Business Review*, 18 (2), 45-58.
- Ram, P., & Prabhakar, G.V. (2011). The role of employee engagement in work-related outcomes. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, 1 (3), 47-61.
- Rammstedt, B., Danner, D., & Martin, S. (2016). Brief report: The association between personality and cognitive ability: Going beyond simple effects. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 1-22.
- Rammstedt, B., Lechner, C.M., & Danner, D. (2018). Relationship between personality and cognitive ability: A facet-level analysis. *Journal of Intelligence*, 6 (28), 1-13.
- Rana, S. (2015). High-involvement work practices and employee engagement. *Human Resource Development International*, 18 (3), 308-316.
- Rana, S., Pant, D., & Chopra, P. (2019). Work engagement and individual work performance: Research findings and an agenda for employee relationships. *Journal of Emerging Technologies and Innovative Research*, 6 (5), 17-32.
- Rapp, C., Ingold, K., & Freitag, M. (2019). Personalized networks? how the big five personality traits influence the structure of egocentric networks. *Social Science Research*, 77, 148-160.

- Reale, D., Dingemanse, N.J., Kazem, A.J.N., & Wright, J. (2010). Introduction: Evolutionary and ecological approaches to the study of personality. *Philosophical Transactions: Biological Sciences*, 365 (1560), 3937-3946.
- Rehmani, M., & Khokhar, M.N. (2018). Leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of CSR. *Abasyn Journal of Social Sciences*, 11 (1), 150-163.
- Reissova, A., Simsova, J., & Hasova, K. (2017). Gender differences in employee engagement. *Littera Scripta*, 10 (2), 84-94.
- Rickards, T., & Clark, M. (2006). *Dilemmas of leadership*. United States of America: Routledge.
- Robbins, S.P. (2001). *Organizational behaviour* (9th ed.). United States of America: Prentice Hall International, Inc.
- Roberts, D.R., & Davenport, T.O. (2002). Job Engagement: Why it's important and how to improve it. *Employment relations today*. Retrieved May 2, 2016 from Wiley InterScience ([www.interscience.wiley.com](http://www.interscience.wiley.com)).
- Rodrigues, A., & Ferreira, M.C. (2015). The impact of transactional and transformational leadership style on organizational citizenship behaviors. *Psico-USF, Braganca Paulista*, 20(3), 493-504.
- Rogers, M.E., & Glendon, A.I. (2018). Development and initial validation of the five-factor model adolescent personality questionnaire (FFM-APQ). *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 100 (3), 292-304. DOI:10.1080/00223891.2017.1303776
- Romero, E., Villar, P., & Lopez-Romero, L. (2015). Assessing six factors in Spain: Validation of the HEXACO-100 in relation to the five factor model and other conceptually relevant criteria. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 76, 75-81.

- Rosen, L.H., Underwood, M.K., Gentsch, J.K., Rahdah, A., & Wharton, M.E. (2012). Emerging adults' recollections of peer victimization experiences during middle school. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 33*, 273-281.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Ross, A., Khajehnezhad, M., Otieno, W., & Aydas, O. (2017). Integrated Location-inventory modelling under forward and reverse product flows in the used merchandise retail sector: A multi-echelon formulation. *European Journal of Operational Research, 259*, 664-676.
- Rothmann, S., & Joubert, J.H.M. (2007). Job demands, job resources, burnout and work engagement of managers at a platinum mine in the North West Province. *South African Journal of Business Management, 38* (3), 49-61.
- Rothmann, S., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Factors associated with employee engagement in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 36* (2), 1-12. DOI: 10.4102/sajip.v36i2.925
- Rothmann, S., & Storm, K. (2003). A psychometric analysis of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale in the South African Police Service. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 29* (4), 62-70.
- Rua, S.M.H., Stead, G.B., & Poklar, A.E. (2018). Five-factor personality traits and RIASEC interest types: A multivariate meta-analysis. *Journal of Career Assessment, 1-17*. DOI: 10.1177/1069072718780447
- Rudin, F.S., Tomkins, J.L., & Simmons, L.W. (2018). The effects of the social environment and physical disturbance on personality traits. *Animal Behaviour, 138*, 109-121.

- Sadler, P. (2003). *Leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). United States of America: Kogan Page Limited.
- Sahraee, R., & Abdullah, H.B. (2018). Employees' personality preferences and their impact on the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment. *Pertanika Journal of Social Science & Humanities*, 26 (3), 1925-1939.
- Saks, A.M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21 (7), 600-619. DOI: 10.1108/02683940610690169
- Salanova, M., Lorente, L., Chambel, M.J., & Martinez, I.M. (2011). Linking transformational leadership to nurses's extra-role performance: the mediating role of self-efficacy and work engagement. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 67 (10), 2256-2266.
- Salau, O., Oludayo, O., Falola, H., Olokundun, M., Ibidunni, S., & Atolagbe, T. (2018). Integrated datasets on transformational leadership attributes and employee engagement: The moderating role of job satisfaction in the Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) Industry. *Journal of Data in Brief*, 19, 2329-2335.
- Santens, E., Claes, L., Dierckx, E., Luyckx, K., Peuskens, H., & Dom, G. (2018). Personality profiles in substance use disorders: Do they differ in clinical symptomatology, personality disorders and coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 131, 61-66.
- Saunders, L., & Tiwari, D. (2014). Employee engagement and disengagement: Causes and benefits. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 2 (5), 44-52.
- Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. (2003). Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. *Occupational Health Psychology Unit*, 1, 3-58.

Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2007). Work engagement: An emerging psychological concept and its implications for organizations. *Managing Social and Ethical Issues in Organizations*, 135-177.

Schaufeli, W.B. (2017). Applying the job demands-resources model: A 'how to' guide to measuring and tackling work engagement and burnout. *Organizational Dynamics*, 46, 120-132.

Schaufeli, W.B., & Bakker, A.B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 293-315. DOI: 10.1002/job.248

Schaufeli, W.B., Bakker, A.B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire: A cross-national study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66 (4), 701-716.

Schaufeli, W.B., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V., & Bakker, A.B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3, 71-92.

Schedlitzki, D., & Edwards, G. (2014). *Studying leadership: Traditional & critical approaches*. London: SAGE Publications.

Schellong, M., Kraiczy, N.D., Malar, L., & Hack, A. (2018). Family firm brands, perceptions of doing good, and consumer happiness. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 1-26. DOI: 10.1177/1042258717754202

Schmitt, D.P., Long, A.E., McPhearson, A., O'Brien, K., Remmert, B., & Shah, S.H. (2017). Personality and gender differences in global perspective. *International Journal of Psychology*, 52 (S1) 45-56. DOI: 10.1002/ijop.12265



Schultz D.P., & Schultz, S.E. (2009). *Theories of personality*. United States of America: Wadsworth , Cengage Learning.

Schultz, D.P., & Schultz, S.E. (2013). *Theories of personality*. Asia: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Schultz, D.P., & Schultz, S.E. (2017). *Theories of personality*. USA: Cengage Learning.

Schultz, M.T., & Smith, E.R. (2016). Assessing the resilience of coastal Systems: A probabilistic approach. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 32 (5), 1032-1050.DOI: 10.2112/JCOASTRES-D-15-00170.1

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2009). *Research methods for business; A skill-building approach* (5th ed.). United Kingdom: A John Wiley and Sons, Ltd publication.

Selander, K. (2015). Work engagement in the third sector. *Voluntas*, 26, 1391–1411. DOI: 10.1007/s11266-014-9465-y

Selvam, S.G. (2019). “Moulding his human personality”. Personality change and formation to Priesthood in the Catholic Church. *Journal of Spiritual Formation and Soul Care*, 1-14. DOI: 10.1177/1939790919827269

Seppala, P., Mauno, S., Feldt, T., Hakanen, J., Kinnunen, U., Tolvanen, A., & Schaufeli, W. (2009). The construct validity of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale: Multisample and longitudinal evidence. *Journal of Happiness Study*, 10, 159-48.

Sharpe, J.P., Martin, N.R., & Roth, K.A. (2011). Optimism and the big five factors of personality: Beyond neuroticism and extraversion. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51, 946-951.

- Shatalebi, B., & Yarmohammadian, M.H. (2011). Value based leadership paradigm. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 3703-3707.
- Shaughnessy, J.J., Zechmeister, E.B., & Zechmeister J.S. (2015). *Research methods in psychology* (10th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Sheldon, K.M., Kashdan, T.B., & Steger, M. F. (2011). *Designing positive psychology: Taking stock and moving forward*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Shimazu, A., Schaufeli, W.B., Kosugi, S., Suzuki, A., Nashiwa, H., Kato, A., Sakamoto, M., Irimajiri, H., Amano, S., & Hirohata, K., & Goto, R. (2008). Work engagement in Japan: Validation of the Japanese version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(3), 510-523.
- Shu, C. (2015). The impact of intrinsic motivation on the effectiveness of leadership style towards work engagement. *Contemporary Management Research*, 11 (4), 327-350.
- Shuck, B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement and HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review*, 9 (1), 89-110.
- Silvera, D.H., Lavack, A.M., & Kropp, F. (2008). Impulse buying: the role of effect, social influence, and subjective wellbeing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 25 (1), 23-33. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363760810845381>
- Simic, J., & Ristic, M.R. (2017). The relationship between personality traits and managers' leadership styles. *European Journal of Social Sciences, Education and Research*, 11 (2), 195-200.
- Simons, J.C., & Buitendach, J.H. (2013). Psychological capital, work engagement and organisational commitment amongst call Centre employees in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39 (2), 1-12.

Singhal, N., Bala, K., & Sarawgi, S. (2018). An empirical study of employee engagement and customer satisfaction in banking sector. *Journal of Business Thought*, 8, 83-103.

Smith, M.M., Sherry, S.B., Vidovic, V., Saklofske, D.H., Stoeber, J., & Benoit, A. (2018). Perfectionism and the five- factor model of personality: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 1-24. DOI: 10.1177/1088868318814973

Smith, S.A., Patmos, A., & Pitts, M.J. (2018). Communication and teleworking: A study of communication channel, satisfaction, personality and job satisfaction for teleworking employees. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 55 (1), 44-68.DOI: 10.1177/2329488415589101

Sohrabizadeh, S., & Sayfour, N. (2014). Antecedents and consequences of work engagement among nurses. *Iran Red Crescent Medical Journal*, 16 (11), 1-8. DOI: 10.5812/ircmj.16351

Staats, B. (2015). The adaptable emphasis leadership model: A more full-range of leadership. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 2 (2), 12-26.

Stajkovic, A.D., Bandura, A., Locke, E.A., Lee, D., & Sergent, K. (2018). Test of three conceptual models of influence of the big five personality traits and self-efficacy on academic performance: A meta-analytic path-analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 120, 238-245.

Stander, M.W., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36 (1), 1-8.

- Stankov, L. (2018). Low correlations between intelligence and big five personality traits: Need to broaden the domain of personality. *Journal of Intelligence*, 6 (26), 1-12. DOI:10.3390/jintelligence6020026
- Stojnov, D., & Pavlovic, J. (2010). An invitation to personal construct coaching: From personal construct therapy to personal construct coaching. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 5 (2), 129-139.
- Strauser, D.R., O'Sullivan, D., & Wong, A.W.K. (2012). Work personality, work engagement, and academic effort in a group of college students. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 49, 50-61.
- Strober, L.B. (2017). Personality in multiple sclerosis (MS): impact on health, psychological well-being, coping and overall quality of life. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, 22 (2), 152-161. DOI:10.1080/13548506.2016.1164321
- Sultana, S., & Jabeen, S. (2018). Bridging the relationship of transformational leadership and turnover intentions with mediating effect of employee engagement. *In Traders International Trade Academic Journal*, 1 (1), 1-22.
- Swartz, L., de la Rey, C., Duncan, N., Townsend, L., & O' Neill, V. (2016). *Psychology: An introduction* (4th ed.). South Africa: Oxford University Press.
- Tafarodi, R.W., & Swann Jr, W.B. (2001). Two-dimensional self-esteem; Theory and measurement. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 31, 653-673.
- Taiwan, A., Nan-Nan, K., & Ngudgratoke, S. (2017). Relationship among personality, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, expatriate adjustment, and expatriate performance. *International Journal of Business and Administrative Studies*, 3 (4), 120-133.

- Tanskanen, J., Taipale, S., & Anttila, T. (2016). Revealing hidden curvilinear relations between work engagement and its predictors: Demonstrating the added value of Generalized Additive Model (GAM). *Journal of Happiness Study*, 17, 367–387. DOI: 10.1007/s10902-014-9599-z
- Taris, T.W., Ybema, J.F., & van Beek, I. (2017). Burnout and engagement: Identical twins or just close relatives? *Burnout Research*, 5, 3-11.
- Taylor, A.M. (2012). *Cultivating an engaged workforce: The roles of leader personality, motivation, and leadership style*. Graduate theses and dissertations (Doctora Thesis). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/4237>
- Thomas, E.R., & Tankha, G. (2017). Big five personality and psychological capital among final year medical students. *International Journal of Advanced Research*, 5 (1), 1121-1126. DOI: 10.21474/IJAR01/2861
- Tims, M., Bakker, A.B., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2011). Do transformational leaders enhance their followers' daily work engagement? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 121-131.
- Tran, K. (2018, September 03). The HEXACO model of personality and why It matters. Retrieved from TRG International: <https://blog.trginternational.com/a-general-look-at-the-hexaco-personality-model>.
- Tsaur, S., Luoh, H., & Syue, S. (2015). Positive emotions and behavioral intentions of customers in full-service restaurants: Does aesthetic labor matter? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 51, 115-126.

Tshilongamulenzhe, M.C., & Takawira, N. (2015). Examining the gender influence on employees's work engagement within a South African University. *Risk Governance & Control: Financial Markets & Institutions*, 5 (2), 110-119.

Turban, D.B., Moake, T.R., Wu, S.Y., & Cheung, Y.H. (2017). Linking extroversion and proactive personality to career success: The role of mentoring received and knowledge. *Journal of Career Development*, 44 (1), 20-33.

Tyagi, V., Hanoach, Y., Choma, B., & Denham, S.L. (2018). The right side of creativity: Creative personality and social risk-taking predict political party affiliation. *Creativity Research Journal*, 30 (4), 451-460. DOI: 10.1080/10400419.2018.1540252

Uher, J. (2017). Basic definitions in personality psychology: Challenges for conceptual integrations. *European Journal of Personality*, 31, 529-595. DOI: 10.1002/per

Urban, B., & Govender, T. (2017). Cultivating an entrepreneurial mind-set through transformational leadership: A focus on the corporate context. *Managing Global Transitions*, 15 (2), 123-143.

Vallièrès, F., McAuliffeb, E., Hyland, P., Galligan, M., & Ghee, A. (2017). Measuring work engagement among community health workers in Sierra Leone: Validating the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 33, 41–46.

Van Ornum, W., Dunlap, L.L., & Shore, M.F. (2008). *Psychological testing across the life span*. United States of America: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Van Steenbergen, E.F., van der Ven, C., Peeters, M.C.W., & Taris, T.W. (2018). Transitioning towards new ways of working: Do job demands, job resources, burnout, and engagement change?. *Psychological Reports*, 121 (4), 736-766. DOI: 10.1177/0033294117740134

Van Zyl, E. (2016). *Leadership in the African context* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cape Town: Juta and Company (PTY) LTD.

Van Zyl, L.E., Deacon, E., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Towards happiness: Experiences of work-role fit, meaningfulness and work engagement of industrial/ organizational psychologists in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36 (1), 1-10. DOI: 10.4102/sajip.v36i1.890

Vera, M., Martinez, I.M., Lorente, L., & Chambel, M.J. (2016). The role of co-worker and supervisor support in the relationship between job autonomy and work engagement among Portuguese nurses: A multilevel study. *Social Indicators Research*, 126, 1143-1156. DOI:10.1007/s11205-015-0931-8

Vianello, M., Schnabel, K., Sriram, N., & Nosek, B. (2013). Gender differences in implicit and explicit personality traits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 55, 994-999.

Vieira, V.A., Perin, M.G., & Sampaio, C.H. (2018). The moderating effect of managers' leadership behavior on salespeople's self-efficacy. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 40, 150-162.

Wagner, C., Kawulich, B.B., & Garner, M. (2012). *Doing social research, a global context*. London: McGraw-Hill Higher Education

Walker, I. (2010). *Research methods and statistics*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Walliman, N. (2001). *Your research project; a step-by-step guide for the first-time researcher*. London: SAGE Publications.

Walliman, N. (2005). *Your research project* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Welman, C., Kruger, F., & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology* (3rd ed.). Southern Africa: Oxford University Press.

Wan, W., & Hu, X. (2017). A review of literature on psychological capital. *International Conference on Economics and Management Engineering*, 232-237.

Wang, J., Chang, C., Yao, S., & Liang, C. (2016). The contribution of self-efficacy to the relationship between personality traits and entrepreneurial intention. *High Education*, 72, 209-224. DOI: 10.1007/s10734-015-9946-y

Wang, Y., Ang, C., Jiang, Z., & Wu, C. (2019). The role of trait extraversion in shaping proactive behaviour. A multilevel examination of the impact of high-activated positive affect. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 136, 107-112.

Wang, Y., Tsai, C., Tsai, F., Huang, W., & de la Cruz, S. M. (2018). Antecedent and consequences of psychological capital of entrepreneurs. *Sustainability*, 10, 1-18. DOI:10.3390/su10103717

Wang, Z., Li, C., & Li, X. (2017). Resilience, leadership and work engagement: The mediating role of positive affect. *Social Indicators Research*, 132, 699-708. DOI: 10.1007/s11205-016-1306-5

Wang, Z., Zhang, J., Thomas, C.L., Yu, J., & Spitzmueller, C. (2017). Explaining benefits of employee proactive personality: The role of engagement, team proactivity composition and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 101, 90-103.

Wayne Hill, E. (1992). A theological perspective on social exchange theory. *Journal of Religion and Health*, 31 (2), 1-9.

Weber, C., Johnson, M., & Arceneaux, K. (2011). Genetics, personality and group identity. *Social Sciences Quarterly*, 92 (5), 1314-1337.



- Weber, M.R., & Dennison, D. (2014). An exploratory study into the relationship between personality and student leadership. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education*, 26 (2), 55-64. DOI: 10.1080/10963758.2014.900374
- Weiers, R.M., Gray, J.B., & Peters, L.H. (2008). *Introduction to business statistics* (6th ed.). Canada: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Whaite, E.O., Shensa, A., Sidani, J.E., Colditz, J.B., & Primack, B.A. (2018). Social media use, personality characteristics, and social isolation among young adults in the United States. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 124, 45-50.
- White, B.A.A., Pearson, K., Bledsoe, C., & Hendricks, R. (2017). Transformational leadership: The nexus between faith and classroom leadership. *Christian Higher Education*, 16 (5), 276-284. DOI: 10.1080/15363759.2017.1288589
- White, S.L., Wagner, T., Gowan, C., & Braithwaite, V.A. (2017). Can personality predict individual differences in brook trout spatial learning ability? *Behavioral Processes*, 141, 220-228.
- Williamson, J.C., & Geldenhuys, M. (2014). Positive work experiences and life satisfaction: The moderating role of gender. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 24 (4), 315-320. DOI: 10.1080/14330237.2014.980619
- Woods, S.A., & Sofat, J.A. (2013). Personality and engagement at work: the mediating role of psychological meaningfulness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43, 2203-2210.
- Woods, S.A., & West, M.A. (2010). *The psychology of work and organizations*. Australia: South-Western Cengage learning.

- Wrzus, C., & Roberts, B.W. (2017). Processes of personality development in Adulthood: The TESSERA framework. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 21 (3), 253-277. DOI: 10.1177/1088868316652279
- Wu, C., & Chen, T. (2018). Collective psychological capital: Linking shared; leadership, organizational commitment, and creativity. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 74, 75-84.
- Yang, P., & Yang, C. (2019). Importance of personality and career stress for flight attendants' career satisfaction. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 47 (1), 1-13.
- Yarkoni, T. (2010). Personality in 100,000 Words: A large-Scale analysis of personality and word use among bloggers. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 44, 363-373.
- Yildiz, E. (2017). The effect of the psychological capital and personality characteristics of employees on their organizational commitment and contribution to the work: A qualitative research on managers. *Journal of Management and Strategy*, 8 (4), 34-46. DOI:10.5430/jms.v8n4p34
- Yim, H., Seo, H., Cho, Y., & Kim, J. (2017). Mediating role of psychological capital in relationship between occupational stress and turnover intention among nurses at veterans administration hospitals in Korea. *Asian Nursing Research*, 11, 6-12.
- Yoon, H.J., Bailey, N., Amundson, N., & Niles, S. (2019). The effect of a career development programme based on the hope-action theory: Hope to work for refugees in British Columbia. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 47 (1), 6-19. DOI:10.1080/03069885.2018.1544827
- Yotsidi, V., Pagoulatou, A., Kyriazos, T., & Stalikas, A. (2018). The role of hope in academic and work environments: An integrative literature review. *Psychology*, 9, 385-402. DOI: 10.4236/psych.2018.93024

- Youshan, B.B., & Hassan, Z. (2015). The effect of employees personality on organizational performance: Study on insurance company. *International Journal of Accounting & Business Management*, 3 (1), 187-196.
- Youssef-Morgan, C., & Luthans, F. (2015). Psychological capital and well-being. *Stress and Health*, 31, 180-188.
- Zaidi, N.R., Wajid, R.A., Zaidi, F.B., Zaidi, G.B., & Zaidi, M.T. (2013). The big five personality traits and their relationship with work engagement among public sector university teachers of Lahore. *African Journal of Business Management*, 7 (15), 1344-1353. DOI: 10.5897/AJBM12.290
- Zakaria, Z., Idris, K., Samah, B.A., & Abiddin, N.Z. (2018). Understanding the dimension of job resources, personal resources and transformational leadership in boosting work engagement level among employees in public sector. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8 (10), 1035-1051.
- Zaki, M., Theodoulidis, B., Shapira, P., Neely, A., & Tepel, M.F. (2019). Redistributed manufacturing and the impact of big data: A consumer goods perspective. *Production Planning & Control*, 30 (7), 568-581. DOI:10.1080/09537287.2018.1540068
- Zehndorfer, E. (2014). *Leadership: A critical introduction*. New York: Routledge Publication.
- Zhang, L., Cao, T., & Wang, Y. (2018). The mediation role of leadership styles in integrated project collaboration: An emotional intelligence perspective. *International Journal of Project Management*, 36, 317-330.
- Zheng, X., Wang, Y., & Xu, L. (2016). Internet altruistic behavior and subjective well-being: Self-efficacy as a mediator. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 44 (9), 1575-1584.

Zhu, W., Avolio, B.J., & Walumbwa, F.O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. *Group & Organization Management*, 1-33.