THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS ON FOLLOWERS' PERCEPTIONS AND REACTION TO CHANGE IN A MALTESE PUBLIC SERVICE ORGANISATION

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Abstract

Organisational change consists of organisational actions aimed at changing organisational aspects such as culture, processes, delivery of service and so on. Such change can be incremental, aimed at fine tuning certain aspects of an organisation, or transformative, consisting of attempts to revolutionise one or more parts. Successful change, whether incremental or transformative, is critical for organisations to renew themselves and remain valid. Yet, many change initiatives fail. As a result, a lot of work has been done in the field of organisational change to understand what contributes to change success or failure. Change leadership was one of the areas that attracted most interest, yet most work has been leader centric, focusing on the positive aspects of leadership. However, researchers are increasingly focusing on the dark side of leadership to try and understand the effects on organisational change when leaders behave badly. This study aims to address some of this imbalance.

This research studies the influence of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change. It also looks at the mechanisms through which these two differing leadership behaviours exert such influence and explores the relationship between voice and affective commitment to change. To do so, the study uses a cross-sectional approach and collects data from two independent samples, followers and leaders of a Maltese public service organisation that experienced change. Transformational leadership behaviours were found to be positively related to affective commitment to change, whilst destructive leadership behaviours were found to relate negatively to affective commitment to change. Also, readiness for change was found to mediate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. Evidence of partial mediation was also found for resistance to change in the negative relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. A positive relationship between promotive voice and affective commitment to change was also found, though prohibitive voice was not found to be a significant predictor of affective commitment to change. As such, this study delivers several important findings with implications for both organisational change and change leadership literature.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning	Page
TLI	Transformational Leadership Behaviours Scale	101, 102, 104, 123, 124
DL	Destructive Leadership Behaviours Scale	101, 105, 107, 108, 123, 125
PS	Participation	101, 104, 107, 108
RC	Follower Rated Readiness for Change	123, 124
FAC	Follower Rated Affective Commitment to Change	101, 102, 104, 105, 107, 110, 111, 112, 113, 123, 124, 125
PER	Positive Emotional Response	101, 102, 104
NER	Negative Emotional Response	101, 105, 107, 108
PIR	Positive Intentional Response	101, 102, 104
NIR	Negative Intentional Response	101, 105, 107, 108
CR	Cognitive Response	101
RTC	Resistance to Change	123, 125
LRTC	Leader Rated Resistance to Change	129
LRC	Leader Rated Readiness for Change	129
PR	Promotive Voice	129
PRV	Prohibitive Voice	129
LAC	Leader Rated Affective Commitment to Change	129
IIN	Idealized Influence	110
INM	Inspirational Motivation	111
INS	Intellectual Stimulation	112
INC	Individualised Consideration	113

Statement of Copyright

Declaration of Authenticity

“I hereby declare that I am the legitimate author of this Thesis and that it is my original work. No portion of this work has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or institution of higher education. I hold the University of Durham harmless against any third party claims with regard to copyright violation, breach of confidentiality, defamation and any other third party right infringement.”

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Dedication

To Nanna Nina and Nannu Karm, my dearest grandparents who raised me up to be the person that I am today; their love was immeasurable. I am sure they would have been very proud to see the completion of this research.

1 Introduction

Much work has been done in the fields of organisational change and change leadership. However, most of the work carried out is considered to be leader centric, focusing on the personal qualities of effective leaders from the point of view of the leaders themselves and the positive effects that these leaders have on their followers to bring about effective change (Bass, 1990; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Shamir and Howell, 1999). In fact, Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich (1985) observe that in emphasising the heroic role of leaders, researchers may have developed a highly romanticized view of leadership. However, Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007) argue that researchers (Erickson, Shaw, Murray and Branch, 2015; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Tepper, 2007; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu and Hua, 2009; Trepanier, Boudrias and Peterson, 2019) are increasingly focusing on the dark side of leadership when an organisation is implementing change. These researchers consider destructive leadership to be more widespread than initially understood and that this kind of leadership tends to manifest itself more when an organisation is undergoing change (Neves and Schyns, 2018; Padilla et al., 2007; Thoroughgood, Sawyer, Padilla, and Lunsford, 2018). According to Padilla et al. (2007), change brings instability whilst reducing the checks and balances in an organisation, giving leaders the opportunity to increase their power and control.

Also, the areas of leadership and organisational change within the context of a public service organisation operating in a small nation state, Malta, has been rather neglected. Although several scholars did research Maltese public service organisations in the past, such studies focused on different areas such as the violation of the psychological contract (Cassar, 2001), performance management (Thake, 2003), the challenge of administering a Maltese public service organisation (Cassar and Bezzina, 2005), developing organizational commitment (Camilleri, 2006), the effect of antecedents on public service motivation (Camilleri, 2007), organisational performance (Bezzina, Borg and Cassar, 2017), the role and impact of executive coaching (Borg Ellul and

Wand, 2020), and coaching for managerial and leadership effectiveness (Borg Ellul, 2022). This is rather surprising when one considers the pivotal role that leadership plays in a Maltese public service organisation, most notably, when the latter is undergoing change. As such, there is the need of a more recent and integrated research that looks at these important field of studies in the context of a Maltese public service organisation that is undergoing change.

1.1 Purpose and Scope of the Research

The aim of this research is to understand the influence of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to change management in a Maltese public service organisation. To this effect, this research takes a systematic look at the available literature in the fields of organisational change, change leadership and followers' resistance and commitment to change. In this regard, this research constructs first-hand knowledge regarding what has been determined and what is still undetermined regarding the influence of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' promotive and prohibitive voice, readiness, resistance, and affective commitment to change in a Maltese public service organisation. However, such a goal is too generic, as such it will help to be more specific about the specific goals that this research aims to reach.

The first goal of this research's Study 1 and Study 2 is to understand how transformational leadership behaviours influence followers' affective commitment to organisational change. Study 1 will be looking at this in relation to organisations that went through change in the United Kingdom, whilst Study 2 will do this within the context of a Maltese public service organisation that underwent a change process. In Study 1, data will be collected solely from persons in a followership position, whilst in Study 2 data will be collected from two separate samples, one made up of leaders and the other consisting of followers. The matching of leader and follower samples, although intended for the study, was ultimately not possible due to practical restrictions of data collection with the participating organisation. There is a whole debate

regarding the extent to which transformational leadership behaviours are effective in influencing followers to forgo their personal interest for the benefit of the organisation. However, most research conducted up until now focused on leaders' view, as such the information available might not give a complete picture of the situation. Both Study 1 and Study 2 aim to obtain information on the effects of leaders' transformational behaviours from followers, the first located in several organisations in the United Kingdom, whilst the latter from followers working in a Maltese public service organisation, aiming to reduce this imbalance.

The second goal relates to destructive leadership. It is proposed that destructive leadership behaviours are prevalent, especially when an organisation is undertaking change, and that it effects followers' affective commitment to change negatively, leading to organisation decline. As such, both Study 1 and Study 2 will move away from the customary leader-centric approach to research on leadership that focuses on the positive contributions of leaders and asks followers whether their leaders do act destructively when their organisation is undertaking change and, if in the affirmative, what would the effects be on their affective commitment to organisational change.

Following from the above two goals, the third goal, to be addressed only through Study 2, would be that of establishing the extent to which readiness for change and resistance to change mediate the respective relationships between a Maltese public service organisation's leaders exhibiting transformational behaviours and those showing destructive behaviours and their followers' affective commitment to change.

The fourth and last goal, also to be tested only in Study 2, is to look, from leaders point of view, at the relationship between their followers' voice on the latter's affective commitment to change when a Maltese public service organisation is undergoing change. It will be argued that when followers' voice is allowed or even promoted by change leaders, followers will be more committed to organisational change. However, when leaders look at followers' voice negatively, followers will be less committed to the change.

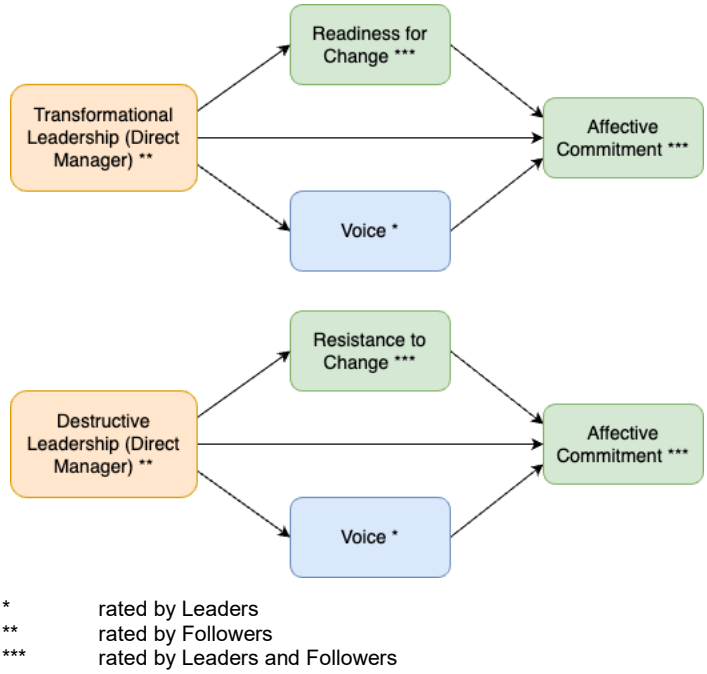

Figure 1-1 : Research Model

1.2 The Significance of this Research

Research of the effects of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to organisational change is important for both change leaders and the Maltese public service organisation being studied. First, ensuring successful organisational change is essential for the very survival of an organisation, this is more so when the organisation is operating within a highly competitive environment that is constantly changing (Armenakis and Harris, 2009; Bharijoo, 2005; Burnes, 2010; Kotter, 2012). Second, as this research will be looking at the influence of transformational leadership behaviours from a followership perspective, it will be adding another dimension to the literature on the influences of transformational leadership behaviours, when a Maltese public service organisation is undergoing change. Also, this dissertation will be looking at the area of destructive leadership and tries to understand how this is perceived by followers and how they react to it during times of organisational change. Moreover, and different to previous studies, this research looks, from a followership point of view, at the influences of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to

change through the respective mechanisms of readiness for change and resistance to change, highlighting which leadership behaviour qualities should be pursued and promoted and those that should be discouraged or outrightly condoned. Separately, the research will also look, from a leadership perspective, at the direct effects of the latter's teams' readiness for change, resistance to change and voice on affective commitment to change.

1.3 Research Question

Blaikie (2007) argues that research questions provide the foundations of all research; they make a research problem researchable and essentially, they fall under one of three categories: 'what' questions, 'why' questions and 'how' questions. He further contends that it is not necessary for every research project to address every type of question as this depends on the nature of the research problem and the existing knowledge in its regard (Blaikie, 2007). To research the consequences of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to organisational change, the main research question would be; what are the effects of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to change in a Maltese public service organisation?

To answer this question, a few sub-questions have been developed. What is the relationship between these two differing leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change? Why do followers react in the way they do when faced with these two opposing leadership behaviours? What are the effects of readiness for change on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change? What are the effects of resistance to change on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change? How do leaders perceive their teams' voice (promotive and prohibitive) relationship with the latter's affective commitment to change?

1.4 Transformational Change in a Maltese Public Service Organisation

In 2013, Malta experienced a change in government. One of the first moves by the newly elected administration was to start the transformational reform of a Maltese public service organisation's culture. This organisation has been set up since the 1920s, therefore quite mature with a deeply embedded culture and systems. This transformational reform was introduced through several small changes between 2013 and 2021, specifically focusing on the reduction of bureaucracy and will provide the context of this research. Essentially, this wave of change entailed "a change in culture by which a decision is delegated bottom-up instead of the contrary" (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021, p. 10). To this effect, any unnecessary rules and procedures were removed to ensure timely results. Also, internal reforms consisting of a process of decentralisation were undertaken. Senior leaders were delegated the powers to prepare and manage the recruitment process in their respective departments and to prepare three-years' financial and human resources plans to be revised on a yearly basis (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021). Essentially, these changes were aimed to shorten the time of the recruitment process and reduce red tape whilst strengthening the effectiveness of the public service organisation and its financial management (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021).

This phase also emphasised the importance of quality and accessible public services on a 24x7 basis. As such, a client-centred culture started to be instilled, focusing specifically on clients and their needs (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021). This change entailed "strong investment in technology, which had now started to be regarded as key to many of the changes required" (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021, p. 17). Moreover, new permanent structures have been set up, such as a dedicated website, reorganisation and setting up of new departments and the introduction, for the first-time, of measures to ensure quality of service (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021).

The new website was officially inaugurated in December 2015, bringing ‘together a wide range of government services which are delivered on a one-stop shop basis (Polidano, 2022, p. 35). A freephone service was revived and strengthened whilst emphasis was made on the delivery of services through smartphone apps and the establishment of service delivery hubs in various localities (Polidano, 2022). Structural changes followed. A department was set up in 2016 with the specific aim to focus on the change process and its requirements. Training to organisational members was intensified as was research and development with the aim of enhancing the quality of public officers (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021). Also, a separate department was established in October 2016 to start looking at public officers as the fulcrum of the public service, combining people management with the protection of quality of service (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021).

Additionally, quality of service started to be measured and managed. In this regard, quality of service came to depend on four pillars namely, voice in terms of listening to clients and public officers when they criticize or when they offer ideas for improvement; design of policies and processes to match the requirements of customers; the package aimed at providing a timely and satisfactory service; and accountability through the provision of authentic service and by providing clients with a clear account of the work undertaken by the public service organisation (Office of the Principal Permanent Secretary, 2021). Essentially, these changes were aimed at transforming the Maltese public service organisation (Polidano, 2022).

Driving through this transformational change was the responsibility of the Maltese public service organisation leaders across the different strata. Every direct supervisor/manager within the specific departments was specifically responsible to provide daily coaching and mentoring to their immediate followers. The ultimate purpose of these leaders was to align and implement the changes required in all the above-mentioned areas. This was not an easy endeavour as it required all team members to let go of the status quo, up their

game and embrace the new way in which the Maltese public service organisation started conducting its operations, which was quite different to what was going on before. The renewal of this Maltese public service organisation constituted of a core change and a fundamental one for the organisation's success. To succeed, a lot of onus was put on the leaders as they were the ones responsible to lead their followers to embrace a different reality embodied in a performance-driven and customer-centric organisation.

Considering the above, this research will examine the behaviours shown by the leaders of this Maltese public service organisation and how these behaviours affected their followers' affective commitment to the change. The following chapter discusses the undertaking of change in an organisation's culture, the role of leadership during change, affective commitment to change, readiness for change, resistance to change and voice.

2 A Review of The Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter starts by looking at the factors at play when organisations undertake change in their culture. This is then followed by a discussion on the importance and role of leadership behaviours within an organisational change context and how these affect followers' affective commitment to change. This chapter also looks at the role that participation, voice, resistance and readiness for change play in such a context.

2.2 Undertaking Change in an Organisation's Culture

An organisation's culture can change in several ways, and the type of change experienced depends a lot on the stage the organisation is in. Actually, Schein (2004, p. 292) argues that "at different stages in the evolution of a given organisation different possibilities for culture change arise, because of the particular function that culture plays at each developmental stage". In the case of a mature organisation, "if an organisation has had a long history of success based on certain assumptions about itself and the environment, it is unlikely to want to challenge or re-examine those assumptions" (Schein, 2004, p. 312). Therefore, any attempts to introduce change to a mature organisation's culture are bound to be highly resisted, in favour of the status quo. In such a scenario, "the basic choices are between more rapid transformation of parts of the culture to permit the organisation to become adaptive once again through some kind of "turnaround", or destruction of the organisation" (Schein, 2004, p. 314).

Undertaking a cultural change by means of a transformation involves the use of multiple mechanisms fashioned into a single planned change programme by a strong leader or leadership team and will involve all organisation members to ensure that everyone is aware of the dysfunctional elements of

the old culture (Schein, 2004). This is then followed by the development of new assumptions. The latter is a “process of cognitive redefinition through teaching, coaching, changing the structure and processes where necessary, consistently paying attention to, and rewarding evidence of learning new ways, creating new slogans, stories, myths, and rituals, and in other ways coercing people into at least adopting new behaviours” (Schein, 2004, p. 314). When implementing such a transformation, the organisation’s leadership needs to ensure that this is accompanied by long-term organisation development programmes to entrench and help members learn the new assumptions (Schein, 2004). Ensuring this in a mature organisation is quite difficult “because all of the organisation structures and processes have to be rethought and, perhaps, rebuilt” (Schein, 2004, p. 315).

The fundamental assumptions that form the basis of any change in an organisation are based on Kurt Lewin’s Three-Step Model of Change. This model holds that “a successful change includes…three aspects: unfreezing (if necessary) the present level…, moving to the new level… and [re]freezing group life on the new level” (Lewin, 1947, p. 229). Still, it must be reiterated that all organisations try to remain steady whilst maximising their independence in comparison to the environment within which they operate. As stated by Schein (2004, p. 320), “coping, growth, and survival all involve maintaining the integrity of the system in the face of a changing environment that is constantly causing varying degrees of disequilibrium”. Yet, this is not always possible as organisations do not exist in a vacuum but are constantly affected by the environment within which they operate. As such, to survive organisations must change, yet this is not easy.

In fact, studies suggest that the undertaking of change is influenced by both an organisation’s environment and its structural characteristics. Specifically in relation to change in public organisations, Fernandez, and Rainey (2006) and Burnes (2009) claim that public organisations are affected by the latter’s diverse, political environments. Public organizations operate in quite a complex environment, characterized by numerous stakeholders, ambiguous

and often conflicting objectives, a high level of scrutiny and external political influences on decision-making processes (Van der Voet, 2016). According to Duncan (1972), an organisation's environmental complexity relates to the wide variety of factors that an organisation relies on and the extent to which these factors differ from each other. "Environmental complexity is expected to be negatively related to planned process of change" (Van der Voet, 2016, p. 847).

Also, Van der Voet (2016) and Van der Voet, Kuipers and Groeneveld (2016) argue that change in public organisations is affected by the bureaucratic organisational structures that characterise the latter. Bureaucracies are defined by high degrees of formalisation (Mintzberg, 1979), having "elaborate rules, regulations and policies, hierarchical distribution of authority, status and rewards, functional and hierarchical division of labour, clearly specified performance measurement systems, centralized decision making, and primarily vertical communication patterns" (Shamir and Howell, 1999, p. 269).

Essentially such organisations rely on compliance-contingent inducements to "curb self-interests through formalized monitoring and exchange mechanisms" (Pawar and Eastman, 1997, p. 96). Consequently, because of these bureaucratic features, public organisations might be less receptive to attempts at transformative organisational change namely through inertial forces that have been developed along the way (Pawar and Eastman, 1997). Thus, and as emphasised by Armenakis and Harris (2009), undertaking organisational change in such complex situations is quite a daunting task, as shown by the high rate of failure that is experienced by organisations across the board, and this calls for effective leadership. Indeed, scholars such as Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, and Liu (2008) and Higgs and Rowland, (2005; 2010; 2011) claim that leaders play a central role in the process of organisational change. Specifically, Higgs and Rowland (2011, p. 311) state that "the beliefs and mind-sets of leaders have been shown to influence their orientation of choices and approaches to problem solving". The following section will be expanding on this and discusses the role of leadership within change contexts.

2.3 Leadership during Change

“Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2013, p. 23). Within the context of organisational change, Lippit, Watson and Westley (1958) assert that one of the biggest responsibilities of organisational leaders is to lead their organisation into the future through the implementation of organisational change. In fact, “the beliefs and mind-sets of leaders have been shown to influence their orientation of choices and approaches to problem solving” (Higgs and Rowland, 2011, p. 311). Moreover, “there is growing evidence that ‘what leaders do’ can have a powerful effect on follower behaviour and the success of change initiatives” (Hayes, 2014, p. 168).

In this regard, scholars such as Kotter (1996), Armenakis, Harris and Field (1999), Dulewicz, and Higgs (2004) and Fernandez and Rainey (2006) developed change leadership models and frameworks aimed at decreasing followers’ resistance to change whilst increasing commitment to it, thus increasing the probability of successful change. “Typical change leadership activities include developing a vision and implementation plan, communicating the vision of change, being a good role model, and motivating [followers] to implement the change” (van der Voet, 2016, p. 662). Based on these activities, “the view that leadership contributes greatly to the success of the implementation of change is central to the literature on change management” (van der Voet, Groeneveld and Kuipers, 2014, p. 174). In fact, Burke (2002) claims that the main focus of the theories of change leadership is on how leaders can exercise their abilities to positively influence their followers to increase the latter’s commitment. Vis-à-vis change in public organisations, Van der Voet (2016, p. 662) asserts that “change leadership is therefore expected to be positively related to commitment to change”. Substantiating such arguments, several scholars (Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder, 1993; Dutton, Ashford, O’Neill, and Lawrence, 2001; Farndale, van Ruiten, Kelliher, and Hope-Hailey, 2011; Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005) claim that when

engaging in change leadership tactics such as creating readiness for change, enabling followers' participation in decision making and allowing followers' voice, leaders will be contributing towards the creation of followers' commitment to change whilst reducing their resistance. But what if instead of positive and supportive, during times of change leaders act destructively? Increasingly more researchers (Erickson et al., 2015; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Trepanier et al., 2019) are looking at the dark side of leadership during organisational change. According to Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2010), destructive leadership behaviour is very common and something that most followers will probably experience during their career. Also, researchers (Neves and Schyns, 2018; Padilla et al., 2007; Thoroughgood et al., 2018) claim that such behaviours tend to manifest themselves more during times of organisational change because change brings instability to organisations whilst reducing the checks and balances in place, thus giving leaders more power and control. When leaders behave destructively, they do so to the detriment of both followers and organisations as followers usually react by resisting the change and become less affectively committed to it (Ashforth, 1994). In the following part, this research looks at the concepts mentioned here and expands upon them.

2.4 Affective Commitment to Change

Followers' commitment "seems to be of decisive importance for an organization to be able to compete in quality and to go along with changes" (Nijhof, de Jong, and Beukhof, 1998, p. 243). Conner and Patterson (1982, p. 18) argue that "the most prevalent factor contributing to failed change projects is a lack of commitment by the people". Yet, despite the key role of followers' commitment when undertaking change, Morris, Lydka and O'Creevy (1993) claim that there is a lack of consensus on the definition of followers' commitment. In fact, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002, p. 474) contend that "despite its presumed importance…little attention has been paid to the definition…of commitment within a change context".

Conner (1992, p. 147), defines commitment as “the glue that provides the vital bond between people and change goals”. On the other hand, Nijhof, de Jong and Beukhof (1998, p. 243), takes a wider view and define commitment in terms of loyalty and identification with the organisation, work, and colleagues, and is expressed in terms of the motivation and responsibility towards one’s job and a willingness to learn. “A precondition is that the [follower] is well informed and is involved in decision-making processes” (Nijhof et al., 1998, p. 243). Still, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argue that it does not matter how commitment is conceptualised, its core essence is still the same. Considering this argument, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 301) define commitment as “a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets”. More specifically, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002, p. 475), define “commitment to change as a force (mind-set) that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative”. Following Meyer and Allen’s (1991) Three-Component Model, Meyer, and Herscovitch (2001) argued that this force can take different forms: desire (affective commitment), perceived cost (continuance commitment), or obligation (normative commitment). Despite this three-component conceptualisation of commitment, for the scope of this research the focus will be solely on affective commitment. This is because affective commitment is the “desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits” (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2001, p. 475). Also, it has been argued that if this form of commitment is strong there is a high probability that followers will engage in the focal behaviour (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2001).

According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002, p. 484), “affective commitment develops when individuals become involved in, recognise the value relevance of, or derive their identity from, association with an entity or pursue of a course of action”. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 316) claim that “the mindset characterising affective commitment is desire – individuals with strong affective (value, moral) commitment want to pursue a course of action of relevance to a target”. As such, personal or situational variables that contribute

to the probability that followers “will (a) become involved…in a course of action, (b) recognise the value-relevance of association with an entity or pursue of a course of action, and/or (c) derive [one’s] identity from association with an entity , or from working towards an objective, will contribute to the development of affective commitment” (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001, p. 316). This is essential as when followers are affectively committed, they will be more willing to collaborate with others, will put in more effort to attain the change objectives, and act as champions of change (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). Next, the research looks at the different responses to leadership behaviours when an organisation is undergoing change starting from followers’ resistance to change.

2.5 Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is an integral aspect of organisational change and is usually discussed with the unfreezing stage of Lewin’s Three-Step Model of Change. One cannot fully understand one without referring to the other. According to Dent and Goldberg (1999), resistance to change is usually described within Lewin’s change model as a negative barrier to change; a restraining force acting to maintain the status quo, and which can be found anywhere in the organisation system. Likewise, Piderit (2000, p. 784) states that “resistance to change is metaphorically defined as a restraining force moving in the direction of maintaining the status quo”. She also asserts that resistance to change is a generic and complex phenomenon encapsulating a wide range of meaning. In agreement with Piderit, Keen (1981, p. 27) states that from a tactical approach to implementation, resistance is seen as “a signal from a system in equilibrium that the costs of change are perceived as greater than the likely benefits”. According to Oreg (2018, p. 89), “dispositional resistance to change, defined as a negative personal orientation towards the notion of change, is generally viewed as an obstacle on the way to effective adaptation and improvement”. Moreover, Collinson (1994, p. 49), define resistance to change “as [followers’] behaviour that seeks to challenge, or disrupt the prevailing assumptions, discourses, and power relations”.

In their study of resistance to change in educational organisations, Yilmaz and Kilicoglu (2013, p. 17) state that some of the "common reasons for resistance to change within organisations include interference with need fulfilment, selective perception, habit, inconvenience or the loss of freedom, economic implications, security in the past, fear of the unknown, threats to power or influence, knowledge and skill obsolescence, organisational structure and limited resources". Schein (2004) argues that organisational members go on the defensive when confronted with disconfirming data and become afraid of temporary incompetence, fear of being punished for incompetence, fear of loss of personal identity and fear of loss of group membership. Organisational members are basically afraid that they will not be able to survive in the new order of things. Craine (2007) claims that resistance hampers any attempts at organizational change and states that change always triggers organisational members' reactions such as frustration, antagonism, rebuff, and disbelief. Consequently, any form of opposition or reaction to change tends to be interpreted by leaders as resistance and is seen as leading directly to change failure.

However, not all is doom and gloom as several researchers such as Graham, (1984, 1986), Dutton, Ashford, Wierba, O'Neill and Hayes (1997) and Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit and Dutton (1998) contend that followers' resistance might be aimed to attract the attention of change leaders towards issues that they believe must be tackled so that the organisation's performance does not suffer. Also, Piderit (2000, p. 784) argues that "rarely do individuals form resistant attitudes or express such attitudes in acts of dissent or protest, without considering the potential negative consequences for themselves". Thus, resistance for the sake of it is highly unlikely because of the severe consequences that might be suffered as a result. Accordingly, Piderit (2000, p. 785) concludes that "what some may perceive as disrespectful or unfounded opposition might also be motivated by individuals' ethical principles or by their desire to protect the organisation's best interests. Therefore, it is worth making an effort to take potentially good intentions more seriously by downplaying the invalidating aspect of labelling responses to change "resistant"". Piderit (2000)

also claims that followers' reactions to proposed organisational change should be conceptualised as multidimensional attitudes, thus enabling a richer view into how followers might respond to change.

From a different perspective, Dent and Goldberg (1999) argue that throughout their work with both individuals and organisations they come across an almost universally accepted mental model in organisational life that people do resist change. As such, leaders will do well to challenge the commonly held view that followers resist change for the sake of it. "People may resist loss of status, loss of pay, or loss of comfort, but these are not the same as resisting change. The belief that people do resist change causes all kinds of unproductive actions within organisations" (Dent and Goldberg, 1999, p. 26). Therefore, they opine that it is high time for leaders to stop using the phrase resistance to change when referring to the above-mentioned followers' behaviours. They state that whilst undertaking research, they "found few or no instances of [followers] resisting change" (Dent and Goldberg, 1999, p. 26). Their findings are supported by those of Kotter (1995) and Spreitzer and Quinn (1996).

Understanding the phenomenon of resistance to change and how it can be addressed is essential for this research as this has a direct bearing effect on whether a proposed organisational change will be successful or not. The above information on resistance to change shows what causes followers to resist change and what can change leaders do to reduce it and to deal with it constructively. Most importantly, it presents a case for change leaders to look at resistance from a different perspective, as a resource, a change enabler. This is because resistance is a style of conflict that leads to better decision making whilst strengthening stakeholder allegiance during the change process. Besides, followers' resistance, or the possibility of it, calls change leaders to adopt specific leadership behaviours, behaviours that provide followers with the necessary support by providing a clear direction, enable followers to voice their opinions and concerns, and build readiness for change. These strategies will be looked at next.

2.6 Voice

Followers' voice, as a follower behaviour, is a pervasive and important mechanism through which followers assist their organisation to improve the implementation of successful change, thus enabling an organisation to remain valid and competitive in a dynamic business environment. Detert and Burris (2007, p. 869), define voice "as the discretionary provision of information intended to improve organisational functioning to someone inside an organisation with the perceived authority to act, even though such information may challenge and upset the status quo of the organisation and its power holders". Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, and Kamdar (2011, p. 183) refer to followers' voice as "the discretionary verbal communication of ideas, suggestions, or opinions where the intent is to improve organizational or unit functioning". Like Morrison et al. (2011), Van Dyne and LePine (1998, p. 109) define followers' voice as "promotive behaviour that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize. Voice is making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree". Also, Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003, p. 1370) argue that the term voice represents "the intentional expression of work-related ideas, information, and opinions". According to Liang, Farh and Farh (2012, p. 74), the latter definition presents a broader conceptualisation of voice as it "capture[s] the various forms of voice occurring in practice".

In accordance with the above definitions, the content of voice varies, ranging from suggesting innovative ideas to highlighting concerns. Commensurate with this, several researchers such as Van Dyne et al. (2003), Burris (2012) and Liang et al. (2012) proposed several forms of voice. However, for the scope of this research, the two forms of voice referred to by Liang et al. (2012), namely promotive voice and prohibitive voice are going to be considered. The reason behind the choice of these two forms of voice is that there is a need to look more at the content of promotive and prohibitive voice simultaneously and to understand the psychological antecedents of the two domains (Liang et al.,

2012). Promotive voice is defined as followers' "expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organisation" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 74). This form of voice is used by followers when they present to management novel ideas and suggestions to ameliorate the overall performance of the organisation or work unit. However, as explained by Liang et al. (2003, p. 74), as "promotive voice proposes ways of changing the status quo, it is [still] challenging". On the other hand, "prohibitive voice describes [followers'] expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or [follower] behaviour that are harmful to their organisation" (Liang et al., 2003, p. 75). The applicability of prohibitive voice by followers is critical for an organisation's well-being as the vocalizing of certain "alarming messages place previous undetected problems on the collective agenda to be resolved or prevent problematic initiatives from taking place" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 75). Thus, although the two forms of voice presented here are distinct, both are aimed at challenging the status quo and are aimed at helping the organisation to change successfully.

According to several researchers (Emelifeonwu and Valk, 2019; Kim, MacDuffie, and Pil, 2010; Viveros, Kalfa, and Gollan, 2017), followers' voice, whether promotive or prohibitive can occur, either directly or indirectly. However, as this research is interested in the direct relationship between followers, groups, and their immediate leaders, only voice that is expressed through direct mechanisms is going to be looked at. In this regard, Van Dyne and LePine (1988) researched the effects of two forms of followers' promotive extra-role behaviour, voice and helping, on the latter's performance and established that there is a relationship between voice and helping and positive organisational outcomes. Farndale, Van Ruiten, Kelliher and Hope-Hailey (2011, p. 124) investigated the broad notion of the employment relationship when organisations are undertaking significant change and established that followers "perceive the opportunity for voice as an exchange commodity, which they reciprocate with organisational commitment". This finding also confirms that the opportunity to voice engender among followers "positive attitudes toward the organisation based on perceived ability to influence decision

making: when people believe they have the opportunity to voice their opinions and have their views taken into account, this builds trust relationships with line managers and the organisation as a whole" (Farndale et al. 2011, p. 123). In another study, Ng and Feldman (2012, p. 228) found "that voice contributes to overall productivity because voice enables [followers] to acquire resources that can be used to improve performance in other domains". In exploring the role of followers' voice between high-performance work systems and organisational innovation, Shahzad, Conroy, and Siddique (2017, p. 681) found "that [followers'] voice behaviours enhance innovation' when organisations are implementing processes and formulating strategies".

Rees, Alfes, and Gatenby (2013, p. 2792) also researched followers' voice and found that followers "who perceive themselves as speaking up with opinions and suggestions are more likely to be engaged with their work". Moreover, Emelifeonwu and Valk (2019, p. 245) provide evidence that "groups and organisations perform better when [followers] share their ideas and concerns…voice has value, in that it can contribute to organisational effectiveness". Their research also established voice as a means of expressing human dignity, as this influences the psychological and economic well-being of followers (Emelifeonwu and Valk, 2019). Similarly, Weber and Avey (2019, p. 591), established that followers "who expressed voice in organisations participated in more citizenship behaviours, experience higher [followers'] commitment and report higher levels of well-being".

Yet, despite the positive effects of voice for both organisational effectiveness and followers' well-being, research found that many followers are afraid to speak up. Zhang, Liang, and Li (2020, p. 284), found that leaders' "receptivity of change depends on the type of voice, and leaders are more receptive to promotive voice rather than prohibitive voice". This indicates that if leaders view their followers as "self-interested and dissent bad, then different viewpoints are a threat to be suppressed" (Morrison and Milliken, 2000, p. 721). Looking at leaders' responses to followers' voice, Burris (2012, p. 868) found "that message characteristics, such as the degree to which voice is

fundamentally more challenging or more supportive in nature, can affect managerial responses". In fact, Burris (2012) established that whilst followers who engaged in challenging voice received lower endorsement and lower performance ratings, the opposite was true for those who engaged in supportive voice. Thus, "the extent to which ideas voiced threaten managers' personal standing in the organisation influence managerial endorsement" (Burris, 2012, p. 869).

These findings are supported by Ng and Feldman (2012, p. 230) who claim that followers "take some risks when they engage in voice behaviour because, even in their most benign forms, constructive suggestions often imply criticism of current leadership practices or create impetus for changes that not everyone will endorse". In fact, Emelifeonwu and Valk (2019, p. 243), found that a considerable number of followers "were reluctant and afraid to speak up to their boss or to management about critical issues of concern at work because of fear of victimization and job loss". Detert and Edmondson (2011, p. 461) argue that in the face of such realities at work, followers develop "implicit voice theories – taken-for-granted beliefs about when and why speaking up at work is risky or inappropriate". The implicit voice theories identified refer to "reluctance to challenge authority, fear of being ostracized and the tendency to prevent embarrassment by avoiding face-threatening remarks" (Detert and Edmondson, 2011, p. 481). Moreover, Ng and Feldman (2012) argue that according to Hobfoll's conservation of resources theory, individuals have limited resources such as time, physical energy and emotional energy and they are highly motivated to protect such whilst engaging in behaviours that accumulate additional resources for the future. "Voice can be instrumental in achieving these goals. At the same time, though, engaging in voice behaviour itself consumes time and energy and, as such, can only be performed selectively and strategically" (Ng and Feldman, 2012, p. 217). This is because according to the conservation of resources theory, "people are motivated to acquire, protect, and retain resources (including time, physical energy, emotional energy, and attention) to deal with stressful situations as they arise"

(Ng and Feldman, 2012, p. 219). So how can organisations promote promotive and prohibitive voice?

Rees et al. (2011, p. 2792) argue that their study "highlights the value of a greater focus [by leaders] on facilitating [followers'] voice to enhance [followers'] engagement". Similarly, Ng and Feldman (2012, p. 230) claim that "the key to energizing greater voice behaviour is improving workplace conditions for [followers], particularly when the work itself, interpersonal relationships in the group, and/or the organizational environment are highly stressful". Furthermore, Liang et al. (2012), found that:

> Voice can be maximised to the extent that managers are able to increase [followers'] psychological safety, felt obligation for constructive change, and organisation based self-esteem by…demonstrating an attitude for openness to [followers'] ideas and providing formal and informal mechanisms for voice…, reminding [followers] that they are valued members of their organisation and are capable of providing valuable input…, and emphasizing that employees can "give back" to the organisation by providing suggestions and pointing out ineffective processes. (p. 88)

2.7 Change Readiness

According to Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993), readiness for change is an important contributor towards the effective implementation of organisational change; actually, they argue that if resistance to change is to be reduced or eliminated, readiness should be created. They further state that readiness is comparable to Lewin's (1947) unfreezing stage and "is reflected in organisational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organisation's capacity to successfully make those changes" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p. 681). Similarly, Weiner (2009, p. 1) states that "readiness for change refers to organisational members' shared resolve to implement a change (change commitment) and shared belief in their collective capability to do so (change efficacy)". Armenakis et al. (1993, p. 682) also hold the view that readiness seems to be "more congruent with the image of proactive managers who play the roles of

coaches and champions of change". Additionally, Rafferty, Jimmieson and Armenakis (2013) assert that change readiness plays a crucial role in shaping the outcome of a change initiative in an organisation. As such, "readiness is arguably one of the most important factors involved in [followers'] initial support for change initiatives" (Holt, Armenakis, Field, and Harris, 2007, p. 234).

Thakur and Srivastava (2017) researched the role of trust, perceived organisational support, and emotional attachment to address the difference between resistance and readiness for change. Through their study, they established that there is "a significant and negative relationship…between [followers'] resistance [and] [followers'] readiness to change" (Thakur and Srivastava, 2017, p. 241). Also, Rusly, Sun, and Corner (2015) attempted to show the role of change readiness in shaping the knowledge acquisition process of followers and organisations. With regards to the former, their findings revealed that "there are four elements of individual change readiness that shape the knowledge acquisition process, these being the need for knowledge, perceived management support, expertise and adaptability" (Rusly et al., 2015, p. 1215). With regards to organisations' readiness for change, Rusly et al. (2015) established that an organisation's context within which the knowledge acquisition process is fostered plays a crucial role. Their findings show "that the appropriate context for learning and communicating in the [organisations] studied could enhance professionals' readiness to engage in the knowledge acquisition process" (Rusly et al., 2015, p. 1217). Also, Self, Armenakis and Schraeder (2007) claimed that the content of change plays a crucial role and is a key enabler of readiness for change. In support of this claim, Rafferty, and Griffin (2006) identified three characteristics of change that influence individuals' response to change, these are the frequency of change, the planning involved in the change and the impact of the change. Also, Griffin and Simons (2006, p. 342) established that "respondents reported higher change readiness for fine-tuning changes as opposed to corporate transformation changes". This result was supported by the findings of Rafferty and Simons (2006) who claimed that different types of change call for different kinds of change readiness.

Also, Vakola studied the followers of a technological organisation based in Greece that was undergoing a major change. In this study, Vakola (2014, p. 203) explored the state of change readiness of these followers, taking into consideration the impact that change had on them, their individual characteristics, pre-change conditions, and work attitudes and established that "employees who are confident about their abilities and are able to cope with stressful events, such as change, tend to perceive change as positive, and as a result, they experience high levels of readiness to change". The study also established that "perceiving management as trustworthy, being confident in management's abilities and having faith in its intentions and receiving all the necessary information all influence the way [followers] examine the pros and cons of change, leading to a higher level of individual readiness to change" (Vakola, 2014, p. 203). These findings show that followers of leaders whose behaviours are trustworthy and supportive, feel more change ready and are more open to accept change and believe more in a positive outcome. As established by Costello and Arghode (2019, p. 10), followers' perception of fairness on the part of their leaders "played a significant role in the overall results of process change". This is because if followers perceive change to be fair, then they are more ready to embrace it and support it (Fedor, Caldwell, and Harold, 2006).

In fact, in a study of readiness for change in a manufacturing organisation based in Indonesia, Susanto (2008) established that when followers are ready for change, change leaders' task will become easier. This is because "organizations consist of people, whose perceptions can facilitate or undermine the effectiveness of a change programme" (Susanto, 2008, p. 58). "Change initiatives should be made by creating a sense of urgency in organizations. Managers need to help people to clearly see their role in new ways of doing things in order to build commitment to change" (Susanto, 2008, p. 58). This can be achieved by creating followers' readiness for change through participation in the change process, by allowing them to give feedback (followers' voice) and by inspiring them to support the change initiative thereby increasing the chances of successful change (Susanto, 2008). In fact, Lyons,

Swindler and Offner (2009) came to a similar conclusion in their study of change leadership in a U.S. military organisation that was undergoing an extensive change, they found that individuals who reported high levels of change readiness were more committed to the change initiative. In the following part, the research focuses on transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours and their effects on followers' affective commitment to change, both directly and indirectly through readiness for change and resistance to change respectively. The effects of promotive and prohibitive voice vis-à-vis affective commitment to change will also be looked at.

2.8 Participation

According to Lines and Selart (2013, p. 291), "participation is a technical term that is used in organisational research to capture arrangements whereby organisations try to involve a broader array of members in their decision-making and problem-solving processes". Judson (1991) claims that participation is one of the most effective tools that leaders can use to minimise followers' resistance and increase acceptance of the proposed change. Moreover, Sverke, Hellgren, Naswall Goransson and Ohrming (2008) argue that participation has positive effects on followers' attitudes, well-being, job characteristics and learning. Also, Ichniowski, Kochan, Levine, Olson and Strauss (1996, p. 301) state that "greater participation permits a variety of different views to be aired, and many lead to [followers] redesigning their jobs so that they can better coordinate their efforts". Basically, direct participation, which involves face-to-face or written communication between leaders and followers, encourages followers to work harder and smarter (Ichniowski, 1996). Marchington and Wilkinson (2005) categorise direct participation into four types: downward communications; upward problem solving; task participation; and teamworking and self-management. "These are differentiated in terms of direction of communication (up, down or lateral), level and scope of subject matter (company-wide, departmental or work group), regularity of involvement (continuing or scheduled at set times) and centrality

to work process (on-line or bolted-on)" (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005, pp. 403-404). The subject of followers' participation attracted the interest of several scholars, whose findings are highlighted below.

One of the earliest studies on followers' participation was that undertaken in 1948 by Coch and French at Harwood Manufacturing Corporation. In their study, Coch and French tried to understand why followers resist change and how this can be dealt with. During their research they discovered that change management leaders who enabled their followers to fully participate in the change process achieved better results than those who did not. This is because participation produced high morale in organisational members, leading to higher acceptance rates of the proposed changes. In fact, Holt, Armenakis, Field and Harris (2007, p. 233) state that in agreement with Lewin's (1947) claim, Coch and French "found [that] the greater the extent of participation …, the more satisfied [followers] were and the quicker they met new production goals". Similarly, O'Brien (2002) studied participation during a reform project in the Irish public sector and established that because of participation in the project, followers became generally more receptive to the information being received from internal and external sources resulting in enhanced acceptance of the change process. Similar results were obtained by Nielsen and Randall (2012) in a study of participation within the ambit of teamwork. In fact, they concluded that "involving [followers] in change processes is important to ensure commitment to change and learning, thus bringing a change from espoused theory to theory-in-use" (Nielsen and Randall, 2012, p. 101). Besides, Boohene and Williams (2012) investigated the factors that influence resistance to change at Oti-Yeboah Complex Limited. During their study, the researchers looked at the effects of followers' participation and established that the latter's participation in decision making reduced resistance to change.

2.9 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Change

Podsakoff et al. (1990, p. 108) claim that in the recent past researchers started studying more those leadership behaviours “that make followers more aware of the importance and values of task outcomes, activate their higher-order needs, and induce them to transcend self-interests for the sake of the organisation”. These actions are known as transformational behaviours and researchers (Blaney and Blotnicky, 2010; Caldwell, Roby-Williams, Rush, and Ricke-Kiely, 2009; Eisenbach et al., 1999; Jeong, Hsiao, Song, Kim and Bae, 2016; Judge et al., 2006; Kuznin and Walker, 2017; Miller, 2007; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Penava and Sehic, 2014; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Rothfelder et al., 2012; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994; Tracey and Hinkin, 1996; Walker and Kuznin, 2018) found that these play a pivotal role to effectively manage change. According to Yukl (2013, p. 312), “transforming leadership appeals to the moral values of followers in an attempt to raise their consciousness about ethical issues and to mobilize their energy and resources to reform institutions”. Thus, “with transformational leadership, followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do” (Yukl, 2013, p. 313). Transformational leaders inspire their followers to follow their vision, “it is about engaging the emotions of individuals in the organisation. It is crucial for leading change today” (Dearlove and Coomber, 2009, p. 55). Consequentially, there is a higher probability for followers to be committed to follow transformational leaders, support the change, and attain goals.

Building on the original thinking of James McGregor Burns, Bass (1990, p. 21) stated that transformational leadership “occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their [followers], when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their [followers] to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group”. This is achieved by having transformational leaders inspiring their followers, by meeting their emotional needs and by stimulating them intellectually (Bass,

1990). Transformational leadership rests on four interrelated pillars these being idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

The first transformational element is idealised influence. Gaining idealised influence or being charismatic is essential to succeed as a transformational leader. “The term describes leaders who demonstrate high standards of moral and ethical conduct and who can be counted on to do the right thing” (Rothfelder et al., 2012, p. 204). “Such leaders are self-confident, determined, persistent, highly competent, and willing to take risks” (Bass, 1997, p. 21). “Charismatic leaders have great power and influence. [Followers] want to identify with them, and they have a high degree of trust and confidence in them” (Bass, 1990, p. 21).

The second dimension is inspirational motivation which according to Bass (1997, p. 21) “is highly correlated but not conceptually the same as idealized influence or charisma”. Transformational leaders “inspire and excite their [followers] with the idea that they may be able to accomplish great things with extra effort” (Bass, 1990, p. 21). Transformational leaders “provide meaning and challenge for their followers using simple language, symbols, and images. They display optimism and enthusiasm” (Bass, 1997, p. 21). Rothfelder et al. (2012) contend that this dimension refers to leaders’ behaviours that provides followers with meaning and challenging goals.

Intellectual stimulation is the third aspect of transformational leadership. “Intellectually stimulating leaders are willing and able to show their [followers] new ways of looking at old problems, to teach them to see difficulties as problems to be solved, and to emphasize rational solutions” (Bass, 1990, p. 21). Essentially, “intellectual stimulation is descriptive of leaders who stimulate followers to be innovative, creative and to participate intellectually” (Rothfelder et al., 2012, p. 205). In fact, Rothfelder et al. (2012) claim that these leaders encourage their followers to use intuition through reasoning and rationality rather than unsupported opinions.

The last component is individualised consideration. Bass (1990, p. 21) states that “transformational leaders are individually considerate, that is, they pay close attention to differences among their [followers]; they act as mentors to those who need help to grow and develop”. They create new learning and development opportunities for followers, encourage two-way communication, one-on-one and practice "walk-around" management and delegation (Bass, 1997). According to Rothfelder et al. (2012, p. 205), “in this regard, individualised considerate leaders provide socio-emotional support. This involves attentive listening, maintaining frequent contact with followers and encouraging subordinates’ self-actualisation while empowering [followers]”.

The first two categories cover followers’ admiration for their leader, this is shown through their confidence in their leaders’ vision and values; the third component presents followers with challenging tasks; whilst the fourth dimension covers the extent of leaders’ concern with their followers’ personal requirements. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), when applying any one of these transformational elements, leaders are more successful because followers become satisfied and committed to achieve more, become supportive and help the organisation to attain its goals. This has been confirmed by several studies on the effects of transformational leaders on their followers, notably in times of change (Blayney and Blotnicky, 2010; Chiang and Wang, 2012; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, and Shamir, 2002; Gillet and Vandenberghe, 2014; Jena et al., 2018; Jeong et al. 2016; Karakitapoglu-Aygun and Gumusluoglu, 2012; Kim, 2014; Malik, Javed, and Hassan, 2017; Penava and Sehic, 2014; Sun and Henderson, 2016; Yildiz and Simsek, 2016; Walker and Kuznin, 2018; Wang, Tsai and Tsai, 2014).

2.9.1 Transformational Leadership and Affective Commitment to Change

According to Yukl (1989, p. 204), transformational leadership is “the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organisation members and building commitment for the organisation’s mission or

objectives". In fact, Rothfelder et al. (2012, p. 202) state that "followers, under a transformational leader, share the organisation's values and are committed to the organisational goals". Several researchers studied the effects of transformational leadership behaviours on followers' commitment to change and established that transformational leadership behaviours do in fact have a positive relationship. Herold, Fedor, Caldwell and Liu (2008) and Van der Voet (2016) found that there is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and individuals' commitment to a change. Based on these findings, Van der Voet (2016) claims that transformational leaders have the potential to be especially effective change leaders. Also, Herold et al. (2008), claim that transformational leaders seem to get more "buy in" from followers to an organizational change, irrespective of the specific behaviours they show when planning and implementing change. As such, "organisations needing to obtain the commitment of followers to changes requiring the expenditure of substantial effort (i.e., high job impact changes) may want to give greater consideration to the degree to which the change leader is perceived as transformational" (Herold et al., 2008, p. 354).

Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008), Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014), Kim (2014), Rowold, Borgmann and Borgmann (2014), and Cho, Shin, Billing, and Bhagat (2019) also researched the influence of transformational leadership on organisational commitment and found such leadership behaviours to be positively associated with affective commitment. In fact, Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014, p. 335) assert that "transformational leaders encourage the emergence of affective commitment because they use emotional appeals and create a compelling vision that facilitates [followers'] identification with, and involvement in, the organization". As such, the following hypothesis is being proposed:

H1: Transformational leadership relates positively to affective commitment to change.

2.9.2 The Role of Promotive Voice

“As leaders are usually the target for voice and their attitudes and behaviour directly shapes [followers’] willingness to speak up, leadership has been identified as an important factor that largely determines [followers’] voice behaviour” (Duan, Li, Xu, and Wu, 2017, p. 650). As transformational leadership is about developing, supporting, and intellectually stimulating followers to work hard for an envisioned future state, Detert, and Burris (2007, p. 871) argue that it is “particularly indicative of an orientation toward continuous improvement and should therefore be positively related to subordinates’ belief that it is safe to speak up and willingness to do so”. Svendsen and Joensson (2016, p. 358) contend that a transformational leader is highly likely to encourage followers to engage in change related voice “by being a good listener and personally interacting with [them] during the change process (individual consideration) and giving them the room and safety to express themselves”. They further state that “a transformational leader may stimulate [followers] to look at things differently and critically during the change process (intellectual stimulation), so they potentially increase the number of ideas generated by [followers]” (Svendsen and Joensson, 2016, p. 358). Also, they argue that a “transformational leader inspires and empowers [followers] to work for the goals of the organizational change (inspirational motivation and idealized influence) and may increase [their] motivation to express themselves to reach these goals” (Svendsen and Joensson, 2016, p. 358). Furthermore, Chen, Wang, and Lee (2018) propose that followers whose leaders apply transformational leadership behaviours tend to consider their jobs as meaningful and have the intention of helping their organizations and may develop both promotive and prohibitive voice behaviours that might eventually benefit their organization. This has been shown through several studies.

Wang, Xu, Sun, and Liu (2019) established that followers having transformational leaders are more likely to engage in voice. In fact, Wang et al.’s (2019) results indicate that transformational leaders generate a positive effect on their followers , stimulating their voice behaviours. In another study

of the effects of transformational leadership on promotive and prohibitive voice behaviours, Jada, and Mukhopadhyay (2019) established that by personally interacting with followers, transformational leaders enhanced the quality of exchanges, and this stimulated both promotive and prohibitive voice behaviours leading to better decision making. Moreover, Chen et al. (2018) found that transformational leaders increase their followers' meaningfulness at work, in the process encouraging both promotive and prohibitive voice behaviours. "This finding indicates that once [followers] perceive their work as meaningful, it is more likely they will express their opinions concerning practices that may bring positive changes for groups or the organization, such as through making suggestions on possible improvements or providing solutions that may prevent negative effects" (Chen et al., 2018, p. 702).

On a different note, Svendsen and Joensson (2016) found a relationship between followers' commitment to change and their willingness to express their suggestions to achieve the desirable outcome. In fact, Chamberlin, Newton, and Lepine (2017), Jena, Bhattacharyya, and Pradhan (2017) and Kim and Leach (2020), found that followers' voice significantly predicts affective organisational commitment. Moreover, Duan et al. (2017, p. 665) established that transformational leaders "can send clear voice expectations to stimulate more [followers'] voice behaviour". They found that "when transformational leaders hold expectations for voice behaviour, [followers] report being more likely to consider voice as in-role and ultimately engage in more upward voice behaviour" (Duan et al., 2017, p. 664). Followers' commitment develops within a climate where they feel that they are valued, and their opinions are being are being listened to (Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro, 1990). This is very much in line with Blau's (1964) exchange theory that proposes that 'an exchange relationship develops between two parties when one party provides a benefit to the other, thereby causing an obligation to respond by providing something beneficial in return' (Farndale et al., 2011, p. 115). According to Blau (1964) exchange processes develop as individuals feel the need to balance between inputs and outputs whilst retaining a positive balance in their transactions. Taking into consideration the

above and following Liang et al.'s (2012) finding that through felt obligation transformational leadership is more strongly related to followers' promotive voice, the following hypothesis is being put forward:
H2: Promotive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change.

2.9.3 Readiness for Change as a Mediator

With today's ever-changing and competitive environment, one approach leaders can take to create a competitive advantage is to foster an organizational climate that encourages and supports change and creativity. Organizations that are "effective at making incremental as well as radical organizational changes are oftentimes better positioned to survive in today's environment" (Allen, Smith, and Da Silva, 2013, p. 24). Actually, Armenakis et al. (1993), Jones, Jimmieson, and Griffiths (2005), Neves (2009), and Drzensky, Egold, and van Dick (2012) argue that readiness for change is a contributing factor towards the effective implementation of organisational change. Armenakis et al. (1993) contend that readiness is reflected in organisational members' beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding the extent to which changes are needed and the organisation's capacity to successfully make those changes. Such a position is supported by Cunningham, Woodward, Shannon, MacIntosh, Lendrum, Rosenbloom and Brown (2002, p. 388) who found that "staff with higher readiness scores participated in more re-engineering activities and felt that they made a greater contribution to the organization's redesign efforts".

"Readiness is the cognitive precursor to the behaviours of either resistance to, or support for, a change effort" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p. 681). Therefore, "framing a change project in terms of readiness seems more congruent with the image of proactive managers who play the roles of coaches and champions of change" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p. 682). Armenakis, Harris and Field (1999), argue that change agents play a critical role in creating readiness for change by means of a message for change. According to Armenakis et al. (1993) readiness-creating messages will be more influential if followers

consider the change leader to be credible, trustworthy, and honest. This assertion was confirmed by Karakitapoglu-Aygun and Gumusluoglu (2012) in their study on positive and negative leadership behaviours who found that transformational leaders acknowledge the unique abilities and expectations of each of their followers and spend time mentoring and coaching them to develop themselves, thus increasing their commitment and reducing resistance to change. Several studies have looked at the effects of readiness for change on followers' commitment to change.

Santhidran, Chandran and Borromeo (2013), Wardani, Suhariadi, Ratmawati, Priyono, Suhandiah, and Muliatie (2020), and Yeap, Abdullah and Thien (2020) studied the mediating effects of readiness for change on the relationship between transformational leadership and commitment to change. All studies found that transformational leadership was significantly related to readiness for change and that it affected commitment to change indirectly through readiness for change.

Essentially then, "leaders must first prepare [followers] to be ready for change and subsequently prepare [followers] to commit to change efforts" (Santhidran et al., 2013, p. 359). Consequently, if followers are not prepared for change, they will resist it, resulting in change failure. In a separate study, Allen et al. (2013) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' perceptions of the psychological climate for organizational change readiness. They established that "transformational leadership was positively related to psychological climate for organizational change readiness" (Allen et al., 2013, p. 34). The more leaders exhibit transformational leadership behaviours, the more followers believe in their organisation's willingness to change and the more they support such change (Allen et al., 2013). In fact, Hanpachern, Morgan, and Griego (1998, p. 346) found that followers who reported high readiness for change "were willing not only to participate in but also to promote change" whilst Madsen, Miller, and John (2005) found that readiness for change relates positively to organisational commitment. To conclude, Rafferty, Jimmieson and Armenakis (2012) state that "overall,

research suggests that implementing effective change management processes is associated with positive change attitudes". Therefore, the following hypothesis is being suggested:

H3: Readiness for change relates positively to affective commitment to change.

H4: Readiness for change mediates the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change.

2.9.4 The role of Participation as a Moderator

According to Knudsen, Busck and Lind (2011, p. 384), followers' participation encompasses 'all forms through which [followers] take part in decisions regarding their job and their workplace'. Jeong et al. (2016, p. 496), argue that transformational leadership is ideal in allowing followers to participate in decision making as it "invigorate[s] a sense of passion and energy among [followers] by delivering inspirational visions, empowering [followers] in decision making and encouraging them to develop new ideas". In fact, Bass and Riggio (2006) claim that usually transformational leaders foster followers' participation through task delegation. By involving followers in decision making processes, transformational leaders positively influence followers' commitment (Doucet, Lapalme, Simard and Trembley, 2015). They make "them less likely to think about the change in a negative way and less likely to engage in behaviours that are directed against the change" (Penava and Sehic, 2014, p. 145). According to Pielstick (1998, p. 27), this is because "decision-making with transforming leaders is most likely to involve participatory processes to arrive at consensus". He further states that "pulling together for a common purpose in times of crisis is well documented as source of unifying group motivation" (Pielstick, 1998, p. 27), thus reducing the possibility of resistance to change. Moreover, Cheng (2014) argue that followers' participation leads to effective decision making and creates an open environment at work where information is shared freely between leaders and followers.

Several scholars looked at the role that followers' participation in decision making plays on the relationship between transformational leaders and followers' commitment and resistance to change. Doucet et al. (2015, p. 1067) evaluated the role of high-involvement management practices on the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' organizational commitment and established that "by providing greater autonomy and involvement in decision making, organizations can maintain the effectiveness of transformational leaders who foster commitment through [followers'] participation". In a separate study, Zhou, Hirst and Shipton (2012) proved that when leaders intellectually stimulated their followers and enabled them to participate, the latter became more creative. Additionally, Abdalla, Shawky, Ragab and Gouda (2018) evaluated the role of transformational leadership in relation to followers' participation in decision making and resistance to change and found a positive correlation between transformational leadership and followers' participation. According to them, the leveraging of followers' participation by leaders during change processes is crucial to attain organisational goals and objectives.

H5: Participation will moderate the mediated relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment via positive emotional response and positive intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when participation is high.

2.10 Destructive Leadership during Organisational Change

According to Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007), over recent years researchers are increasingly looking at the dark side of leadership during events calling for leadership. Schyns and Schilling (2013) argue that there are two main reasons behind this impetus. The first reason is "the prevalence and costs resulting from destructive leaders" (Schyns and Schilling, 2013). In fact, Tepper (2007) contends that abusive supervision affects an estimated 13.6% of U.S. workers, costing U.S. companies an estimated $23.8 billion annually in the form of absenteeism, reduced output, and health care costs. Also, Aasland, Skogstad,

Notelaers, Nielsen and Einarsen (2010) researched Norwegian followers and established that destructive behaviour by an immediate supervisor was prevalent, affecting between 33.5% and 61% of all respondents. Similar claims have been made by Erickson, Shaw, Murray, and Branch (2015) who reported that destructive leadership prevailed to the tune of 25% across organisations and 10% to 30% within the U.S. army specifically, leading to increased organisational costs in the form of human resources losses such as high turnover, diminished followers' performance, and limited creativity.

Schyns and Schilling (2013) state that the second reason relates to the severe negative effects of destructive leadership on followers. To this effect, several outcomes resulting from destructive leadership have been researched such as the effects on intentions to quit and workplace deviance (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu and Hua, 2009), the influence on followers' organisational citizenship behaviours (Rafferty and Restubog, 2011), the consequences on followers' health and safety (Mullen, Fiset and Rheaume, 2018), the repercussions on followers' health (Trepanier, Boudrias, and Peterson, 2019) and the link with counterproductive work behaviour (Brender-Ilan and Sheaffer, 2019). Both the common occurrence of destructive leadership and its possible serious consequences on both followers and organisations, makes it a subject worthy of further examination.

Thoroughgood et al. (2018) note that flawed leaders play a key role in any destructive leadership story. In fact, Padilla et al. (2007) argue that this is the reason why both leader characteristics and behaviours received so much attention from researchers over the recent past. However, as this research is specifically about the effects of leadership on followers when undertaking organisational change, it focuses solely on leader behaviours aimed specifically towards the latter. This is in line with Schyns and Schilling (2013) argument that destructive leadership should incorporate solely those aspects which include follower-targeted influence as this plays a key role in defining leadership. As a matter of fact, they define destructive leadership as "a process

in which over a longer period of time the activities, experiences and/or relationships of an individual or the members of a group are repeatedly influenced by their supervisor in a way that is perceived to be hostile and/or obstructive" (Schyns and Schilling, 2013, p. 141). The key elements of this definition, as identified by Schyns and Schilling (2013) are worthy of additional clarification to show what destructive leadership is all about.

The first element is influence. According to Yukl (2013, p. 18), "most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organisation". By implication, influence also plays a crucial role in destructive leadership. In fact, Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 141) assert that "a leader uses destructive leadership to achieve a certain aim and at least unintentionally influences the activities and relationships within group". Also, Howell and Avolio (1992, p. 44) maintain that destructive leaders "control and manipulate their followers [and] promote what is best for themselves rather than their organisations".

Secondly, there is the supervisor. According to Howell and Avolio (1992, p. 45), destructive leaders "exercise power in dominant and authoritarian ways to serve their self-interests, to manipulate others for their own purposes, and to win at all costs". Einarsen (1999) argues that the power difference between the actor and target is a key feature of destructive leadership, whilst Tepper (2007) states that destructive leadership must focus on the continuous exposure of followers to hierarchical mistreatment. In fact, Schyns and Schilling (2013) assert that it is highly improbable for a person lacking formal authority to hold an informal leadership position within an organisation and act destructively. This view is supported by several scholars (Ashforth, 1994; Einarsen, Skogstad and Glaso, 2013; Mullen et al., 2018; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009) whose understanding of destructive leadership include supervisors' abuse of formal powers to exercise control over followers.

The third essential element consists of repetitive destructive behaviours over a lengthy period (Schyns and Schilling, 2013). This criterion is supported by several scholars (Aasland et al., 2010; Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad, 2007; Tepper, 2000) who stated that to qualify as destructive leadership, negative leadership behaviours must be repeated frequently, single acts of destructiveness do not constitute such. Consequently, “one must accept that leaders occasionally make poor decisions, or otherwise have a “bad day” at work. It is only when this behaviour becomes systematic and repeated that it can be classified as destructive behaviour” (Einarsen et al., 2007, p. 209). According to Tepper (2000:178), such behaviour “can be characterised as sustained or enduring in the sense that it is likely to continue until (1) the target terminates the relationship, (2) the agent terminates the relationship, or (3) the agent modifies his or her behaviour”.

Another key element of Schyns and Schilling’s definition is perceived hostility and/or obstructiveness. In fact, they state that “destructive leadership should be defined by the nature of the target behaviour rather than its consequences” (Schyns and Schilling, 2013, p. 141). This view is also shared by Krasikova et al. (2013, p. 1311) who state that destructive leadership “involves harmful actions performed by leaders in the process of leading followers towards certain goals”. This means that, essentially, destructive leadership consists of a leader’s antagonistic and obstructive behaviours. The former includes behaviours such as ridiculing/mocking, being deceptive/lying, taking credit for others’ work, blaming others for leader’s mistakes and coercion (Pelletier, 2010). The latter refers to behaviours like social exclusion, ostracising/disenfranchising followers, inciting followers against each other, and pitting in-group members against out-group ones (Pelletier, 2010).

Lastly, there is the issue of the level of analysis, whether this should be at an individual or group level. According to Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 141) “destructive leadership can refer to both levels, in the sense that leaders might target only one or few members of their group, and/or only one or few members

of their group perceive destructive leadership, or they are generally destructive towards all their followers".

As such, and based on the above, destructive leaders rely on coercive power to influence and manipulate followers to achieve their personal goals. Several scholars (Mullen et al., 2018; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Schyns and Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu and Hua, 2009; Trepanier et al., 2019) claim that when leaders act destructively, they will negatively affect followers' organisational commitment, job satisfaction, well-being, and performance, whilst increasing absenteeism and intentions to quit. Schyns and Shilling (2013, p. 142) argue that the outcomes of "destructive leadership can broadly be differentiated into leader-related concepts, job-related concepts, organisation-related concepts, and individual follower-related concepts". These concepts will be expanded upon briefly underneath.

Regarding leader-related concepts, scholars (Ashforth, 1997; Bligh, Kohles, Pearce, Justin and Stovall, 2007; Tepper, Duffy and Shaw, 2001) assume that followers resist destructive leaders. In fact, Ashforth (1997, p. 767) conducted a study of production workers and established that "the higher the unmet expectations and desires for control and the lower the perceived legitimacy of supervision, the greater the reactance". Also, Bligh et al. (2007) argue that their findings suggest that there is a positive relationship between destructive leadership and followers' resistance. Moreover, Tepper et al. (2001, p. 980) established that the followers of "abusive supervisors reported that they used dysfunctional resistance tactics and constructive resistance tactics more frequently than their nonabused counterparts".

As to job-related concepts, Schyns and Shilling (2013) state that the most examined concept is that of job satisfaction. In this regard, Tepper (2000) found that subordinates whose supervisors were more abusive reported less favourable attitudes towards their job. Similarly, in a study undertaken by Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and Ensley (2004), it has been established that high

abusive supervision was negatively related to followers' job satisfaction. Schyns and Shilling (2013, p. 143) argue that this happens "as supervisors form a significant part of one's job and, thus contribute to making a job a pleasant or unpleasant experience. Part of destructive leadership is putting forward unreasonable demands or ridiculing followers, which are behaviours that make the daily experience of going to work displeasing". Moreover, in a study of subordinate work attitudes, Elangovan, and Xie (2000) concluded that the use of coercive power did not increase followers' work motivation. In fact, Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 143) state that "keeping up motivation in the light of abuse is unlikely in the longer run".

With regards to organisational-related concepts, several of these have been examined in the past such as intention to quit (Tepper et al. 2009), counterproductive work behaviour (Brender-Ilan and Sheaffer, 2016) and commitment (Burris, Detert and Chiaburu, 2008; Schilling, 2009). However, for the purposes of this research the focus is going to be on followers' affective commitment. In this regard, Burris et al.'s (2008, p. 919) "findings suggest that when relations with a leader are poor, [followers] tend to think more about quitting and consequently invest less energy trying to improve their immediate work environment". Thus, because of destructive leadership behaviours, followers "can "quit before they leave" by becoming detached enough that they withhold discretionary efforts that might help their organization to achieve or sustain high levels of performance" (Burris et al, 2008, p. 919). In other words, they become less committed.

Lastly, there are also individual follower-related concepts such as stress, well-being, and performance. According to Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 143), "stress and well-being are probably the most examined outcomes of destructive leadership, as it almost seems a matter of course that destructive leadership is positively related to stress and negatively related to well-being". In fact, Tepper (2000) concluded that followers who had more abusive supervisors reported greater stress and poorer well-being. Similarly, Rafferty and Restubog (2011) established that abusive leadership led to poorer well-

being on the part of followers. Furthermore, Aryee, Sun, Chen, and Debrah (2008) established that destructive leadership is linked, both directly and indirectly, to a drop in performance. Similar results were obtained by Trepanier et al. (2019), who established that tyrannical leadership is linked to less performance. According to Schyns and Schilling (2013, p. 144), theoretically there are two reasons why destructive leadership impacts followers' performance, "first, followers may lower their efforts in the face of a destructive leader. Second, negative relationships between destructive leadership and motivation or well-being could explain why the performance of followers of destructive leaders is low".

2.10.1 Destructive Leadership and Commitment to Change

"Commitment is arguably one of the most important factors involved in [followers'] support for change initiatives" (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002, p. 474). In fact, Conner (1992, p. 147) defined followers' commitment to change as "the glue that provides the vital bond between people and change goals", whilst Conner and Patterson (1982, p. 18) argue that "the most prevalent factor contributing to failed change projects is a lack of commitment by the people". Yet, despite the critical role that is attributed to followers' commitment to change, Elangovan and Xie (2000), Tepper (2000), Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon (2002), and Tepper et al. (2009) argue that followers' exposure to destructive leadership behaviours leads to lack of commitment to the organisation. These arguments are supported by the findings of a meta-analytical study on the effects of bad leaders undertaken by Schyns and Schilling (2013) that established that destructive leadership behaviours do create or exacerbate followers' low commitment. Similar results were obtained by Zhiang and Liao (2015) who carried out a meta-analytical review of the consequences of abusive supervision and established that there is a negative relationship between abusive supervision and followers' organisational commitment. Zhiang and Liao (2015) assert that followers reduce their organisational commitment because they consider their supervisors as agents of the organization. These findings were also confirmed through a study undertaken

by Caesens, Nguyen, and Stinglhamber (2018) in their study on the organisational dehumanising effects of abusive supervision on followers who found significant relationships between abusive supervision and lack of organizational commitment.

According to Ashforth (1994, p. 771), low commitment by followers resulting from destructive leaders' behaviours "may foster or strengthen a negative stereotype of subordinates…which justifies further coercion". According to Barrow (1976), this could be because when leaders perceive a decline in their followers' performance, they tend to behave in an oppressive and retaliatory manner. Based on the above, Ashforth (1994, p. 771) argues that "to the extent these behaviours further reduce leader endorsement and incite reactance, the vicious circle becomes complete". This is because "supported by defensive attributions and self-fulfilling attitudes and behaviours, the [destructive leader] may be unable or unwilling to recognise the role that these attitudes and behaviours play in the genesis of the very behaviours he or she is presumably trying to prevent" (Ashforth, 1994, p. 771). Also, it is important to highlight the fact that the environment within which the interactions between leaders and followers take place plays an important role. This is because radical organisational change interventions "provide a fertile ground for abuse due to two reasons: (1) they help trigger supervisor's displaced aggression, as a precipitating event that usually carries a negative connotation and takes a strong emotional toll; and (2) they enhance the weaknesses demonstrated by submissive [followers], given the position of vulnerability survivors find themselves in" (Neves, 2014, p. 512). As such, the following hypothesis is being proposed:

H6: Destructive leadership relates negatively to affective commitment to change.

2.10.2 The role played by Prohibitive Voice

Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous (1988) refer to voice as a constructive response in which followers attempt to revive or maintain satisfactory employment conditions; it includes both vocalizing to discover solutions and taking unilateral action to solve problems. Essentially, it is one way in which followers can participate in an organisation's management (Li and Zhu, 2016) and, in the process, can improve both the quality of the decisions taken and management efficiency (Duan and Zhang 2010) because they are closer to organisational operations. However, Frieder, Hochwarter, and DeOrtentiis (2015) argue that voice also serves as a means to cope with the behaviours of destructive leadership or to provide relief from a depressing situation. In fact, Hg and Feldman (2015) claim that followers engage in voice behaviour as a way of relieving themselves from stress and improve their performance. When followers voice in this manner, they will essentially be using prohibitive voice which involves "expressions intended to benefit the organisation by preventing negative consequences" (Chamberlin et al., 2017, p. 18).

According to Morrison (2011) the subject of prohibitive voice is very much problem focused. Liang et al. (2012) claim that this is because prohibitive voice stresses the concerns of followers about harmful, problematic, or failing work practices in place. According to Chamberlin et al. (2017), followers use prohibitive voice to generate awareness about particular frustrating issues, questionable practices that go against the organisation's ethos, or to actively object to violations related to the social contract on the place of work. Prohibitive voice then "focuses on the presence of harmful situations, risks, and wrongdoings in the organisation that must stop in order for the organisation to avoid costs and other problems" (Chamberlin et al., 2017, p. 20). Liang et al. (2012) claim that although those using this kind of voice may be well intentioned, it necessarily implies the failure of those responsible and may induce disagreements and negative reactions. Still, prohibitive voice is not to be considered as a form of organisational dissent as "it is born out of a desire to help one's organisation (e.g. by stopping or preventing harm) rather

than out of perceived violations of personal moral norms or legal principles" (Liang et al., 2012, p. 76) and as such is also in line with Blau's (1964) exchange theory as "voice gives people the opportunity to communicate their opinions and engenders the belief that their contributions are valued. It also creates a level of respect toward the organization as an authority, regardless of whether the decision outcomes are positive or negative" (Farndale et al., 2011, p. 116). As such, the following hypothesis is being suggested:
H7: Prohibitive voice relates positively to affective commitment.

2.10.3 Resistance to Change as a Mediator

According to Boohene and Williams (2012, p. 135) "resistance to organizational change is seen as one of the impediments to organizational expansion and growth due to its negative repercussions". Yukl (2013, p. 191) states that "the outcome is called resistance when the target person is opposed to the proposal or request, rather than merely indifferent about it". In fact, Lewin (1947) claims that resistance to change amounts to an individual's reaction against the organization change being implemented. Moreover, Collinson (1994, p. 49), defines workplace resistance as followers' actions that seek to "challenge, disrupt or invert prevailing assumptions, discourses and power relations". On the other hand, Oreg (2006), developed a multifaceted construct of resistance to change. He "defines resistance as a tridimensional (negative) attitude towards change, which includes affective, behavioural and cognitive components" (Oreg, 2006, p. 76). According to Oreg (2006, p. 76), these three components are interdependent as "what people feel about a change will often correspond with what they think about it and with their behavioural intentions in its regard". In fact, Folger and Skarlicki (1999, p. 35), argue that "when organizational decisions and managerial actions are deemed unfair, the affected [followers'] experience feelings of anger, outrage, and a desire for retribution". This shows that "context characteristics, such as leadership and organizational climate, are likely to affect how change is implemented, and consequently, how [followers] react to change" (van Dam, Oreg and Schyns, 2008, p. 314). In fact, Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, and

Welbourne (1999) and Oreg (2003) found a relationship between resistance to change and followers' affective commitment to change. For the purpose of this research, the focus will be on leadership and its association with followers' resistance to change vis-à-vis affective commitment to change.

Several scholars (Boohene and Williams, 2012; Furst and Cable, 2008; Oreg, 2006; van Dam et al., 2008) argue that leadership, specifically destructive leadership is one of the antecedents of followers' resistance to change. Boohene and Williams (2012, p. 142) investigated the causes of resistance to organizational change at Oti-Yeboah Complex Limited and established that "power strategies or authoritarianism cannot enforce compliance, but evoke resistance". Similarly, Oreg (2006, p. 93) tested a model of resistance to organizational change and established that "lack of faith in the organization's leadership was strongly related to increased reports of anger, frustration, and anxiety with respect to the change, to increased actions against it, and in particular to negative evaluations of the need for, and value of, the organizational change". Tepper et al. (2001), also looked at the relationship between abusive supervision and subordinates' resistance and demonstrated that followers use resistance to thwart any downward influence attempts in retaliation for being mistreated by their leaders. These findings support the conclusions of Ashforth (1994) who researched petty tyranny in organizations and concluded that the effects of petty tyranny on subordinates included reactance against the alleged causes of frustration. In fact, it has been established that "the lower the perceived legitimacy of supervision, the greater the reactance-as operationalized by frequency of complaining, bending or breaking rules, criticising people, reducing productivity, acting against someone's wishes, arguing, and acting angrily toward others or toward things" (Ashforth, 1994, p. 767).

It has also been confirmed that followers "who exhibited high levels of resistance to change, also had low levels of trust in management" (Boohene and Williams, 2012, p. 142). These findings support those of Oreg (2006, p. 93) who established that "trust in management presented significant effects on

all three resistance components, and a particularly strong effect on [followers'] cognitive evaluation of the change". These findings also tie up with research that has been conducted on the consequences of destructive leaders on followers. Yet, pursuing a path of direct confrontation with destructive leaders may come at a cost (Oh and Farh, 2017). In fact, Kotter (1995) states that blatant, malicious, or deliberate resistance to change is uncommon. According to Ashforth (1994), this is the case as although followers' still resist, they soon learn to be selective in venting their frustration and resist in more subtle ways. As such, in view of the above, the following hypothesis is being put forward:

H8: Resistance to change relates negatively to affective commitment to change.

H9: Resistance to change mediates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change.

2.10.4 Participation as a Moderator

"Participation is a technical term that is used in organizational research to capture arrangements whereby organizations try to involve a broader array of members in their decision-making and problem-solving processes" (Lines and Selart, 2013, p. 291). However, despite the positive role that participation plays in creating followers' commitment, it is less experienced when followers have leaders displaying destructive behaviours and such behaviours are more likely to occur when organisations are undertaking change. In fact, Neves and Schyns (2018, p. 92), contend that "the scarce evidence relating to change and destructive leader behaviour so far suggests that the context of organizational change, due to its complexity, uncertainty and future orientation, is particularly sensitive to destructive behaviours from leaders".

According to Karakitapoglu-Aygun and Gumusluoglu (2013, p. 110), this is because destructive leaders are "mainly authoritarian and achieve obedience and submission by commanding, ridiculing, yelling at, lying to or humiliating…these unethical leaders tend to control rather than empower their followers". Moreover, Aravena (2019, p. 93) contends that "it is well-known that

autocratic actions are common in destructive leaders. Control, abuse, and dominance comprise autocratic leadership". "It seems that autocratic actions affect the relationship between leaders and members, creating vertical organizational structure that can be less open, dynamic, and flexible" (Aravena, 2019, p. 93).

In her study of destructive leadership within the context of crisis management, Brandebo (2020) claims that destructive leaders tend to be over-controlling and refrain from allowing their followers to participate in decision making. According to Brandebo (2020), destructive leaders in time of crisis tend to assume their followers' responsibilities and exclude them from participating in decision making. "The result of this kind of behaviour is that subordinates feel excluded and uninvolved…[they]…feel by-passed and disregarded since they expect the leader to let them exercise the responsibilities and roles they have been assigned to and/or prepared for" (Brandebo, 2020, p. 572). Furthermore, she claims that destructive leaders tend to overcontrol and micro-manage their followers, they "do not seek support for decisions or do not involve subordinates/collaborating actors in decision-making or the management of the crisis" (Brandebo, 2020, p. 572). In such circumstances, Aryee et al. (2008) claim that followers will curtail their participation to the detriment of the organisation.

H10: Participation will moderate the mediated relationship between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment to change via negative emotional response and negative intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when employee participation is low.

2.11 Summary

This research considers the effects of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to organisational change that has been undertaken within a Maltese public service organisation. To date, most research in this area looked at these effects from a single point of view, either by studying the outcomes of

transformational leadership behaviours on followers' commitment to change (Faupel and Sub, 2019; Jacobsen and Andersen, 2015; van der Voet, 2013; Yang, 2011) or the consequences of destructive leadership during times of organisational change (Neves, 2014; Pelletier, 2010;Slattery, 2009). In contrast, this research will be looking at these two opposing leadership behaviours and their effects on followers' affective commitment to change together by considering the perspectives of both followers and leaders within the context of organisational change.

To this effect, and as shown in the presented research model, it is argued that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change (Burns, 1978; Jiatong, Wang, Alam, Murad, Gul, and Gill, 2022; Peng, Liao, and Sun, 2020). Moreover, the research will contend that readiness for change (Jones, Jimmieson, and Griffiths, 2005; Santhidran, Chandran, and Borromeo, 2013) play a mediating role in the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment. Also, this research claims that destructive leadership behaviours have a negative effect on followers' affective commitment to change (Ashforth, 1994; Baron, 1988) and that this relationship is mediated by resistance to change (Ashforth, 1994; Baron, 1988; Tepper, Duffy, and Shaw, 2001). It will also be argued that both promotive and prohibitive voice (Farndale et al., 2011; Weber and Avey, 2019) relates positively to affective commitment to change. Separately, this research looks at the moderating effect of participation on the relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment to change when mediated by positive emotional and intentional response, this will be done whilst holding destructive leadership as a control variable. It also studies the moderating effects of participation on the relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change when mediated by negative emotional and intentional response.

To test these relationships, the following hypotheses describing these key relationships will be tested during this research:

Table 2-1 : Research Hypotheses

H1	Transformational leadership relates positively to affective commitment to change.
H2	Promotive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change.
H3	Readiness for change relates positively to affective commitment to change.
H4	Readiness for change mediates the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change.
H5	Participation will moderate the mediated relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment via positive emotional response and positive intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when participation is high.
H6	Destructive leadership relates negatively to affective commitment to change.
H7	Prohibitive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change.
H8	Resistance to change relates negatively to affective commitment to change.
H9	Resistance to change mediates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change.
H10	Participation will moderate the mediated relationship between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment to change via negative emotional response and negative intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when employee participation is low.

3 Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological approach adopted for this research. According to Blaikie (2007) prior to undertaking any form of investigation, a researcher must take several decisions, involving the research problem to be investigated; the kind of questions to be answered and the strategy or strategies adopted to do so; the position to be adopted towards the researched subjects; and the research paradigm within which to operate. According to Blaikie (2007, p. 5), the latter includes the researcher's "assumptions about [the nature of] reality and how this can be studied". As the first two steps have already been covered in Chapter 2, this chapter begins with a discussion on the adopted strategy, moving on to the researcher's position towards the participants and the applied research paradigm. It then moves on to discuss the research approach, including the reliability and validity of the adopted research method, the sampling strategy, and the adopted statistical analysis techniques. Finally, ethical considerations will be looked at.

3.2 The Adopted Research Strategy

Considering this thesis research questions and hypotheses as presented in the previous chapter, it would be fitting to adopt a functionalist perspective as it "is concerned with rational explanations and developing sets of recommendations within the current structures" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 140). By consequence, this entails the use of questionnaires to determine the relations that exist between the independent, mediating, and dependent variables.

Following the selection of the research problem and the setting up of the research questions, the most important choice to be made by the researcher is that of the research strategy to be followed. Having decided to adopt a

functionalist perspective to consider the set hypotheses, it is imperative for the researcher to adhere to the philosophical assumptions behind it. Kuhn (1970) coined the term paradigm to refer to different ways of observing the social and organisational domain. Bryman (1988, p. 4), following on the work of Kuhn, defines it as “a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, how results should be interpreted, and so on”. The functionalist paradigm originated in France early in the nineteenth century and its main exponents were social theorists such as Auguste Comte, Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, and Vilfredo Pareto. Essentially, the functionalist perspective assumes “that the social world is composed of relatively concrete empirical artefacts and relationships which can be identified, studied, and measured through approaches derived from the natural sciences” (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 26). However, prior to deliberating on the research strategy adopted for this thesis and as pointed out by Blaikie (2007) and Burrell and Morgan (2019), it is worthwhile to reflect on some research problems that must be weighed up when choosing a suitable research strategy.

3.3 The Subjective-Objective Dimension

According to Burrell and Morgan (2019) there are four sets of standpoints that characterise the approach to research. They (2019) depict such standpoints in terms of a subjective-objective dimension, incorporating a diverse set of continua between two opposing extremes, as shown in the below illustration (Figure 3-1). Each set of assumptions is characterised “by the descriptive labels under which they have been debated” (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 4). In the following part, the objectivist and subjectivist debates will be described briefly.

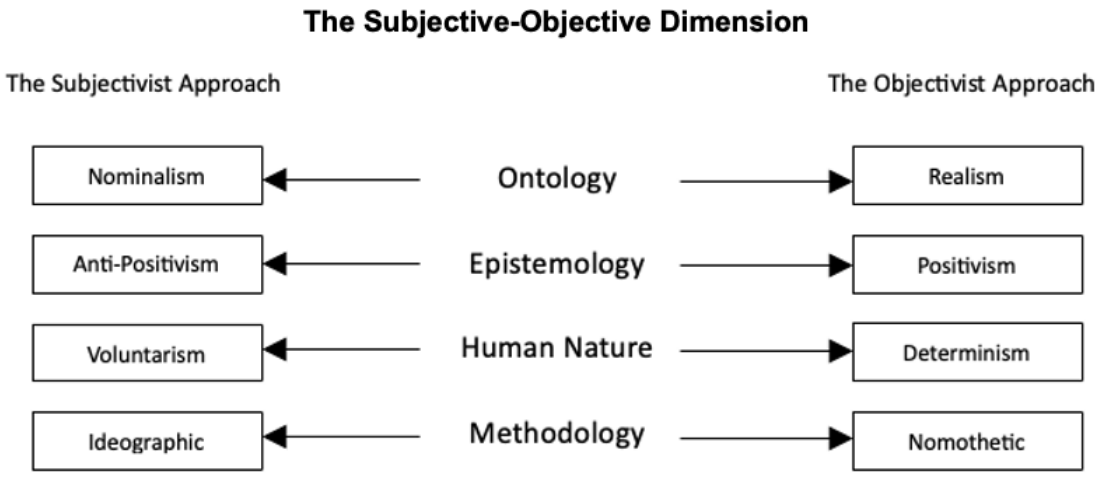

Figure 3-1 : The Subjective-Objective Dimension Continua adapted from Burrell and Morgan (2019)

3.3.1 Objectivism

"Objectivism is an ontological position that implies that social phenomena confront us as external facts that are beyond our reach or influence" (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p. 21). Accordingly, "objectivism embraces realism, which, in its most extreme form, considers social entities to be like physical entities of the natural world, in so far as they exist independently of how we think of them, label them, or even of our awareness of them" (Saunders et al, 2019, p. 135). Epistemologically, positivism is used to "explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements" (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 5). It is based on the works of Comte, Mach, Mill and Pareto and seeks to develop abstract and general theories about how the world functions. "Positivists seek causality and predictability; they test hypotheses" (Alexander, Thomas, Cronin, Fielding, and Moran-Ellis, 2008, p. 138). Furthermore, the objectivist approach identifies with "a determinist view which regards man and his activities as being completely determined by the situation or 'environment' in which he is located" (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 6). This view "suggests that examining the relationships between and among variables is central to answering questions and hypotheses through surveys" (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). Lastly, the nomothetic approach aims to establish broad, generalizable principles that can

be applied to several situations. “It is epitomised in the approach and methods employed in the natural sciences, which focus upon the process of testing hypotheses in accordance with the canons of scientific rigour. It is preoccupied with the construction of scientific tests and the use of quantitative techniques for the analysis of data” (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, pp. 6–7). Essentially, objectivists “focus on deduction, confirmation, theory/hypotheses testing, explanation, prediction, standardized data collection, and statistical analysis” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 18).

3.3.2 Subjectivism

On the other side of the debate there is the subjectivist approach. According to (Saunders at al., 2019, p. 137), “subjectivism incorporates assumptions of the arts and humanities, asserting that social reality is made from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors (people)”. Ontologically, “the nominalist position revolves around the assumption that the social world external to individual cognition is made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels which are used to structure reality” (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 4). Essentially then, “a nominalist ontology views the world as being produced by individuals, and the concepts used to describe it are created by individuals to help them make sense of that world and act within it” (Franco, Hamalainen, Rouwette, and Leppanen, 2020, p. 402). With regards to the epistemological debate, anti-positivists believe that “the social world is essentially relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied” (Burrell and Morgan, 2019, p. 5). Furthermore, regarding the determinist-voluntarist dichotomy, Franco et al. (2020), claim that the subjectivist extreme position asserts that persons are autonomous and accountable for their actions and that their observed actions determine how interventions unfold. This is because everyone is free to either modify their behaviour and “adapt to the intervention ‘script’ or actively try to change it” (Franco et al., 2020, p. 403). Consequently, Saunders et al. (2019) state that subjectivist researchers are interested in the different opinions and narratives that portray the different

social realities experienced by different social actors. They like to focus on the perspectives, experiences, and interpretations of individuals or groups being studied, rather than seeking objective or universal truths. To conduct their research, subjectivists favour qualitative research methods such as interviews or content analysis because such methods allow them to delve into the subjective experiences and meanings that research subjects give to their experiences.

3.4 Research Strategy

“In order to generate new knowledge about social phenomena, researchers need to adopt a logic of enquiry, a research strategy (RS), to answer research questions” (Blaikie, 2007, p. 56). According to Saunders et al. (2019), there are three fundamentally different research strategies: the Deductive, Inductive and Abductive, each offering a distinctive way of answering the proposed research questions. These three distinct strategies will be explored briefly in the following three sub-sections.

3.4.1 Deductive Research Strategy

The deductive strategy is a top-down approach that was first proposed by Popper in 1959 as a deductive logic of explanation. The aim of this research strategy “is to find an explanation for an association between two concepts by proposing a theory, the relevance of which can be tested” (Blaikie, 2010, p. 85). Saunders et al. (2019, p. 153), claim that this is the most common research strategy in the natural sciences, “where laws present the basis of explanation, allow the anticipation of phenomena, predict their occurrence and therefore permit them to be controlled”. Blaikie (2003, p. 309) states that this research strategy consists of “a set of steps for advancing knowledge that starts with a theory or possible explanation and then proceeds to test the theory by deducing from it one or more hypotheses that are then matched against appropriate data”. If the data matches the theory, then the conclusions will be supported, especially if further studies provide similar results, however,

if this is not the case, then the theory must be either modified or rejected (Blaikie, 2007). According to Saunders at al. (2019), deduction has three main characteristics. First, it seeks to explain causal relationships between concepts and variables; secondly, research concepts are operationalised to enable facts to be measured, often quantitatively and finally; generalised findings based on a sufficient and carefully selected sample. “As a scientific approach that emphasises structure, quantification, generalisability and testable hypotheses, the deductive approach is most likely to be underpinned by the positivist research philosophy” (Saunders at al., 2019, p. 154). However, Saunders et al. (2019), state that the emergence of social sciences in the twentieth century made researchers cautious of the deductive approach, namely because of the latter’s cause and effect link between specific variables without considering how research subjects interpreted their social world. Another criticism levelled at the deductive research strategy is that it tends to follow a rigid methodology that restrict alternative explanations of what is happening.

3.4.2 Inductive Research Strategy

“The aim of the Inductive research strategy is to establish limited generalizations about the distribution of, and patterns of association amongst, observed or measured characteristics of individuals and social phenomena” (Blaikie, 2010, p. 83). As such, when researchers adopt an inductive stance, theory becomes the outcome of research. According to Bryman and Bell, (2011), inductive researchers usually follow a grounded theory approach to analyse data and to generate theories. This approach, originally defined by Glaser and Strauss (1967), is considered to be very robust when it comes to generate theories from data. Furthermore, as stated by Saunders et al. (2019), researchers applying an inductive strategy tend to be mostly concerned with the context within which events occur, thus considering it more appropriate to study a small sample of subjects. This method is usually adopted by qualitative researchers who “build their patterns, categories, and themes from the bottom up, by organizing the data into increasingly more abstract units of information”

(Creswell, 2009, p. 175). Applying an inductive research strategy allows these researchers to work changeably between the themes and the database until they establish a comprehensive set of themes.

Sometimes this may also “involve collaborating with the participants interactively, so that participants have a chance to shape the themes or abstractions that emerge from the process” (Creswell, 2009, p. 175). According to Saunders et al. (2019), because of its association with humanities and the significance it gives to subjective interpretations, the inductive research strategy is mostly informed by the interpretivist philosophy. Still, it is important to mention here the several criticisms that have been levelled at this research strategy. In fact, according to Grattan-Guinness (2004), Karl Popper rejected this research method, claiming that the researchers following it could never claim certainty, instead falsification was the key and that the theories developed through this method remained conjectural, no matter how well confirmed. Moreover, Blaikie (2010, p. 85) argues that “while searching for patterns in [the] data is important, there is something unsatisfactory about only establishing patterns [as] such pattern explanations are really only the first step”. In a further criticism about this research strategy, Blaikie (2010, p. 85) emphasised that “it is important to stress that descriptions produced by the Inductive research strategy are limited in time and space and are not universal laws as claimed by its original proponents”.

3.4.3 Abductive Research Strategy

The third research approach is the abductive one. This research strategy applies a different logic to the previous two as it “involves constructing theories that are derived from social actors' language, meanings, and accounts in the context of everyday activities” (Blaikie, 2010, p. 89). “As a foundation for inquiry, abduction begins with an unmet expectation and works backward to invent a plausible world or a theory that would make the surprise meaningful” (Van Maanen, Sorensen, and Mitchell, 2007, p. 1149). In doing so “the Abductive research strategy incorporates what the Inductive and Deductive

research strategies ignore - the meanings and interpretations, the motives and intentions, that people use in their everyday lives, and which direct their behaviour - and elevates them to the central place in social theory and research" (Blaikie, 2010, p. 89). In fact, in addition to the above, Van Maanen et al. (2007, p. 1149) claim that "deduction and induction follow and complement abduction as logics more suitable for the always imperfect testing of plausible theories". According to Saunders et al. (2019), the Abductive approach is quite flexible and can be used by researchers subscribing to different research philosophies, as in the case of many management researchers. Still, they (2019, p. 156) further claim that "a well-developed abductive approach is most likely to be underpinned by pragmatism or postmodernism and can also be underpinned by critical realism". Moreover, citing Peirce (1896), Saunders et al. (2019, p. 156) state that sometimes the abductive research strategy is referred to as "retroduction' which is 'believed to be the original label for what has become known as abduction through corrupt translation and misunderstanding of older philosophical texts".

According to Blaikie (2007, p. 56), literature abounds with logical, theoretical, and ideological debates about the relative merits of using each of these research strategies, yet the reality is that "they constitute four different ways of generating new social scientific knowledge by addressing the problem of where to begin and how to proceed". According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson (2012), each research strategy organizes the research activity, including the collection of data, through techniques that are most probable to achieve the research aims, that is why choosing the right research to theory development is critical. They (2012) suggest three main reasons for this. First, it allows researchers to make reasoned decisions about the research design. Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) contend that this involves considering the kind of information required, how this is to be collected and analysed, and how this will provide good answers to the primary research questions. Secondly, adopting the right approach to theory development enables researchers to identify which research strategies and methods work and those that do not. This will help researchers "to avoid going up too many blind alleys and should

indicate the limitations of particular approaches" (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, p. 17). Third, Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) argue that knowledge of different approaches to theory development enables researchers to adapt and use new research designs to cater for constraints resulting from different subject or knowledge structures.

3.5 Research Approach

Given the research questions and hypotheses of this research and following the arguments brought forward by Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), this thesis would be adopting a deductive research strategy with the aim of producing "generalizable knowledge through testing of hypothetical predictions deduced from a priori theory" (Duberley and Johnson, 2015, p. 69). This is because having adopted a functionalist perspective, which is situated on the objectivist and regulation dimensions, this research is mainly "concerned with rational explanations and developing sets of recommendations within the current structures" (Saunders et al, 2019, p. 140). According to Kelemen and Rumens (2008, p. 23), "functionalist theories [and management models] make claims of generalisability across time and space…reinforcing the idea that models that work in the context in which they have been developed will work in most other contexts, providing they are correctly implemented and monitored". Carrying out this research within the functionalist paradigm essentially means that both Study 1 and Study 2 are rooted in positivist research philosophy, therefore both studies would be focusing "on [a] strictly scientific empiricist method designed to yield pure data and facts uninfluenced by human interpretation or bias" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 144). Being underpinned by such a scientific approach, Study 1 and Study 2 would be adopting a quantitative research design involving "predetermined and highly structured data collection techniques" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 176). Such an approach will contribute towards "the development of management and organizational research [which] has been characterised by the domination of positivism as an underlying philosophy" (Duberley and Johnson, 2015, p. 68).

Having adopted a positive philosophical posture, ontologically both Study 1 and Study 2 are based on a realist stance. According to Crotty (2003), such a notion asserts that reality exists independently of one's consciousness and that this implies objectivism, an epistemological stance asserting that meaning exists in objects independently of any consciousness. Also, being grounded in positivism, this research aims to generate and test laws which govern the ways in which a Maltese public service organisation operates. "This concern to develop causal propositions supported by data and logic underpins an emphasis on experimental and cross-sectional survey research designs" (Duberley and Johnson, 2015, p. 68). As stated by Creswell (2009, p. 19), "since quantitative studies are the traditional mode of research, carefully worked out procedures and rules exist for them". Adopting a positivist methodology also effects the relationship between the researcher and the research subjects. In fact, when applying such a positivist method, "the researcher remains a detached observer and…attempts are made to remove any potential sources of bias through the use of standardised tools and the replication of research" (Duberley and Johnson, 2015, p. 68). The researcher's personal experiences and past studies influenced the choice of this research approach. The guidance of the researcher's supervisors, past training in technical and scientific writing and familiarity with quantitative research, led the researcher to adopt a quantitative approach. Also, being a highly systematic person, the researcher is more comfortable with the objective and highly systematic procedures of quantitative research.

Such objectivity is applied throughout the course of the research project. According to Duberley and Johnson (2015, p. 68) "the researcher is assumed to adopt a value-free position and little consideration is given to political or emotional issues". Collis and Hussey (2014) agree with this and claim that the behaviour of research subjects' can be measured objectively. To achieve this, the researcher must consider and explain the behaviour of research subjects deterministically: "as necessary responses to empirically observable, measurable causal variables and antecedent conditions" (Duberley and Johnson, 2015, p. 69). To this effect, this thesis would be examining the extent

to which leadership behaviours, specifically transformational leadership, and destructive leadership influence followers' affective commitment towards organisation change. The thesis also aims to evaluate the mediating role of voice, readiness for change and resistance to change on such relationships. These correlating relationships' variables would be examined using cross-sectional survey questionnaires. In the following sections, the research design and the applied research plan for this thesis will be looked at.

3.6 Research Design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014, p. 125), the "research design constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data". Essentially then, it is the general plan to be followed by the researcher to answer the proposed research questions. As said by Saunders et al. (2019), it contains clear purpose derived from the research questions, specifies the sources from which data will be collected, the way in which such data is to be collected and analysed, and the ethical issues and constraints that will be encountered throughout the process. These several aspects of the research design will be looked at in the following sections.

Regarding the purpose of one's research, Saunders et al. (2019) argue that the nature of the research can be exploratory, descriptive, explanatory or a combination of these, depending on how these fit with the adopted research philosophy and methodology. Also, it must be emphasised that these distinct research purposes are not incompatible, and that the choice of any type depends on the research's objective and question. According to Sekaran (2003, p. 119), "exploratory [studies are] undertaken when not much is known about the situation at hand, or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past". As such, they are used by researchers who must ask open questions to establish what is going on and acquire insights about the subject being studied. On the other hand, descriptive studies are undertaken "to ascertain and be able to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest in a situation" (Sekaran, 2003, p.

121). Essentially then, Sekaran (2003) claims that the aim of descriptive studies is to offer researchers a profile or a description of the relevant aspects of the phenomena of interest from an individual, organizational, industry-oriented, or other perspective. Furthermore, there are studies of an explanatory nature which are considered to be an extension of descriptive studies. According to Cooper and Schindler (2014), explanatory studies go beyond description and attempt to explain the reasons for the phenomenon observed by descriptive studies. Such studies that investigate the relationship between two or more variables are also known as correlational studies.

This research has both a descriptive and an explanatory purpose. By looking at the effects of leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to organisational change, this research incorporates the very nature of a descriptive investigation. Also, this research attempts to explain the direction and strength of leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment when such a relationship is mediated by voice, readiness for change and resistance to change and the moderating effect of participation. Such attempts make this research an explanatory one as it tries to establish causal relationships between variables.

3.6.1 The Applied Research Plan

According to Saunders et al. (2019), there are different ways as to how a researcher can answer the proposed research questions including experiments, surveys, documentary research, case studies, ethnography, action research, grounded theory, and narrative inquiry. Although each of these plans have the capacity to assist in the undertaking of a research project, the choice "will be guided by [the] research question(s) and objectives, the coherence with which these link to [the researcher's] philosophy, research approach and purpose…the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources [that are] available and access to potential participants and other sources of data" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 190). When the researcher took all the above into consideration, a decision was made to adopt

a survey strategy to answer the proposed research questions. However, prior to conducting the survey, the researcher developed a model (Figure 1-1) depicting the independent, mediating, and dependent variables that are to be tested in this research and to show the expected relationships among them. This model will be tested against observations of the phenomena following the construction of the survey.

“A survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population” (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). The survey design is very popular in business and management literature (Bligh, Kohles, and Yan, 2018; Hansbrough and Schyns, 2018; Ling, Guo, and Chen, 2018; Podsakoff et al., 1996; van der Voet, 2016; Yue, Men, and Ferguson, 2019), and as claimed by Saunders et al. (2019), it is frequently employed in descriptive and exploratory research studies. According to Bell (1996), surveys allow multiple variables to be studied simultaneously, the costs to develop and administer them are relatively low and make it easier for the researcher to make generalisations. Surveys are popular because they are considered to be “authoritative by people in general and [are] comparatively easy to explain and to understand” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 193). Moreover, Saunders et al. (2019) claim that survey research enables the researcher to collect data which can then be analysed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics.

However, as with any other research plan, there are certain problems related to surveys and these must be taken into consideration and addressed by the researcher. According to Saunders et al. (2019), the data collected through surveys might be limited relative to that collected by other research strategies. Moreover, Bryman and Bell (2011) state that there are problems of meaning, when subjects interpret questions differently; problems of omission, when respondents omit key terms in a question; and problems of memory, when participants forget episodes of particular types of behaviour. Besides, certain subjects might reply “in ways that are meant to be consistent with their perceptions of the desirability of certain kinds of answer [whilst for some

others] some questions may appear threatening and result in failure to provide an honest answer" (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p. 271). However, according to Saunders et al. (2019), the biggest drawback when conducting a survey is the capacity of the researcher to do it badly.

3.6.2 The Data Collection Method

According to Saunders et al. (2019), when adopting a quantitative research design, a researcher must choose between one of two options. These two alternatives are the mono-method where the researcher uses "a single data collection technique, such as a questionnaire, and a corresponding quantitative analytical procedure' (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 178); and the multi-method, that entails the use of 'more than one quantitative data collection technique and corresponding analytical procedure" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 178). Both Study 1 and Study 2 adopted the mono-method approach to test the hypotheses by examining the causal relationships among the independents, mediating and dependent variables. This was carried out by means of specific statistical techniques and models as will be discussed later in this chapter. This is common practice when one is developing and testing a conceptual research model as presented earlier in this thesis. This approach was followed when conducting both Study 1 and Study 2.

3.6.3 The Research's Time Horizon

Saunders et al. (2019) claim that essentially there are two time horizons that can be adopted for one's research, these being cross-sectional or longitudinal. Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 53) state that "a cross-sectional design entails the collection of data on more than one case (usually quite a lot more than one) and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables (usually many more than two), which are then examined to detect patterns of association". On the other hand, a "longitudinal design represents a distinct form of research design that is typically used to map change in business and management research"

(Bryman and Bell, 2011, p. 57). Both Study 1 and Study 2 are a cross-sectional investigation on the effects of leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change. As such, the researcher will be getting a snapshot of how the several variables are associated with each other.

The reasons behind opting for two cross-sectional studies are several. First, cross-sectional studies are often employed with survey strategies (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Collis and Hussey, 2014; Creswell, 2009). Secondly, the researcher is trying to investigate the prevalence of some outcome (in this case, followers' reactions to leadership behaviours) at a certain moment in time, in which case cross-sectional studies would be most effective. Third, cross-sectional studies enable the researcher to collect data about several variables simultaneously which is very useful when considering that this study is interested in making inferences about the nature and strength of the relationships among such variables. Fourth, cross-sectional studies are relatively inexpensive and are conducted once, thus being less time consuming.

3.6.4 The Stages of the Research Project

At the very beginning of the research project, and following discussions with the supervisors, the researcher developed a proposal consisting of the main research question together with the plans and objectives of this thesis. This was critical as it provided a blueprint for the research project. Also, in liaison with the supervisors, the theoretical foundation was established, to help guide the research in the right direction and provide an outline of the variables to be included in the empirical part on this thesis.

This stage was followed by a review of the literature. Here, the researcher picked out, analysed, and interpreted relevant and up-to-date literature produced by scholars with the aim of visualising and support the theoretical model envisaging the effects of different leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment. Specifically, the review of the literature helped the

researcher to flesh out the research subject, specify more clearly the research questions, and establish the hypotheses to be tested.

Following this, Study 1 was undertaken to test the main theory. This enabled the researcher to test the research method and, if required, improve it. Following this, the Study 2 was undertaken. This was followed by an analysis of the results and a discussion of the findings.

3.6.5 Study 1

Study 1 was an initial test of the research model to determine whether problems exist that need to be addressed or whether the model needs to be refined. As such, it presented the researcher with the initial opportunity to undertake an actual investigation of the main theory presented in the literature review and the research model. This was done to establish the suitability of the proposed research model and to refine it where relevant in terms of survey format adequacy, wording of the questionnaire, scales and questions' validity and reliability and completion time. Essentially then, the overall aim was to provide an appropriate critique of and fine tune the applied research strategy and ensure that the main theory is well developed and applicable to the research at hand. Accordingly, the conclusions of Study 1 were used to refine the research model and validate the plan of Study 2.

3.6.6 Study 2

After adjusting the research model and replacing and excluding certain scales based on the results obtained from the Study 1, the researcher undertook Study 2. The latter served as the primary source of data and investigation for the scope of this research. Whilst Study 1 served as a testing ground for the main theory and the applied research strategy, Study 2 was undertaken to generate results related to the relevant variables. As in Study 1, these were then analysed to test for specific relationships between variables as expressed in the generated hypotheses and to confirm or refute such. In this regard, eight

hypotheses were tested. The sampling, data collection, and data analysis techniques applied for Study 2 are explained in subsequent sections within this chapter. The observations made based on the results obtained from Study 2 are presented in the findings chapter of this thesis, to be followed by a chapter presenting the final conclusions and recommendations.

3.6.7 Defining the Research Population

According to Saunders et al. (2019, p. 294) a sample "should represent the population from which it is taken in a way that is meaningful and which can justify in relation to answering [the] research question and meeting [the] objectives of the study". As stated earlier, the focus here is to analyse the effects of leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change within a Maltese public service organisation. The main reason for this particular focus is that over the recent past, this Maltese public service organisation went through a series of changes aimed at changing the organisation's culture. This change programme was referred to as The Renewal of the Public Service and it effected all organisation members, be those in leadership positions and followers. The former were made responsible to provide overall change leadership by mapping the vision, objectives, and plans for this change, whilst the latter were expected to show commitment and support the implementation of this change programme.

To this effect, Study 2 targeted this Maltese public service organisation members, both those in leadership positions and those occupying followership ones. In agreement with the gatekeeper of this organisation, those in leadership positions consisted of those holding senior leadership positions until the grade of Assistant Director. The rest were considered to be holding followership positions. All organisation members in possession of an official email address were eligible to participate on a voluntary basis. The only qualification that was made affected those in a leadership position as only those having three or more followers were allowed to participate. According to Lavrakas, (2008), when participants volunteer to be included in the sample,

self-selection sampling is introduced. This is one of the non-probability sampling techniques that are available and that became “far more prevalent with the rapid growth of online questionnaires” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 315). As such, in self-selection sampling “the inclusion or exclusion of sampling units is determined by whether the units themselves agree or decline to participate in the sample, either explicitly or implicitly” (Lavrakas, 2008, p. 806). There are two main reasons behind the adoption of this sampling technique for Study 2.

First, the researcher found it very difficult to find an organisation willing to participate in Study 2. The researcher approached another two organisations prior to settling for this Maltese public service organisation, one of the organisations was an international hospitality sector player and the other was one of the main three players in the Maltese communications’ sector. Both companies were approached because the researcher was aware that they had just went through a process of change, therefore they would have provided an ideal context. However, both organisations refused to participate at the last-minute citing confidentiality issues, this considerably increased the time constraints faced by the researcher.

The second reason related to the actual sampling method. The researcher was interested in the views of both leaders and followers, as such the original idea was to use the snowball sampling technique, starting from the leaders, and moving on to their immediate followers. Such technique was considered to be the best as it was difficult to specifically identify the desired initial participants, having leaders with three or more immediate followers. The difficulty arose from the fact that not even the gatekeeper had such information available. At the end of the leaders’ questionnaire, respondents were given a link to followers’ questionnaire and were asked to disseminate such to their immediate subordinates. The questionnaires had an imbedded unique login-id to link them together, thereby allowing the researcher to verify that the followers’ questionnaires corresponded to those of their direct leaders. However, when this technique was implemented, the response rate from both leaders and followers was practically negligible and the researcher had to

terminate the exercise. When the researcher contacted the main gatekeeper about this issue, the reply was that people were not answering the questionnaires because of the sensitivity of the subject being researched (the effects of leadership behaviours of immediate supervisors) and because the change programme in this Maltese public service organisation was implemented by the incumbent political party in government and many organisation members thought that there was a political connotation to it, thus they were afraid to participate. This although the researcher specifically stated in the introductory note and the consent form that that the anonymity of participants was ensured. In fact, the researcher had no way of knowing the identity of respondents, be it leaders or followers. Moreover, the researcher was advised by the gatekeeper to stop using the snowball sampling technique and to disseminate the leaders' and followers' questionnaires separately, resulting in the researchers not being able to infer anything about the relationship of the variables between the two samples.

These issues led the researcher to adopt the self-selection sampling technique. Moreover, this issue also affected the hypotheses to be tested. Whereas originally, both leaders and followers were to be requested to fill a similar questionnaire and test the same hypotheses, with the changes requested from the gatekeeper, this was no longer possible. Therefore, a decision was made so that with regards to leaders, the research will test hypotheses related to the respective relationships between promotive and prohibitive voice, readiness for change and resistance to change on affective commitment to change. With regards to followers, a decision was made to test hypotheses related to the direct relationship between transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change, the mediating effect of readiness for change on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change and the mediating effect of resistance to change on the relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change.

Self-selection sampling is ideal for studies where the researcher wants to stay at a distance from the participants so as not to influence them. Furthermore, according to Greenacre (2016) self-selection sampling is generally used with an online survey strategy where potential participants from a defined population are invited to participate, as in the case of Study 2. According to Khazaal, van Singer, Chatton, Achab, Zullino, Rothen, Khan, Billieux, and Thorens (2014), one advantage of this sampling technique is that it benefits the researcher regarding the time needed to sample participants as the latter chose to participate on their own accord. Furthermore, Khazaal et al. (2014), claim that as participants take part voluntarily, the will to do so is a result of their involvement in the place of work and in the proposed studies. Also, having volunteered to participate reflects a certain level of commitment from participants, thereby increasing the likelihood of contributing intuitively to the research exercise (Khazaal et al., 2014). This is exactly what the researcher required to meet the objectives of Study 2. Still, this does not mean that all is rosy and as with any other sampling method, there are some limitations with this technique. According to Sharma (2017), there might be the risk of self-selection bias leading to either overrepresentation or underrepresentation of the sample. This can lead to lower general validity of the results obtained. Furthermore, Buelens, Burger and van den Brakel (2018), estimating sample variability and identifying possible biases can be challenging. Notwithstanding these potential disadvantages, self-selection sampling is a popular technique in business research (Kim, 2014; Michaelis, Stegmaier and Sonntag, 2009; Oreg, 2006; van Dam, Oreg and Schyns, 2008; van der Voet, 2016).

3.6.8 Designing and Constructing the Data Collection Method

The survey strategy generally makes use of a questionnaire to collect data. “A questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions, which have been chosen after considerable testing with a view to eliciting reliable responses from a particular group of people” (Collis and Hussey, 2014, p. 205). The aim is to find out what participants think, do or feel to be able to answer the research questions. Two questionnaires were developed, one for leaders and

the other for followers. The questionnaire developed for leaders was only disseminated during Study 2, however the one developed for followers was used to collect data for both Study 1 and 2. Although in the latter case, the disseminated questionnaire was a refined one, the researcher having changed and removed some variables based on the results obtained from Study 1.

The researcher has been informed by the gatekeeper that on average Maltese Public Service officers receive between four and six questionnaires to fill per month. Compounding this, Rolstad, Adler and Ryden (2011), argue that participants tend to suffer from response burden, the effort required from them to answer a questionnaire. They further state that this response burden is affected by "factors such as questionnaire length, density of sampling, cognitive load required [for] completing the survey, and layout and interface of the reporting format" (Rolstad et al., 2011, p. 1101). Keeping these issues in mind, the researcher designed two relatively concise questionnaires, estimating that it will only take respondents approximately ten minutes for the followers' questionnaire and eight minutes for the leaders' questionnaire to complete. The final questionnaires were designed using Qualtrics, a web-based software provided by the University of Durham that allow researchers to design and construct questionnaires to be administered to the target population by means of an online survey. When constructing the questionnaires, the researcher considered the order and flow of such and introduced four well-defined sections considered to be logical to respondents.

The first section of the questionnaires consisted of the introductory note, presenting the researcher details, followed by the scope of the research, and informing participants the approximate time to complete the questionnaire and that participation is on a voluntary basis. The second section consisted of the consent form. Here the title of the project, and the contact details of the researcher and the supervisor were presented. Moreover, participants were made to give their consent after reading the participant information sheet that was attached to a hyperlink. Those who did not give their consent were not allowed to continue to proceed to the next section of the questionnaire.

Moreover, this section of the leaders' questionnaire also held a check question asking participants whether they had more than three direct followers. Those who answered negatively to this question where not allowed to proceed either.

The third section of the questionnaire contained the actual questions that respondents had to answer. All questions were rating questions that used the "Likert-style rating in which the respondent is asked how strongly she or he agrees or disagrees with a statement or series of statements" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 523). In the case of both questionnaires a five-point rating scale was used. This type of scale is considered to be easy to understand and use by respondents. Moreover, according to Babakus and Mangold (1992, p. 771), "the five-point format would reduce the frustration level of the respondent[s] and would thereby increase the response rate and the quality of the responses". Furthermore, prior business research projects made use of the five-point rating scale (Du, Li, and Luo, 2020; Hansbrough and Schyns, 2018; van Dam, Oreg, and Schyns, 2008; van der Voet, 2016), proving that this scale is effective. Several multiple item scales were used for both questionnaires all designed to measure different aspects that effect followers' affective commitment to change. Also, to increase the quality of responses, an attention question was introduced in both questionnaires. The aim of attention questions is to 'catch unmotivated respondents who may harm data quality by not reading questions carefully, speeding through surveys, skipping questions, [or] answering randomly' (Geisen, 2022).

The leaders' questionnaire contained scales related to affective commitment, promotive voice, prohibitive voice, readiness for change, and resistance to change. On the other hand, the followers' questionnaire had scales related to transformational leadership, abusive supervision, readiness for change, resistance to change, and affective commitment. The leadership questionnaire had the voice scales because the researcher was interested in knowing the attitudes of leaders towards followers' voice, be it promotive and prohibitive. On the other hand, leadership behaviour scales were included in the followers' questionnaire as the researcher was interested in how followers rate the

behaviours of their immediate superiors. To ensure the scientific standing of this research, all the scales used were adopted and adapted from ones developed and implemented by other scholars. According to Saunders et al. (2019, p. 519), “adopting or adapting questions may be necessary…to replicate, or to compare…findings with another study [and] can allow reliability to be assessed”.

The fourth section of the questionnaire focused on demographic information. To this effect, respondents were requested to give information about gender, age group, employment tenure, level of education, qualifications obtained, and, in the case of followers, the span of time spent reporting to their current leader. Tables 3-1 and 3-2 below present the variables and scale items used for leaders’ and followers’ questionnaires and the sources from which these have been adopted and adapted.

Table 3-1 : Leader Questionnaire Variables and Scale Items

Variable and Scale Items	Answer Scale	Source
Affective Commitment to Change		
• Values the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Agrees that the introduction of the changes is a good strategy for the organisation. • Agrees that top management is making a mistake by introducing the changes in the organisation. • Agrees that the introduction of the changes in the organisation serves an important purpose. • Agrees that things would be better without the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Agrees that the introduction of the changes in the organisation is not necessary.	1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree;	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002).
Promotive Voice		
• Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the changes in the organisation’s implementation process. • Proactively suggest new approaches which are beneficial to the changes in the organisation’s implementation process. • Raise suggestions to improve the changes in the organisation’s implementation process. • Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the changes in the organisation’s implementation process. • Makes constructive suggestions to improve the chances in the organisation’s implementation process.	1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree;	Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012).
Prohibitive Voice		
• Advice other colleagues against undesirable behaviours that would hamper the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Speak up honestly with problems in the changes in the organisation’s implementation process that might cause serious loss to the organisation, even when/though dissenting opinions exist. • Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect the efficiency of the changes in the organisation’s implementation process, even if that would embarrass others. • Dare to point out problems in the changes in the organisation’s implementation process when they appear, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues. • Proactively report coordination problems in the changes in the organisation’s implementation process.	1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree;	Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012).

Resistance to Change		
• Is afraid of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Has a bad feeling about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Is made upset by the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Is stressed by the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Look for ways to prevent the introduction of the changes in the organisation from taking place. • Protest against the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Complain about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Present objections about the introduction of the changes in the organisation to me. • Believes that the introduction of the changes harm the way things are done in the organisation. • Thinks that it is a negative thing that the organisation is introducing the changes. • Believes that the introduction of the changes in the organisation would make their job harder. • Is quite excited about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Speaks rather highly of the introduction of the changes in the organisation to others. • Believes that the introduction of the changes in the organisation would benefit the organisation. • Believes that we could personally benefit from the introduction of the changes in the organisation.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Oreg (2006).
Readiness for Change		
• Works more because of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Helps to solve the organisation's problem with the introduction of the changes. • Is part of the introduction of the changes in the organisation's project. • Creates new ideas regarding the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Do things in a new or creative way to introduce the changes in the organisation. • Change the way it works because of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Takes responsibility for the introduction of the changes in the organisation if these failed in their area. • Is part of the introduction of the changes in the organisation programme. • Learns new things. • Changes things even if they appeared to be working. • Supports the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Sell ideas about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • Makes the introduction of the changes in the organisation fail. • Improves what we were doing rather than implementing the changes in the organisation, which constitute a major change.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Hanpachern, Morgan, and Griego (1998).

Table 3-2 : Followers' Questionnaire Variables and Scale Items

Variable and Scale Items	Answer Scale	Source
Transformational Leadership		
• Is always seeking new opportunities for the unit/department/organisation. • Paints an interesting picture of the future for my group. • Has a clear understanding of where my group is going. • Inspires others with his/her plans for the future. • Is able to get others committed to his/her dream of the future. • Leads by 'doing' rather than simply by 'telling'. • Provides a good model to follow. • Leads by example. • Fosters collaboration among work groups. • Encourages followers to be 'team players'. • Gets the group to work together for the same goal. • Develops a team attitude and spirit among his/her followers. • Shows us that he/she expects a lot from us. • Insists on only the best performance. • Will not settle for second best. • Acts without considering my feelings. • Shows respect for my personal feelings. • Behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs. • Treats me without considering my personal feelings. • Has provided me with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle for me. • Has ideas that has forced me to rethink some of my own ideas I have never questioned before. • Has stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990).

Destructive Leadership		
• Breaks promises he/she makes. • Lies to me. • Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment. • Gives me the silent treatment. • Express anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason. • Is rude to me. • Does not allow me to interact with my colleagues. • Invades my privacy. • Ridicules me • Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid. • Puts me down in front of others. • Makes negative comments about me to others. • Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures. • Does not give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort. • Tells me I am incompetent.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Tepper (2000).
Readiness for Change		
• To work more because of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To help solve the challenges offered by the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To be part of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To make the introduction of the changes in the organisation fail. • To do things in a new or creative way because of the changes in the organisation. • To change the way I work because of the changes in the organisation. • To take responsibility for the changes in the organisation if these fail in my area. • To be part of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To learn new things due to the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To change something even if it appears to be working. • To support the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • To improve what we are currently doing rather than implement the changes in the organisation. • To sell ideas about the introduction of the changes in the organisation.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Hanpachern, Morgan, and Griego (1998).
Resistance to Change		
• I am afraid of the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • I have a bad feeling about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • The introduction of the changes in the organisation makes me upset. • I am stressed by the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • I look for ways to prevent the introduction of the changes in the organisation from taking place. • I protest against the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • I complain about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • I present objections about the introduction of the changes in the organisation to me. • I believe that the introduction of the changes harm the way things are done in the organisation. • I think that it is a negative thing that the organisation is introducing the changes. • I believe that the introduction of the changes in the organisation would make their job harder. • I am quite excited about the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • I speak rather highly of the introduction of the changes in the organisation to others. • I believe that the introduction of the changes in the organisation would benefit the organisation. • I believe that we could personally benefit from the introduction of the changes in the organisation.	1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always;	Oreg (2006).
Affective Commitment to Change		
• I believe in the value of the changes in the organisation. • The introduction of the changes is a good strategy for the organisation. • I think that top management is doing a mistake by introducing the changes in the organisation. • The introduction of the changes in the organisation serves an important purpose. • Things would be better without the introduction of the changes in the organisation. • The introduction of the changes in the organisation are not necessary.	1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree;	Herscovitch and Meyer (2002).

3.6.9 Analysing the Data

According to Blaikie (2003), once the required data is collected, it would be possible to verify whether, and to what extent, the research questions can be answered, and data analysis is a very important step in doing so. The analysis of data consists of the application of various methods aimed at describing “the characteristics of social phenomena, and to understand, explain and predict patterns in social life or in the relationships between aspects of social phenomena” (Blaikie, 2003, p. 29). To test for reliability and validity of the variables’ scales, the researcher used Cronbach’s alpha and correlation analysis.

3.6.9.1 Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient

Both leaders’ and followers’ questionnaires assessed personal characteristics that cannot be observed directly. Moreover, both questionnaires contained different scales, each containing multiple items addressing slightly different, though related, aspects of the variable. According to Allen, Bennett, and Heritage (2019, p. 243), “because these items are all assessing the same underlying construct, people should respond to them consistently”. As Allen et al. (2019) claim that Cronbach’s alpha is an index of this consistency, it was used to measure each scale’s reliability.

3.6.9.2 Correlation

According to Pallant (2016, p. 150), “correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables”. According to Field (2015, p. 267), there are two types of correlation, “bivariate correlation, which is a relationship between two variables [and] partial correlation, which quantifies the relationship between two variables while ‘controlling’ the effect of one or more additional variables”. To measure the extent to which two variables are correlated, the researcher used a correlated coefficient. Following in the footsteps of other business and management

research, both Study 1 and Study 2 used Pearson's correlation techniques to measure the strength of the relationships between any two variables. The results are presented in a correlation matrix for ease of reference. Correlation analysis was used in Study 2 to test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8.

3.6.9.3 Regression Analyses

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), regression analyses are a set of statistical techniques used widely in business research to analyse relationships between two or more variables. Usually, researchers try to establish the causal effect of one variable upon another and to achieve this they assemble "data on the underlying variables of interest and employ regression to estimate the quantitative effect of the causal variables upon the variable that they influence" (Sykes, 1993, p. 1). The statistical techniques used in Study 2 will be looked at next.

3.6.9.3.1 The Simple Mediation Model

According to Hayes (2018, p. 6), "establishing association does not translate into deep understanding even when a causal association can be established". In fact, Hayes (2018) further argues that we get to know a phenomenon better when we can answer not only whether an independent variable affects a dependent variable, but also how the independent variable exerts its effect on the dependent variable. To establish this, the researcher conducted mediation analysis (as depicted in Figure 3-2) to quantify and examine the direct and indirect effects of X on Y through M. The Simple Mediation Model is used in Study 2 to test Hypotheses 4 and 9.

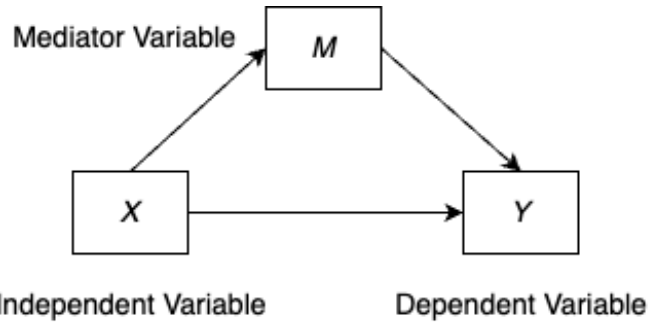

Figure 3-2 : A Simple Mediation Model with a single mediator variable causally located between X and Y

3.6.9.4 Statistical Analysis Software

Statistical analysis was conducted using IBM SPSS 28 statistical software platform. SPSS was used for all the statistical analyses related to this thesis namely, reliability, correlations, and descriptive statistics. Furthermore, mediation analysis was undertaken using Model 4 of Hayes' PROCESS Version 4.2 macro (2022 release) as an add-on to SPSS to estimate both the main direct effect and indirect effects.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Business and management research nearly always involves human participants, and this gives rise to ethical concerns. "In the context of research, ethics refer to the standards of behaviour that guide [a researcher's] conduct in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of [one's] work or are affected by it" (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 253). These standards of behaviour are informed by several aspects such as legislation, rules, and guidelines. With regards to the legal aspect, the researcher ensured that the research is undertaken in accordance with the Maltese data Protection Act (CAP586), the United Kingdom's Data Protection Act 2018, and Regulation (EU) 2016/679 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data. Furthermore, the research was undertaken in accordance with the Common Awards Research Ethics Policy and Guidance issued by the University of Durham in 2017.

Essentially, the researcher made sure to address all the ethical issues related to Study 2. Prior to undertaking the research, permission in writing was sought from the Maltese public service organisation. To obtain such permission, the researcher informed the gatekeeper about the nature of Study 2 and shared copies of both questionnaires so that these can be vetted. Furthermore, participants were obliged to give their informed consent prior to undertaking the questionnaires. Again, participants were informed about the nature of Stdy 2, their participation in it and the intended use of the collected data. Participants were also informed that they can withdraw from the research and withdraw their consent during the data gathering phase. Additionally, the researcher respected and ensured the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. In fact, all responses were anonymised, and no identifying information was collected. Prior to undertaking the actual research, ethics approval by means of the Ethics Approval Form was sought. To this effect, a research proposal was submitted to the Ethics Committee and the research was undertaken only after approval was obtained.

4 Study 1

This chapter reports on the methodology used and the results obtained when conducting Study 1 together with a discussion on how these findings affected the undertaking of Study 2. Essentially, Study 1 constituted of a smaller version of Study 2 and was conducted with a group of participants similar to that of Study 2. The purpose behind the undertaking of Study 1 was “to refine ‘the questionnaire so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data” (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2019, p. 540). To do so, in Study 1 the researcher tested a number of hypotheses so that Study 2 will not contain redundant concepts. Therefore, as confirmed by van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001), the scope of a well-designed and well-conducted Study 1 was to inform the researcher about the best research process and occasionally about likely outcomes. The 308 participants of Study 1 were adults between the age of eighteen and sixty-five, living in the United Kingdom that have experienced some form of organisational change in the recent past. This study tested several hypotheses, H1; H4; H5; H6; H9; and H10; to test both transformational leadership and destructive leadership within one statistical model. For each case, the alternative leadership style was used as a control variable. This was done to investigate the unique effect of each leadership style.

To this effect, this chapter focuses on the methods and data collection procedures applied, and the implications and conclusions for Study 2. It will start by explaining the methodology applied. Then the sample and the design of Study 1 will be looked at to be followed by the measures used and the approach to the analysis. Following this, the results obtained will be covered and a discussion on the findings is presented.

4.1 Methodology

Most business research studies use either qualitative or quantitative research or a mixed methods approach. Study 1 adopted a quantitative research method. According to Saunders et al. (2019, p. 176), such an approach is usually “associated with positivism, especially when used with predetermined and highly structured data collection techniques”. Moreover, such a research method is normally linked to a deductive approach, whose purpose is to collect and analyse data to test a theory. Study 1 used a single data collection technique, a questionnaire that has been disseminated to a sample through an online survey and associated data collection and analysis techniques.

4.1.1 Sample and Design

Study 1 was undertaken in May 2020 over a period of one week, and it consisted of a questionnaire that was formulated in English using Qualtrics and was disseminated through a cross-sectional survey to a specific source, followers in organisations. The cross-sectional study was considered to be the most feasible and efficient way of undertaking Study 1 as it gives a snapshot of how variables are related at a given point in time. In preparation for Study 1, the researcher disseminated it to ten experienced persons based in several European countries, specifically Malta, the UK, Portugal, and Hungary. In accordance with Power, Velez, Qadafi, and Tennant (2018), the aim of this exercise was to allow these persons to comment and provide their views on item lucidity and clearness, therefore enhancing the survey’s validity. As a result, the researcher was able to make any required changes prior to undertaking Study 1.

An ethics application form was submitted to the Ethics Committee of the Business School of Durham University and the research was undertaken in accordance with Durham University’s Participants Charter. Participation in the survey was done on a voluntary basis and participants were informed that they can withdraw at any time without giving a reason if they felt uncomfortable to

continue. All data was provided unanimously and there was no way of linking the responses back to specific respondents. Also, all collected data was retained in a secure manner. All research data and records required to validate the findings of Study 1 will be stored by the lead researcher for a period of ten years after the publication of the results. All respondents were informed in this regard by means of a Participant Information Sheet that accompanied the questionnaire. No potential harms were associated with Study 1.

To undertake the online survey, the researcher commissioned Respondi, a major market research organization in Europe. The data was collected from persons working on a full-time basis in the United Kingdom. These had to be aged between 18 years and 65 years and must have experienced a recent (over the past six months) change in their respective organization. For the respondents' sample, gender was reasonably evenly distributed, having 52.92% males and 47.08% females, with 79.22% having been working for their organization for more than three years.

It was estimated that at maximum it will take fifteen minutes for every respondent to finish the survey. The sample size of n=308 was collected after screening out from 1232 participants. The reason behind the screening exercise was the two screening questions inserted into the questionnaire by the researcher aimed at filtering respondents. The first screening question asked respondents whether their organisation experienced change in the recent past. Six hundred and fifty-one respondents replied negatively and were not allowed to continue with the questionnaire, corresponding to 73.39% of those ineligible to continue with the survey. The second question was an attention check question. According to Kung, Kwok, and Brown (2018, p. 265), "the most popular form of attention check is instructed-response items, which are items embedded in a scale with an obvious correct answer". In this survey, the attention check question asked respondents to state the colour of the grass, to which they were specifically instructed to give a specific response. Attention check questions allow respondents to see and reply to them, however those who respond incorrectly will not be allowed to continue

answering the remaining questions of the survey. The screening out resulting from the attention check question was that of two hundred and twenty-six, corresponding to 25.48% of those not eligible to continue.

Moreover, the researcher also conducted tests to identify poor quality survey data. This can be the case due to several reasons such as having respondents taking the survey at unreasonably fast speed, thus not being fully engaged or they can also go on a mental autopilot whilst completing parts of the survey. To check for respondents who might have completed the survey too fast, the researcher by means of SPSS software measured the mean and the median of all those who answered the whole survey. The exercise revealed that the mean for respondents to complete the survey was 21.50 minutes, whilst the median, which is equivalent to 50% of the respondents, was 9 minutes. This difference could mean that there were some far outliers who took an extremely long time to complete the survey. This could be for one of two reasons; some respondents might have left a tab open in their browser when they were going through the survey and decided to continue after several hours, Qualtrics will interpret this as being a very long survey, or respondents might have actually went through the survey in under 9 minutes but then forgot to close out or press the exit button and, again, Qualtrics assumes that such respondents were still undertaking the survey. In this regard, Qualtrics highlighted a number of outliers who took very long to complete the survey (1144 minutes, 975 minutes, 365 minutes, 326 minutes, 192 minutes, 111 minutes).

Looking at the percentiles presented in Table 4-1 below, several issues can be noticed. 85% of respondents took less than 17 minutes to complete the survey. Moreover, Table 4-1 shows that the bottom 20% took less than 6 minutes to complete the survey, meaning that these respondents simply ran through the survey. However, as no pre-test has been done to establish with confidence the least amount of time that a participant would take to finish the survey whilst remaining fully engaged, the researcher had to guess whether these 20% of respondents did take the survey in a credible manner. This was a long survey, so respondents might have started to just click through, or the incentive of

£0.75 given was not strong enough as all respondents were paid by Respondi. Still no participants have been excluded. Moreover, the researcher also looked for straightlining behaviour on the part of respondents when answering the survey. Straightlining occurs when respondents become mentally disengaged from the survey but still completes it. Usually, in such cases respondents go through the survey answering with the same response to all or most of the questions. The researcher tested for this using SPSS and looked for variance in the way that respondents replied to the questions asked. However, no zero answers were highlighted, so there was no specific straightline behaviour exhibited, therefore no participants were excluded.

Table 4-1 : Amount of Time to Finish Survey

n = 308			
Mean	=	*Median*	=
21.50mins		9.00mins	
Percentiles		Minutes	
5%		4.00 mins	
10%		4.00 mins	
15%		5.00 mins	
20%		6.00 mins	
25%		6.00 mins	
30%		7.00 mins	
35%		7.00 mins	
40%		8.00 mins	
45%		8.00 mins	
50%		9.00 mins	
55%		10.00 mins	
60%		11.00 mins	
65%		12.00 mins	
70%		13.00 mins	
75%		14.00 mins	
80%		15.00 mins	
85%		17.00 mins	
90%		21.00 mins	
95%		40.75 mins	

The surveys were collected over a five-day period and the cost of service, including the incentive, was that of £5.35 per participant that finished the whole survey.

4.1.2 Measures

All variables were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale (1, strongly disagree; 5, strongly agree) making use of established scales. Respondents provided ratings of transformational leadership, destructive leadership, participation, readiness for change, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, positive emotional response, negative emotional response, positive intentional response, negative intentional response, and cognitive response. The following scales were used:

Transformational Leadership. Respondents completed the twenty-two-item Transformational Leadership Behaviour Scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Scott, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). Sample items include 'Paints an interesting picture of the future for my group' and 'Shows respect towards my feelings'. This scale had a Cronbach α of .95.

Destructive Leadership. The researcher measured abusive supervision through the fifteen-item scale developed by Tepper (2000). Items include 'Does not allow me to interact with my colleagues' and 'Makes negative comments about me to others'. This scale had a coefficient α of .96.

Participation. The four-item Participation Scale developed by Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, Park, Gerhart, and Delery (2001) was used in this study. Items include 'Me and my colleagues are allowed to make decisions' and 'My superior keep open communications with me and my colleagues regarding our job'. This scale yielded a coefficient of α .88.

Affective Commitment. Respondents assessed affective commitment using a six-item scale developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Items include 'I believe in the value of this change' and 'The introduction of this change is not necessary'. The Cronbach α of this scale was that of .86.

Positive Emotional Response. Respondents evaluated this concept using a four-item scale developed by Piderit (1999). Sample items include 'I feel happy' and 'I feel relieved'. This scale had a coefficient α of .93.

Negative Emotional Response. The five-item Negative Emotional Scale developed by Piderit (1999) was used in this study. Items include 'I feel sad' and 'I feel disgusted'. This scale yielded a coefficient of α .91.

Positive Intentional Response. Respondents assessed positive intentional response using a five-item scale developed by Piderit (1999). Example items include 'Suggest ways in which to carry out the introduction of this change?' and 'Help make sure the introduction of this change is effective?'. This scale had a Cronbach α .90.

Negative Intentional Response. This concept was measured using a four-item scale developed by Piderit (1999). Items include 'Encourage others to resist implementing the introduction of this change?' and 'Suggest that others not participate in the introduction of this change?'. This scale had a coefficient α of .87.

Cognitive Response. The researcher measured cognitive response using a nine-item scale developed by Piderit (1999). Sample items include 'I care about how the introduction of this change will affect my daily work' and 'Implementing this change is not very important to me'. This scale yielded a coefficient of α .80.

The researcher also assessed demographic information such as age, gender, tenure in their respective organization, level of education, qualifications obtained and for how long they reported to their current leader, although no tests have been conducted in this regard during Study 1.

4.1.3 Approach to Analysis

Once the data had been collected, all negatively worded items were reverse coded to ensure that the participants' answers are interpreted in line with the respective construct that the scales intend to measure. Then, the researcher looked at the Cronbach alpha of each scale. As one can see from the α of the used scales, these range from being acceptable to excellent. Afterwards, the correlations per scale were tested. The second part of the analysis consisted of testing for mediation and moderation. With regards to mediation and moderation, 95% confidence intervals were applied. If the 95% confidence limits included zero, the indirect effect test was not considered to be significant.

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4-2 exhibits the means, standard deviations, and zero-order (bivariate) correlations among the scales used in Study 1.

Table 4-2 provided initial support for Hypothesis 1 that transformational leadership behaviours are positively related to followers' affective commitment to change (r = .34, p = <0.01).

With regards to Hypothesis 4, preliminary support was established as positive emotional response was found to be positively correlated with transformational leadership behaviours (r = .48, p = <0.01), and affective commitment to change (r = .57, p = <0.01). Also, positive intentional response was found to be positively related to transformational leadership behaviours (r = .43, p = <0.01), and affective commitment to change (r = .57, p = <0.01).

The correlational analyses for H5 showed positive relationships for participation with transformational leadership (r = .76, p = <0.01), positive

emotional response (r = .44, p = <0.01), positive intentional response (r = .44, p = <0.01), and affective commitment to change (r = .35, p = <0.01).

Also, support was found for Hypothesis 6 that destructive leadership behaviours are negatively correlated with followers' affective commitment to change (r = -.35, p = <0.01).

The correlations of Hypothesis 9 showed that negative emotional response was negatively correlated to affective commitment to change (r = -.57, p = <0.01), whilst positively correlated with destructive leadership behaviours (r = .58, p = <0.01). Negative intentional response was found to be positively correlated to destructive leadership behaviours (r = .53, p = <0.01), and negatively correlated to affective commitment to change (r = -.31, p = <0.01).

The correlational analyses for H10 showed negative correlations for participation with destructive leadership behaviours (r = -.39, p = <0.01), and negative emotional response (r = -.34, p = <0.01), and positive correlations with affective commitment to change (r = .35, p = <0.01) whilst no evidence was found of a correlation with negative intentional response (r = -.09).

Table 4-2 : Descriptive Statistics Item Total Correlations Per Scale

	Scale	M	SD	TLI	DL	PS	FAC	PER	NER	PIR	NIR	CR
TLI	Pearson Correlation	3.63	0.84	-								
	Sig. (2-tailed)											
DL	Pearson Correlation	2.22	1.12	-.406**	-							
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000								
PS	Pearson Correlation	3.72	0.97	.763**	-.391**	-						
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000							
FAC	Pearson Correlation	3.51	0.84	.344**	-.355**	.350**	-					
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000						
PER	Pearson Correlation	3.28	0.99	.483**	0.002	.446**	.566**	-				
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	0.971	.000	.000					
NER	Pearson Correlation	2.45	1.1	-.293**	.579**	-.347**	-.574**	-.383**	-			
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
PIR	Pearson Correlation	3.73	0.8	.427**	-.196**	.446**	.572**	.546**	-.343**	-		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	0.001	.000	.000	.000	.000			
NIR	Pearson Correlation	2.41	1.06	-0.08	.535**	-0.098	-.315**	0.078	.471**	-0.101	-	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.163	.000	0.087	.000	0.17	.000	0.076		
CR	Pearson Correlation	3.57	0.65	.467**	-.251**	.442**	.704**	.640**	-.446**	.697**	-.220**	-
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

M – Mean; SD – Standard Deviation; TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; DL – Destructive Leadership Behaviours; PS – Participation; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; PER – Positive Emotional Response; NER – Negative Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; NIR – Negative Intentional Response; Cognitive Respons

4.2.2 Regression Analysis Result

To test for the proposed hypotheses two hypothesised models have been used, one is the hypothesised PROCESS mediation model 4 and the other is PROCESS moderated mediation model 7.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for affective commitment to change with transformational leadership behaviours. In this regard, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediated the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and their affective commitment to change. For these analyses, destructive leadership was introduced as a control variable. This was done to investigate the unique relationships for transformational leadership. As shown in Table 4-3 below, the results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the followers' positive emotional response (*ab* = .306, Bootstrap *CI 95%* = .212 and .406) and positive intentional response (*ab* = .138, Bootstrap *CI 95%* = .076 and .216). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Table 4-3 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
TLI → PER	0.746	0.068	11.006	0.000	0.612	0.879
TLI → PIR	0.425	0.059	7.203	0.000	0.309	0.541
TLI → FAC	-0.191	0.057	-3.371	0.001	-0.302	-0.079
PER → FAC	0.411	0.045	9.098	0.000	0.322	0.499
PIR → FAC	0.325	0.052	6.262	0.000	0.223	0.426
Effects PER						
Indirect*	0.306	0.049			0.212	0.406
Effects PIR						
Indirect*	0.138	0.037			0.076	0.216

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples

TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

With regards to Hypothesis 5, a moderated mediation analysis was undertaken using PROCESS moderated mediation model 8 for SPSS with the mean composite score for each construct (Hayes, 2018). Participation was set up as the moderator between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' positive emotional response and positive intentional response, representing positive resistance to change as a mediator. Followers' affective commitment to change was the dependent variable. In this regard, the analyses assessed (1) the direct effects, (2) the moderation effects, (3) the indirect effects, and (4) the moderation mediation effects. Throughout this process destructive leadership was held as a control variable. This was done to investigate the unique effect of transformational leadership.

As presented in Table 4-4, evidence from the estimation of the model suggests that there is a significant direct effect for transformational leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change, b = -.191, se = .056, t = -3.371, p = .000. Secondly, participation was not found to significantly moderate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change through followers' positive emotional response, b = .065, se = .059, t = 1.112, p = .267. On the other hand, participation was found to have a significant moderation effect on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change through followers' positive intentional response, b = .103, se = .050, t = 2.041, p = .042. Also, the overall moderated mediation model was not supported. The index moderated mediation model for positive emotional response = 0.027 (*95% CI* = -0.013; 0.076) and for positive intentional response = 0.033 (*95% CI* = -0.005; 0.076). According to Hayes (2018), as 0 falls within the *CI*, it indicates that there is no moderation for participation on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change via positive emotional response and positive intentional response. Essentially, this result means that for participation, when destructive leadership is held as a controlling variable, it takes the variance of transformational leadership and as a result it becomes insignificant. As such Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Table 4-4 : Moderated Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 5

	Coefficient	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PS moderation TLI – FAC (PER)	0.065	0.059	1.112	0.270	-0.050	0.180
PS moderation TLI – FAC (PIR)	0.103	0.050	2.041	0.042	0.003	0.202
TLI on FAC	-0.178	0.072	-2.484	0.014	-0.320	-0.037
PER on FAC	0.411	0.045	9.047	0.000	0.322	0.501
PIR on FAC	0.324	0.053	6.137	0.000	0.220	0.428
Index of Moderated Mediation						
			Index	SE	LLCI	ULCI
	PS	PER	0.026	0.023	-0.013	0.078
	PS	PIR	0.033	0.021	-0.005	0.076

Note: TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; PS – Participation; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; LLCI – Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI – Upper Limit Confidence Interval

Table 4-5 : Moderator Analysis: Conditional Effect of TLI on PER and PIR at Values of PS

Participation (PER)	*Effect*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	0.470	0.109	4.284	0.000	0.254	0.686
Medium	0.534	0.096	5.576	0.000	0.345	0.722
High	0.600	0.113	5.291	0.000	0.375	0.820
Participation (PIR)						
Low	0.109	0.095	1.150	0.250	-0.077	0.295
Medium	0.209	0.083	2.540	0.012	0.050	0.371
High	0.310	0.097	3.180	0.002	0.120	0.500

Note: TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; PS – Participation; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; LLCI – Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI – Upper Limit Confidence Interval

Table 4-6 : Moderator Analysis: Conditional Indirect Effect of TLI on PER and PIR at Values of PS

Participation (PER)	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	0.194	0.054	0.093	0.306
Medium	0.220	0.055	0.121	0.337
High	0.246	0.065	0.134	0.386
Participation (PIR)				
Low	0.035	0.040	-0.039	0.120
Medium	0.068	0.036	0.007	0.150
High	0.101	0.041	0.031	0.189

Note: TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; PS – Participation; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; LLCI – Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI – Upper Limit Confidence Interval

Hypothesis 9 proposed that negative emotional response and negative intentional response mediate the negative relationship for affective commitment to change with destructive leadership behaviours. To this effect, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if negative emotional response and negative intentional response mediated the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and their affective commitment to change. This was done whilst holding transformational leadership as a control variable to

investigate the unique effect of destructive leadership. As shown in Table 4-7 below, the results of the regression analysis show that destructive leadership behaviours are a significant predictor of followers' negative emotional response (*b* = -.902, *t* = -10.609, *p* = .000) and followers' negative intentional response (*b* = -.901, *t* = -10.672, *p* = .000). Next, whilst controlling for followers' negative emotional response and negative intentional response, the results of the second regression analysis show that destructive leadership behaviours are not a significant predictor of the followers' affective commitment to change (*b* = -.093, *t* = -1.186, *p* = .236).

The results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant positive indirect relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's negative emotional response (*ab* = .355, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .250 and .466). However it cannot be considered that there is a significant indirect relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's negative intentional response (ab = .073, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = -.010 and .168). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Table 4-7 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 9

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
DL → NER	-0.902	0.085	-10.609	0.000	-1.069	-0.735
DL → NIR	-0.901	0.084	-10.672	0.000	-1.067	-0.735
DL → FAC	-0.093	0.078	-1.186	0.236	-0.247	0.061
NER → FAC	-0.394	0.044	-8.982	0.000	-0.480	-0.308
NIR → FAC	-0.081	0.044	-1.828	0.069	-0.168	0.006
Effects NER						
Indirect*	0.355	0.055			0.250	0.466
Effects NIR						
Indirect*	0.073	0.047			-0.010	0.168

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples
DL – Destructive Leadership; NER – Negative Emotional Response; NIR – Negative Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval.

With regards to Hypothesis 10, a moderated mediation analysis was undertaken using PROCESS moderated mediation model 8 for SPSS with the

mean composite score for each construct (Hayes, 2018). Participation was set up as the moderator between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' negative emotional response and negative intentional response, representing negative resistance to change as a mediator. Affective commitment to change was set up as a dependent variable. In this regard, the analyses assessed (1) the direct effects, (2) the moderation effects, (3) the indirect effects, and (4) the moderation mediation effects. In the analyses transformational leadership was introduced as a control variable. This was done to investigate the unique effect of destructive leadership.

The evidence presented in Table 4-8 suggests that there is an insignificant direct effect of destructive leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change, *b* = -.097, *se* = .078, *t* = -1.234, *p* = .218. Secondly, as shown in Fig 4-1, participation was found to significantly moderate the effect of destructive leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change through negative emotional response, *b* = -.235, *se* = .077, *t* = -3.046, *p* = .003.

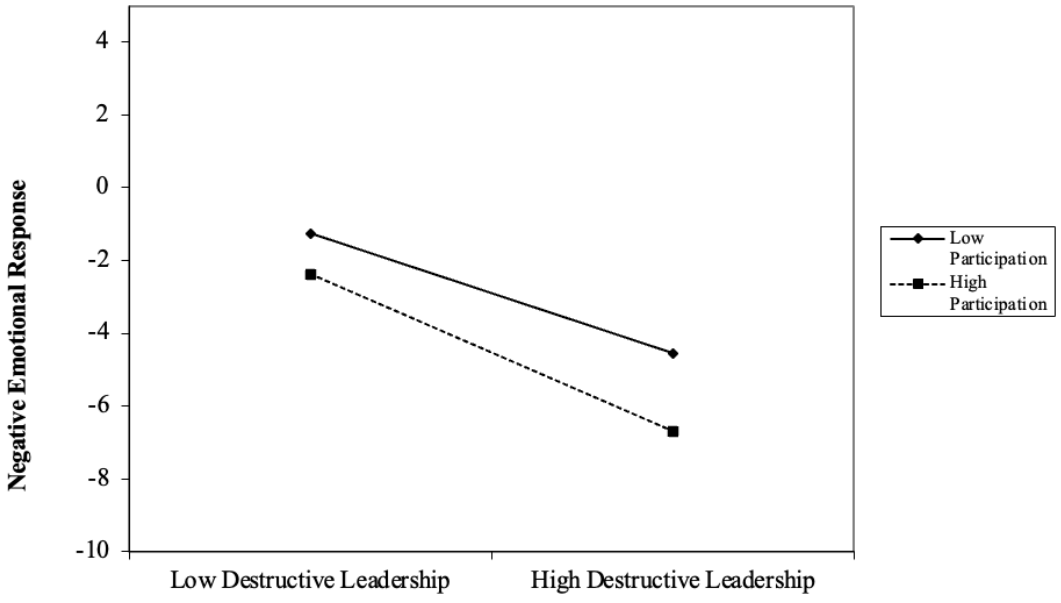

Figure 4-1 : Moderating effect of Participation on the Destructive Leadership-Negative Emotional Response relationship (two-way interaction with continuous moderator)

With regards to the moderation conditional indirect effect of participation on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change through followers' negative emotional response, it has been established that at low levels of participation there is a positive effect on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change, *b* = .221 (*95%CI* = .122, .326), *se* = .052. At the mean value of participation there is a more positive effect on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change through negative emotional response, *b* = .306 (*95%CI* = .205, .413), *se* = .053. Moreover, at high levels of participation, there is an even more positive effect on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change through negative emotional response, *b* = .391 (*95%CI* = .260, .540), *se* = .070.

However, no moderation was found for the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change through negative intentional response, *b* = -.116, *se* = .079, *t* = -1.466, *p* = .144. As such, the overall moderated mediation model was not supported. This is because whilst the index moderated mediation model for negative emotional response = 0.085 (*95% CI* = 0.031; 0.160), the one for negative intentional response = 0.009 (*95% CI* = -0.003; 0.030). According to Hayes (2018), as 0 falls within the *CI*, it indicates that there is no moderation for participation on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change via negative intentional response. As both negative emotional response and negative intentional response are two sides of the same coin, the overall mediation model does not hold. This result means that for participation vis-à-vis the relationship between destructive leadership and negative intentional response, when transformational leadership is held as a controlling variable, it takes the variance of destructive leadership and becomes insignificant. As such Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Table 4-8 : Moderated Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 10

	Coefficient	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
PS moderation DL – FAC (NER)	-0.235	0.077	-3.046	0.003	-0.387	-0.083
PS moderation DL – FAC (NIR)	-0.116	0.079	-1.466	0.144	-0.271	0.039
DL on FAC	-0.097	0.078	-1.234	0.218	-0.251	0.058
NER on FAC	-0.373	0.045	-8.271	0.000	-0.461	-0.284
NIR on FAC	-0.080	0.044	-1.800	0.071	-0.166	0.007
Index of Moderated Mediation						
			Index	SE	LLCI	ULCI
	PS	NER	0.085	0.033	0.031	0.160
	PS	NIR	0.009	0.009	-0.003	0.030

Note: Note: DL – Destructive Leadership; PS – Participation; NER – Negative Emotional Response; NIR – Negative Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; LLCI = Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI = Upper Limit Confidence Interval

Table 4-9 : Moderator Analysis: Conditional Effect of DL on NER and NIR at Values of PS

Participation (NER)	*Effect*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	-0.593	0.118	-5.014	0.000	-0.826	-0.361
Medium	-0.822	0.085	-9.730	0.000	-0.988	-0.656
High	-1.051	0.107	-9.781	0.000	-1.262	-0.840
Participation (NIR)	*Effect*	*SE*			*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	-0.772	0.121	-6.380	0.000	-1.010	-0.534
Medium	-0.885	0.086	-10.240	0.000	-1.055	-0.715
High	-0.997	0.109	-9.078	0.000	-1.213	-0.781

Note: Note: DL – Destructive Leadership; PS – Participation; NER – Negative Emotional Response; NIR – Negative Intentional Response; LLCI = Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI = Upper Limit Confidence Interval

Table 4-10 : Moderator Analysis: Conditional Indirect Effect of DL on NER and NIR at Values of PS

Participation (NER)	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	0.221	0.052	0.122	0.326
Medium	0.306	0.053	0.210	0.413
High	0.391	0.070	0.260	0.540
Participation (NIR)	*Effect*	*SE*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Low	0.061	0.041	-0.011	0.149
Medium	0.070	0.046	-0.013	0.170
High	0.079	0.051	-0.013	0.190

Note: Note: DL – Destructive Leadership; PS – Participation; NER – Negative Emotional Response; NIR – Negative Intentional Response; LLCI = Lower Limit Confidence Interval; ULCI = Upper Limit Confidence Interval

4.2.3 Supplementary Analysis

The Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990), consist of the four transformational leadership dimensions: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Study 1 considered the proposition of different hypotheses for the subdimensions of transformational leadership behaviours. In this regard, Hypothesis 4 was tested using each

dimension as an independent variable whilst holding the other three dimensions as control variables. This was considered to check whether the different dimensions produced different results. However, looking at the results obtained, essentially all the relationships follow the same trend. Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) suggested that the four transformational dimensions can be empirically separate, however Bycio, Hackett and Allen (1995) indicated that the four dimensions may lack discriminant validity. In fact, because the four transformational dimensions are very highly correlated, many researchers such as Chang, 2015; Howell and Hall-Merenda, 1999; and Judge and Bono, 2000 combined these dimensions.

In fact, Judge and Piccolo (2004) claimed that the four dimensions of transformational leadership should be treated as indicators of a higher order transformational leadership factor. A similar argument was made by van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) who claimed that in practice researchers consolidate the four dimensions to form a generalised transformational leadership operationalisation. They further argue that this is because “the dimensions are so highly intercorrelated that they cannot be treated as separate dimensions” (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013, p.13). They further argue that any one dimension of transformational leadership “can substitute for the other-compensate for its absence- and thus that the relationship with outcomes of the one dimension is weaker, the higher the leader scores on the other dimensions” (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013, p.13). Also, although it might be worth to consider the possibility that each dimension might correlate to the same variables differently, “this would imply that transformational leadership should not be considered to be a unitary construct” (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013, p.16).

The first analysis tested Hypothesis 4 proposing that positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for affective commitment to change with idealized influence. In this regard, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their positive emotional response

and positive intentional response mediated the relationship between idealized influence and their affective commitment to change. Throughout this process inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration were held as control variables. This was done to investigate the unique effect of idealized influence. As shown in Table 4-11 below, the results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is no significant indirect relationship between idealized influence and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's positive emotional response (*ab* = .002, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = -.008 and .015) and positive intentional response (*ab* = -.003, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = -.014 and .007). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 having idealised influence as an independent variable was not supported.

Table 4-11 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4 (Idealized Influence)

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
IIN → PER	0.007	0.016	0.462	0.644	-0.024	0.039
IIN → PIR	-0.008	0.014	-0.565	0.573	-0.034	0.019
IIN → FAC	-0.009	0.012	-0.797	0.426	-0.033	0.014
PER → FAC	0.325	0.047	6.907	0.000	0.232	0.418
PIR → FAC	0.381	0.056	6.855	0.000	0.272	0.490
Effects PER						
Indirect*	0.002	0.005			-0.008	0.015
Effects PIR						
Indirect*	-0.003	0.005			-0.014	0.007

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples
IIN – Idealized Influence; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

The second analysis tested Hypothesis 4 proposing that positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for affective commitment to change with inspirational motivation. In this regard, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediated the relationship between inspirational motivation and their affective commitment to change. Throughout this process idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration were held as control variables. This was done to investigate the

unique effect of inspirational motivation. As shown in Table 4-12 below, the results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between inspirational motivation and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's positive emotional response (*ab* = .011, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .003 and .019) and positive intentional response (*ab* = .013, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .005 and .023). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 having inspirational motivation as an independent variable was supported.

Table 4-12 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4 (Inspirational Motivation)

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
INM → PER	0.033	0.011	3.036	0.003	0.011	0.054
INM → PIR	0.034	0.009	3.724	0.002	0.016	0.052
INM → FAC	0.012	0.008	1.449	0.149	-0.004	0.028
PER → FAC	0.325	0.047	6.907	0.000	0.232	0.418
PIR → FAC	0.381	0.056	6.855	0.000	0.272	0.490
Effects PER						
Indirect*	0.011	0.004			0.003	0.019
Effects PIR						
Indirect*	0.013	0.005			0.005	0.023

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples
INM – Inspirational Motivation; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

The third analysis tested Hypothesis 4 proposing that positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for affective commitment to change with intellectual stimulation. In this regard, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediated the relationship between intellectual stimulation and their affective commitment to change. Throughout this process idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration were held as control variables. This was done to investigate the unique effect of intellectual stimulation. As shown in Table 4-13 below, the results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between intellectual stimulation and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's positive

emotional response (*ab* = .017, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .000 and .037), whilst there was no significant indirect relationship mediated by positive intentional response (*ab* = .005, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = -.010 and .021). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 having intellectual stimulation as an independent variable was not supported.

Table 4-13 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4 (Intellectual Stimulation)

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
INS → PER	0.052	0.023	2.279	0.023	0.007	0.097
INS → PIR	0.012	0.019	0.627	0.531	-0.026	0.050
INS → FAC	-0.044	0.017	-2.586	0.010	-0.078	-0.011
PER → FAC	0.325	0.047	6.907	0.000	0.232	0.418
PIR → FAC	0.381	0.056	6.855	0.000	0.272	0.490
Effects PER						
Indirect*	0.017	0.009			0.000	0.037
Effects PIR						
Indirect*	0.005	0.008			-0.010	0.021

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples
INS – Intellectual Stimulation; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

The fourth analysis tested Hypothesis 4 proposing that positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for affective commitment to change with individualised consideration. In this regard, a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediated the relationship between individualised consideration and their affective commitment to change. Throughout this process idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation were held as control variables. This was done to investigate the unique effect of individualised consideration. As shown in Table 4-14 below, the results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between individualised consideration and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's positive emotional response (*ab* = .018, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .000 and .037) and when mediated by positive intentional response (*ab* = .019,

Bootstrap CI 95% = .001 and .040). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 having individualised consideration as an independent variable was supported.

Table 4-14 : Results for Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4 (Individualised Consideration)

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
INC → PER	0.057	0.027	2.122	0.035	0.004	0.109
INC → PIR	0.052	0.023	2.302	0.022	0.008	0.097
INC → FAC	0.013	0.020	0.636	0.525	-0.027	0.052
PER → FAC	0.325	0.047	6.907	0.000	0.232	0.418
PIR → FAC	0.381	0.056	6.855	0.000	0.272	0.490
Effects PER						
Indirect*	0.018	0.009			0.000	0.037
Effects PIR						
Indirect*	0.019	0.010			0.001	0.040

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples
INC – Individualised Consideration; PER – Positive Emotional Response; PIR – Positive Intentional Response; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

Table 4-15 : Summary of Hypothesis

		Supported	Not Supported
H1	Transformational leadership behaviours are positively related to followers' affective commitment to change.	●	
H4	Positive emotional response and positive intentional response mediate the relationship for followers' affective commitment to change with transformational leadership behaviours.	●	
H5	Participation will moderate the strength of the mediated relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment via positive emotional response and positive intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when participation is high.		●
H6	Destructive leadership behaviours are negatively related to followers' affective commitment to change.	●	
H9	Employees' negative emotional response and negative intentional response mediate the negative relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change.		●
H10	Participation will moderate the strength of the mediated relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change via negative emotional response and negative intentional response, such that the mediated relationship will be stronger when employee participation is low.		●

4.3 Discussion

Study 1 involved the undertaking of a survey in the UK with respondents that have experienced a change in their organization in the recent past. The survey specifically asked the views of followers on their leaders' behaviours and how these affect their commitment towards change. To this effect, this chapter

looked at the methodology and data collection methods that have been used and the results obtained.

4.3.1 Research Expectations and Conclusions

According to the results obtained from the survey several expected outcomes were fulfilled whilst others were not. It has been established that there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. This finding supports the existing insights from Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), Herold et al. (2008), Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014), Van der Voet (2016) and Cho et al. (2019) who established that there is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' commitment to change. This study also established that there is a negative relationship between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment to change. This finding is like those found in earlier studies such as Schyns and Schilling (2013), Zhiang and Liao (2015) and Caesens et al. (2018) who found a negative relationship between destructive leadership and followers' commitment.

Besides, the research also looked at followers' positive emotional response and positive intentional response and whether these mediate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. The analysis showed that followers' positive emotional response and positive intentional response do mediate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. This finding support that of Szabla (2007) who found that transformational leadership behaviours elicited positive beliefs, intention, and emotions, thus gaining support for the proposed change. The research also looked at whether followers' negative emotional response and negative intentional response mediated the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. In this regard, it has been established that whilst negative emotional response mediated the

relationship between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment, negative intentional response did not. As these two mediating variables are two sides of the same coin, the overall mediation model is considered to be insignificant.

The results also showed that participation did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change when controlling for destructive leadership. This result was unexpected as previous studies such as those of Heller, Pusic, Strauss and Wilpert (1998), Mikkelsen, Saksvik, Landsbergis (2000), O'Brien (2002), Sverke, Hellgren, Naswall Goransson and Ohrming (2008) found that participation in decision making and change management programmes was associated with more positive work attitudes which in turn led to more acceptance of the proposed organizational change. However, Sahay and Goldthwaite (2024, p. 300) established that for participation to have an impact, leaders must consider how it fits with their organisation "by first understanding the perspectives and ideals of those at the receiving end of the change and plan the change and participatory processes accordingly". Also, this result means that as destructive leadership was used as a control variable, it took the variance away from transformational leadership and as a result the latter became insignificant. This also mean that the result is not very stable when controlling for destructive leadership. Moreover, the analysis showed that participation does moderate the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' negative emotional response, but not that between destructive leadership behaviours and negative intentional response. As such, as negative emotional response and negative intentional response represent two sides of the same coin, the overall moderation model is considered insignificant. Previous studies (Jimmieson, Peach, and White, 2008; Marchington, Wilkinson, Ackers, and Goodman, 1994; Van dam et al., 2008) in this regard found that the opportunity to participate reduced followers' resistance to change. However, Judson (1991), found that when followers perceive that their ideas are not being considered by their leaders, participation intensified rather than reduced resistance. Also, McKay, Kuntz,

and Naswall (2013), found only contingent support for the relationship between participation and resistance to change. As previously stated, this result could mean that as transformational leadership was used as a control variable, it took over the variance from destructive leadership and the latter became insignificant.

After analysing the results and revisiting the literature, the researcher realised that some of the applied variables, namely positive emotional response, positive intentional response, negative emotional response, and negative intentional response might not have been the best mediators to test the proposed theoretical model. With hindsight and from a practical point of view, the researcher realised that readiness for change and resistance to change would apply better for the organisation being studied in general and the organisational change case study being studied in particular. Also, from a conceptual perspective and after reading further literature, the researcher realised that both readiness for change and resistance to change are much more widely used than the multidimensional response to planned change that "implies that to fully understand resistance, [both positive and negative,] one must examine it on three dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and intentional' (Szabla, 2007, p. 530). As such, these three dimensions form part of a single model and cannot be treated differently or separately. Yet, prior to the undertaking of Study 1 a decision has already been made to eliminate from the research model the moderator "followers' sensemaking of change" which was going to be assessed through the cognitive scale. Such a decision was taken as there were going to be too many variables present and this was going to make it difficult on the researcher to analyse and report affectively. Another reason to eliminate the cognitive dimension was the fact that as it was going to be used as a moderator whilst the other two dimensions were going to be used as mediators. This exacerbated the need to do away with these three dimensions and apply separate variables that will allow the current models to run smoother.

To this effect, positive emotional response and positive intentional response will be replaced by readiness for change, so that the latter becomes a mediator, whilst negative emotional response and negative intentional response will be replaced by resistance to change. Furthermore, participation as a moderator will be dropped. This is being done for two reasons. First, there is high correlation between transformational leadership behaviours and participation as transformational leadership might imply participation. Secondly, with the introduction of readiness for change, there is an overlap between the items listed in the participation scale and those in the readiness for change scale. Such a decision is also based on further reading of the literature that rarely found participation to be moderating for the relationship between transformational leadership and readiness for change and for destructive leadership and resistance to change. Moreover, in practical terms, this decision will make the study more manageable and enables the researcher to analyze and report effectively.

Moving forward to the main study, two questionnaires were disseminated, one for leaders and one for followers. Both questionnaires have been prepared using Qualtrics. As soon as ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Business School of Durham University, the questionnaires were disseminated to the intended sample online. Prior to this, the indicated gatekeeper was contacted and informed of the conditions listed in the accompanying Participant Information Sheet. The study was conducted on members of a Maltese public service organisation and participated on a voluntary basis. Participants were given two weeks within which to answer the questionnaire, with an automatic reminder being sent after the first week. Upon the collection of responses, SPSS Statistics was used to clean and analyse the responses received. Following that, the results obtained were analysed to test for the hypotheses.

5 Study 2

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine the proposed research model based on the formulated hypotheses. To do so, relevant data was obtained by following a quantitative approach consisting of an online survey strategy and a questionnaire method. Two questionnaires were disseminated, one for followers and another one for leaders, the scope being the collection of a comprehensive set of data. The first section of this chapter reports on the overall sample and design of Study 2. Following this, the results of each questionnaire will be analysed separately, starting from the followers' questionnaire followed by that of leaders. For each questionnaire the reliability and validity of the scales used will be considered by looking at scales' reliability and correlations. This is then followed by reporting on the results obtained through regression analyses techniques.

5.2 Sample and Design

Study 2 consisted of a cross-sectional survey and was undertaken between May 2023 and June 2023. The questionnaires were disseminated for the first time on the third week of May with two follow-ups being sent, one in the fourth week of May and the other in the second week of June in line with recommendations by Saunders et al (2019). Both questionnaires were formulated in English which is an official language in Malta. Both questionnaires were designed using Qualtrics.

Before carrying out Study 2, Study 1 was undertaken as explained in Chapter 4. The undertaking of such a study enabled the researcher to refine the proposed research model. This was achieved by replacing the mediator variables and removing the moderator. Following ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee of Durham University Business School, and after obtaining

the required clearance from the Maltese public service organisation, both questionnaires were forwarded to the gatekeeper, the Research and Personnel Systems Directorate, People and Standards Division to be disseminated in accordance with Durham University's Participants Charter. The said Directorate forwarded the two hyperlinks to the Director Corporate Services in every ministry and department so that these can be disseminated to leaders and followers respectively. This procedure was followed as it is the Director Corporate Services within each ministry and department that has direct access to the email list of all public officers within their respective ministry or department. This also ensured that the received email containing the hyperlink did not end up as spam.

Participation in Study 2 was on a voluntary basis and all participants were informed that they were free to withdraw at any time when undertaking the questionnaire without giving any reason for doing so. This information was presented to participants in a Consent Form that each participant had to agree to prior to filling up the questionnaire. All information was provided unanimously, and the researcher had no way of identifying participants through their responses. Furthermore, the collected data is being retained in a secure location. The researcher is obliged to ensure that the data and records related to the validation of the findings of Study 2 are stored for a period of ten years following the publication of the results. This information was given to all participants in a Participant Information Sheet that was disseminated with each questionnaire. No potential risks were envisaged for Study 2. The data was collected from persons working on a full-time basis with the Maltese public service organisation. Participants had to be between eighteen and sixty-four years of age.

5.3 The Analytical Approach

Before continuing with the analyses, the data collected had to be cleaned (for more detail, see below). The next step was to reverse code all negatively versed items, so that the obtained answers can be interpreted according to the

construct that each scale was intended to measure. Following this, the researcher calculated the internal consistency of each scale (Cronbach's alpha). Then, the intercorrelations between the scales were calculated. Following this, mediation regression analysis was undertaken. With regards to regression analysis, 95% confidence intervals were applied. In case of mediation, if the 95% confidence limits included zero, the indirect effect test was not considered to be significant.

5.4 Followers' Responses

With regards to the followers' questionnaire, the researcher received three hundred and forty-six responses. However, when the researcher cleaned the data, most of the responses had to be dropped. Seven (2.02%) respondents did not give their consent to participate and were not allowed to continue. Also, one hundred and seventy-six (50.87%) respondents gave their consent but for some reason did not continue with the questionnaire whilst an additional thirty-six (10.4%) participants failed the attention question (the same attention question used for the leaders' questionnaire) and were screened out. The number of participants considered to have finished the questionnaire stood at one hundred and thirty (37.57%). As was done with the leaders' questionnaire, further cleaning of the data took place on these one hundred and thirty responses and it has been established that only one hundred and sixteen (28.57%) participants fully completed the questionnaire, whilst the remaining fourteen completed between 19% and 90% of the key variables and were dropped off. Regarding demographics, respondents' gender was reasonably evenly distributed, having 49.13% males, 47.41% females, 0.86% other and 2.58% who preferred not to state.

With regards to age, there were five categories: 25-34 (2.6%), 35-44 (15.5%), 45-54 (25.9%), 55-64 (34.5%) and 65 and above (21.6%). As such, most participants were aged forty-five and older. As to the participants tenure there were seven categories: less than 1 year (3.4%), 1-2 years (2.6%), 2-3 years (5.2%), 3-5 years (9.5%), 5-10 years (13.8%), 10-15 years (14.7%), and 15

years and more (50.9%). As such, most respondents for the followers' questionnaire have been working in the Maltese public service organisation for more than five years. Regarding the educational background of participants, there were five categories: secondary (7.8%), vocational (0.9%), post-secondary (20.7%), and tertiary (70.7%). Thus, most participants in the followers' questionnaire have a tertiary level of education. Of the latter, 37.9% obtained a master's degree, 1.7%, obtained a doctoral degree, 15.5% are in possession of a bachelor's degree, whilst the remaining 12.9% obtained a diploma. Regarding the years reporting to their current leader, the following holds: less than 1 year (19.8%), 1-2 years (16.4%), 2-3 years (12.9%), 3-5 years (23.3%), 5-10 years (19%), 10-15 years (5.2%), and more than 15 years (2.6%). As such, most followers have been reporting to their current leader for more than two years. Moreover, most participants, 79.4% stated that they have been working for the Maltese public service organisation for more than five years. The final sample considered for this questionnaire stood at n=116.

5.4.1 Followers' Questionnaire Measures

All variables used in the followers' questionnaire were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale (1, strongly disagree; 5, strongly agree) and all made use of established scales. Participants in the followers' questionnaire provided ratings for transformational leadership, destructive leadership, readiness for change, resistance to change and affective commitment to change.

Transformational Leadership. This instrument was measured by asking followers to rate their leaders by means of the twenty-two-item Transformational Leadership Behaviour Scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Scott, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). Sample items include 'My direct manager painted an interesting picture of the future for my team' and 'My direct manager showed respect for my personal feelings'. This scale had a Cronbach a of .956.

Destructive Leadership. Followers were asked to measure the destructive leadership behaviours of their leaders through the fifteen-item scale developed by Tepper (2000). Items included ‘My direct manager did not allow me to interact with my colleagues’ and ‘My direct manager made negative comments about me to others’. This scale had a coefficient a of .930.

Readiness for Change. Followers were asked to measure their state of readiness by means of the fourteen-item Readiness for Change Scale developed by Miller, Madsen, and John (2006). Example items included ‘I was willing to work more because of changes introduced in the organisation’ and ‘I was willing to change the way I worked because of the changes introduced in the organisation’. This scale yielded a coefficient a of .880.

Resistance to Change. The researcher asked followers to measure their own resistance to change by means of a fifteen-item scale developed by Oreg (2006). Sample items included ‘When I thought about the renewal and change that took place in the organisation over the recent years, I was afraid of the changes introduced in the organisation’ and ‘When I thought about the renewal and change that took place in the organisation over the recent years I was stressed by the changes introduced in the organisation’. This scale had a coefficient a of .866.

Affective Commitment to Change. Followers assessed their affective commitment to change using a six-item scale developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Items include ‘The changes introduced in the organisation served an important purpose’ and ‘The changes introduced in the organisation consisted of a good strategy for the organisation. The Cronbach a of this scale was that of .909.

5.4.2 Followers' Questionnaire Correlations

Table 5-1 : Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Per Scale Followers

	Scale	*M*	*SD*	*TLI*	*DL*	*RC*	*RTC*	*FAC*
TLI	Pearson Correlation	3.52	0.83	-				
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
DL	Pearson Correlation	1.63	0.65	-.686**	-			
	Sig. (2-tailed)			<.001				
RC	Pearson Correlation	3.73	0.66	0.32	-0.145	-		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			<.001	0.13			
RTC	Pearson Correlation	3.34	0.55	-0.157	.206*	-.314**	-	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.095	0.029	<.001		
FAC	Pearson Correlation	3.66	0.65	.222*	-.278**	0.349	-.716**	-
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.017	0.003	<.001	<.001	

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

M – Mean; SD – Standard Deviation; TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; DL – Destructive Leadership Behaviours; RC – Readiness for Change; RTC – Resistance to Change; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment

Table 1 exhibits the means, standard deviations and zero-order correlations among the scales used in Study 1 when considering the hypotheses from the point of view of followers.

Table 1 provides that H1 (followers' rated transformational leadership relates positively to affective commitment to change) is supported as (TLI) transformational leadership shows a significant correlation with (FAC) followers' affective commitment to change (r = .222**, p = .017). Also, Table 1 shows that H6 (followers' rated destructive leadership relates negatively to affective commitment to change) is supported as (DL) destructive leadership shows a significantly negative correlation with (FAC) followers' affective commitment to change (r = -.278, p = .003).

5.4.3 Followers' Questionnaire Regression Analysis

Regression analysis using Hayes' PROCESS Model 4 was undertaken to test for hypotheses H4 and H9.

With regards to Hypothesis 4 (H4), a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if their readiness for change mediated the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and their affective commitment to change. As shown in Table 2 below, the results of the regression analysis show that transformational leadership behaviours are a significant predictor of followers' readiness for change (b = .2403, t = 3.5262, p = .0006). Next, whilst controlling for followers' readiness for change, the results of the second regression analysis show that transformational leadership behaviours are not a significant predictor of the followers' affective commitment to change (b = .0775, t = 1.0937, p = .2765).

The results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's readiness for change (*ab* = .1033, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = .0357 and .2040). The mediator, readiness for change, accounted for approximately 57% of the total effect on followers' affective commitment to change [P_M = (.1033)/(.1809)]. Also, there was no statistically significant direct effect between transformational leadership and followers' affective commitment to change (b = .0775, t = 1.0937, p = .2765). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Table 5-2 : Results of Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 4

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
TLI → RC → FAC	0.2403	0.0682	3.5262	0.0006	0.1053	0.3754
TLI → FAC	0.0775	0.0709	1.0937	0.2765	-0.063	0.2181
RC → FAC	0.4299	0.0944	4.5543	0	0.2428	0.617
Effects						
Direct	0.0775	0.0709	1.0937	0.2765	-0.063	0.2181
Indirect*	0.1033	0.0432			0.0357	0.204
Total	0.1809	0.073	2.4776	0.0148	0.0362	0.3256

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples

TLI – Transformational Leadership Behaviours; RC – Followers Readiness for Change; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

With regards to Hypothesis 9 (H9), a bootstrapping method was performed using SPSS PROCESS Macro to examine from a followership point of view if

their resistance to change mediated the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and their affective commitment to change. As shown in Table 3 below, the results of the regression analysis show that destructive leadership behaviours are a significant predictor of their teams' resistance to change (*b* = .1752, *t* = 2.2172, *p* = .0286). Next, whilst controlling for followers' resistance to change, the results of the second regression analysis show that destructive leadership behaviours are also a significant predictor of followers' affective commitment to change (*b* = -.1330, *t* = -2.0397, *p* = .0438).

The results of the indirect effect based on 5000 bootstrap samples show that there is a significant indirect relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change mediated by the latter's resistance to change (*ab* = -.1454, *Bootstrap CI 95%* = -.2859 and -.0146). The mediator, resistance to change, accounted for approximately 52% of the total effect on followers' affective commitment to change [P_M = (-.1454)/(-.2785)]. There was also a statistically significant direct effect between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment to change (*b* = -.1330, *t* = -2.0397, *p* = .0438). Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Table 5-3 : Results of Mediation Analysis for Hypothesis 9

Variable/Effect	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*95% Confidence Interval (CI)*	
DL → RTC	0.1752	0.079	2.2172	0.0286	0.0186	0.3319
DL → FAC	-0.133	0.0652	-2.0397	0.0438	-0.2623	-0.0038
RTC → FAC	-0.8298	0.0766	-10.8269	0	-0.9817	-0.678
Effects						
Direct	-0.133	0.0652	-2.0397	0.0438	-0.2623	-0.0038
Indirect*	-0.1454	0.0697			-0.2859	-0.0146
Total	-0.2785	0.0913	-3.0494	0.0029	-0.4594	-0.0975

Note: *Based on 5000 bootstrap samples

DL – Destructive Leadership; RTC – Followers Resistance to Change; FAC – Followers Affective Commitment; CI – Confidence Interval

Table 5-4 : Summary of Hypotheses for Followers' Questionnaire

		Supported	Not Supported
H1	Transformational leadership relates positively to affective commitment to change.	●	
H4	Readiness for change mediates the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change.	●	
H6	Destructive leadership relates negatively to affective commitment to change.	●	
H9	Resistance to change mediates the negative relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change.	●	

5.5 Leaders' Responses

As to the leaders' questionnaire, overall, there were five hundred and twelve responses. However, when the researcher cleaned the data, the majority of these could not be considered for several reasons. Of these, eleven (2.15%) did not give their consent to continue with the questionnaire and were screened out. Furthermore, three hundred and thirteen (61.13%) participants gave their consent but did not continue with the questionnaire, seven-nine of which were screened out because they did not have three or more followers. An additional thirty (5.86%) participants failed the attention question. As in Study 1, the attention check question asked respondents to state the colour of the grass, to which they were specifically instructed to give a specific response. At the end there were ninety-three (18.16%) participants who finished the questionnaire. Further data cleaning was undertaken on the latter responses, and it has been established that only seventy-seven (13%) participants completed all the key variables. With regards to the other sixteen participants, their rate of completion ranged from 22% to 96% of the questionnaire and therefore were not considered for the purpose of Study 2.

With regards to demographics, gender for the respondents of the leaders' questionnaire was fairly distributed, having 49.35% males, 46.75% females, 1.29% other, whilst 2.59% preferred not to state. With regards to age, there were five categories: 18-24 (1.3%), 25-34 (3.9%), 35-44 (15.6%), 45-54 (45.5%), and 55-64 (32.5%). As such, most participants were aged between forty-five and sixty-four years. As to the participants tenure there were seven

categories: less than 3 months (3.9%), 3 months-1 year (1.3%), 2-3 years (3.9%), 3-5 years (1.3%), 5-10 years (1.3%), 10-15 years (11.7%), and 15 years and more (76.6%). As such that most respondents for the leaders' questionnaire have been working in the Maltese public service organisation for more than fifteen years. Regarding the educational background of participants, there were five categories: secondary (1.3%), vocational (1.3%), technical (2.6%), post-secondary (10.4%), and tertiary (84.2%). Thus, most participants in the leaders' questionnaire achieved a tertiary level of education. Of these, 50.6% obtained a master's degree, 10.4%, obtained a doctoral degree, whilst the remaining 18.2% obtained either a bachelor's degree or a diploma. Regarding the number of followers that each participant has, the following holds: 1-10 (29.9%), 11-20 (26%), 21-30 13%), 31-50 (10.4%), 51-100 (10.4%), and more than 100 (9.1%). As such, most leaders here have between one and twenty direct followers. The final sample considered for this questionnaire stood at n=77.

5.5.1 Leaders' Responses Measures

All variables considered in the leaders' questionnaire were measured using a five-point Likert-type scale (1, strongly disagree; 5, strongly agree) and all made use of established scales. Participants in the leaders' questionnaire provided ratings for promotive voice, prohibitive voice, readiness for change, resistance to change and affective commitment to change.

Promotive Voice. The researcher asked leaders to rate their followers' promotive voice through the five-item scale developed by Liang, Farh and Farh (2012). Items included 'Individuals under my responsibility proactively developed and made suggestions for issues that may have influenced the changes in the organisation' and 'Individuals under my responsibility raised suggestions to improve the changes introduced in the organisation'. This scale had a coefficient a of .916.

Prohibitive Voice. The researcher asked leaders to rate their followers' prohibitive voice by completing the five-item scale developed by Liang, Farh and Farh (2012). Sample items included 'Individuals under my responsibility advised other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would have hampered the changes introduced in the organisation' and 'Individuals under my responsibility dared to voice out opinions on things that might have affected the efficiency of the changes introduced in the organisation, even if that would have embarrassed others'. This scale had a Cronbach a of .858.

Readiness for Change. Leaders were asked to measure the state of readiness of their followers by means of the fourteen-item Readiness for Change Scale developed by Miller, Madsen, and John (2006). Example items included 'My team worked more because of changes introduced in the organisation' and 'My team changed the way it worked because of this change'. This scale yielded a coefficient a of .881.

Resistance to Change. The researcher asked leaders to measure their followers' resistance to change by means of a fifteen-item scale developed by Oreg (2006). Sample items included 'My team was afraid of the changes introduced in the organisation' and 'My team was stressed by the changes introduced in the organisation'. This scale had a coefficient a of .913.

Affective Commitment to Change. Leaders assessed their followers' affective commitment using a six-item scale developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Items included 'My team values the changes introduced in the organisation' and 'My team agrees that the changes introduced in the organisation were not necessary'. The Cronbach a of this scale was that of .891.

5.5.2 Leaders' Questionnaire Correlations

Table 5-5 : Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Per Scale Leaders

	Scale	M	SD	LAC	PR	PRV	LRC	LRTC
LAC	Pearson Correlation	3.9	0.67	-				
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
PR	Pearson Correlation	3.53	0.66	.539**	-			
	Sig. (2-tailed)			<.001				
PRV	Pearson Correlation	3.36	0.66	0.134	.451**	-		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			0.244	<.001			
LRC	Pearson Correlation	3.35	0.66	.408**	.444**	.367**	-	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			<.001	<.001	0.001		
LRTC	Pearson Correlation	2.42	0.61	-.521**	-.524**	-.306**	-0.204	-
	Sig. (2-tailed)			<.001	<.001	0.007	0.075	

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

M – Mean; SD – Standard Deviation; PR – Promotiver Voice; PRV – Prohibitive Voice; LRC – Leaders Readiness for Change; LRTC – Leaders Resistance to Change; LAC – Leaders Affective Commitment

Table 5 exhibits the means, standard deviations and zero-order correlations among the scales used in Study 2 when considering the hypotheses from the point of view of leaders.

The information presented in the above table provides that H2 (leaders' rated promotive voice related positively to affective commitment to change) is supported as (PR) promotive voice is shown to be significantly correlated with (LAC) leaders' affective commitment to change (r = .539**, p = <.001). Table 5 also shows that H3 (leaders rated readiness for change relates positively to affective commitment to change) is also supported, as (LRC) leaders' readiness for change is found to be significantly correlated with (LAC) leaders' affective commitment to change (r = .408**, p = <.001). However, the correlation analysis for H7 (leaders' rated prohibitive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change) shows that this hypothesis is not supported as prohibitive voice is not significantly correlated with leaders' affective commitment (r = .134, p = .244). Moreover, H8 (leaders' rated resistance to change relates negatively to affective commitment to change) is supported as (LRTC) leaders' rated resistance to change is found to be significantly

negatively related to (LAC) leaders' affective commitment to change (r = -.521**, p = <.001).

Table 5-6 : Summary of Hypotheses for Leaders' Questionnaire

		Supported	Not Supported
H2	Promotive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change.	●	
H3	Readiness for change relates positively to affective commitment to change.	●	
H7	Prohibitive voice relates positively to affective commitment to change.		●
H8	Resistance to change relates negatively to affective commitment to change.	●	

5.6 Summary

To conclude, this chapter outlined the hypotheses that were tested using both the followers' and leaders' questionnaires. Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8 were tested using correlation analysis, whilst Hypotheses 4 and 8 were tested using Hayes' (2018) PROCESS mediation Model 4. According to the results obtained from both questionnaires, all outcomes bar one were as expected and support the findings of previous research. The findings will be briefly looked at underneath, stating from the results of the followers' questionnaire (H1, H4, H6, and H9) to be followed by those obtained from the one of leaders (H2, H3, H7, and H8).

When considered from followers' point of view, all the hypotheses were supported, and the results obtained are in line with similar studies. With regards to Hypothesis 1, a significant relationship was found between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. Such a result corroborates the findings of Herold and Caldwell (2008) who found a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and followers' commitment to change. The result is also like the findings of Penava and Sehic (2014) who established that individualised consideration increased the level of affective commitment among followers. Hypothesis 4 was also supported when considered from the point of view of followers. In fact, it has been established that there are significant relationships among all

the involved variables as it has been established that transformational leadership is positively associated with both readiness for change and affective commitment and that there is also a positive relationship between readiness for change and affective commitment to change. This result support the findings of Armenakis et al. (1993), Allen et al. (2013), and Wardani et al. (2020) who confirmed that transformational leadership behaviours are related to followers' readiness for change and the latter's commitment to change.

Significant support was also found for Hypothesis 6. The results established there is a significant negative relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. Such a result is similar to the results obtained in previous studies. In fact, Schyns and Schilling (2013), Zhiang and Liao (2015) and Caesens et al. (2018) established that there is a negative association between destructive leadership and followers' commitment. Furthermore, support was also found for Hypothesis 9. The results obtained from followers show that destructive leadership is positively associated with resistance to change whilst the latter is negatively associated with affective commitment to change. The results also show that resistance to change does mediate the relationship between destructive leadership and affective commitment to change, albeit partially. Such findings corroborate the results obtained by Ashforth (1994), Oreg (2006) and Boohene and Williams (2012).

On the other hand, all bar one of the hypotheses considered from a leadership perspective were accepted. With regards to Hypothesis 2, the responses obtained from leaders regarding the relationship between their teams' promotive voice and the latter's affective commitment to change corroborate the findings of earlier research. Farndale et al. (2011) confirmed that followers who believed that they could voice their opinion on proposed changes to their leaders showed higher commitment to the organisation. Moreover, Chamberlin et al. (2017), Jena et al. (2017) and Kim and Leach (2020), established that followers' voice is significantly positively related to the latter's affective organisational commitment. Also, the results obtained for Hypothesis 3 were

as expected. According to leaders, their teams' readiness for change is positively related to the latter's affective commitment to change. This result is similar to those of previous research. In fact, Santhidran et al. (2013, Radian and Mangudjaya (2019) and Wardani et al. (2020) established a positive relationship between readiness for change and affective commitment to change. However, Hypothesis 7 was not supported. The feedback received from leaders regarding the relationship between their teams' prohibitive voice and the latter's affective commitment to change indicates that there is no significant relationship. This result was a bit surprising as similar to promotive voice, prohibitive voice 'is motivated by the same desire for well-intended change' (Chamberlin et al., 2017, p. 19), although because of its nature, leaders might perceive prohibitive voice as critical and might perceived it negatively. Last, with regards to Hypothesis 8, the results obtained from leaders regarding the negative relationship between their teams' resistance to change and the latter's affective commitment to change support the findings of other scholars (Lewin, 1947; Oreg, 2006). In fact, Oreg (2003; 2006) found correlations between resistance to change and commitment to change, although with regards to the latter study the tested relationship was between resistance to change and one of the three components of commitment, that of continuance. The next chapter will discuss in more detail these findings.

6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The main objective of Study 2 was to investigate the effects of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to change within a large public service organisation in Malta. This research examined the question how followers respond to transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours in the context of change, especially in terms of readiness for change and resistance to change respectively. It also investigated the question of the role of team voice (promotive and prohibitive) as well as further downstream implications for affective commitment to change. To investigate these relationships, the researcher adopted a quantitative approach. Two questionnaires were disseminated, one for followers and one for leaders. The results obtained were presented in the previous chapter. The purpose of this chapter is to offer a synthesis of these results by comparing the responses of followers and leaders for each research question to be followed by a discussion on the outcome of their respective responses. The findings will also be compared with existing research and implications and recommendations will be presented.

6.2 Discussion of Results

This section aims to discuss the findings of this research vis-à-vis the research questions and hypotheses set for Study 2. The first part of this section discusses the findings related to the effects of transformational leadership on affective commitment to change whilst the second part considers the effects of destructive leadership behaviours vis-à-vis affective commitment to change, according to the structure followed in Chapter 5 Study 2.

6.2.1 Findings for Transformational Leadership Behaviours

With regards to the effects of transformational leadership behaviours on affective commitment towards change, Study 2 established that when considered from the point of view of followers, this research found that transformational leadership behaviours are significantly positively correlated to affective commitment for change.

The results obtained from followers regarding the association between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change were aligned with theoretical assumptions. Study 2 found a positive correlation between transformational leadership and followers' affective commitment to change, thus supporting Hypothesis 1. This result is in line with the findings of previous research such as that of Herold et al. (2008), Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014), Kim (2014), Rowold et al. (2014), and Cho et al. (2019), who found that transformational leadership and followers' commitment to change were significantly positively related. Although the researcher cannot draw conclusions about the causal relationship, such a positive significant association between these two variables makes sense theoretically as according to Bass and Avolio (1994) leaders who exhibit transformational behaviours are more engaged with their followers, causing the latter to be more satisfied and committed to achieve more. Besides, Bass and Avolio (1993) suggest that transformational leaders align followers to their vision and empower them to assume greater responsibility to achieve that vision. Essentially then, the results indicate that followers within the organisation believe that when their direct leaders showed transformational leadership behaviours, they enabled them to enhance their affective commitment towards the proposed change. This is because when leaders showed transformational leadership behaviours, they were able to align their followers' identity and values to those of the organisation. Transformational leaders are successful at this because they "attempt to secure greater effort and commitment from [followers] by bonding individual and collective interests" (Pawar and Eastman, 1997, p. 83). Also, this finding indicates the criticality of transformational

leadership behaviours to develop followers' affective commitment to change when undergoing a transformative cultural change within an organisation. Being a public organisation, it does not give extra rewards to its followers such as monetary bonuses, thus, in the absence of such, transformational leadership becomes crucial in providing followers with the necessary intrinsic motivation (Rowold et al., 2014).

This research also tested the mediating effects of readiness for change in the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change from a followership perspective and the relationship between readiness for change and affective commitment to change when considered from a leadership perspective. As to the mediating effects of readiness for change on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change when considered from the perspective of followers, the results obtained showed that readiness for change was a significant mediator between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. Moreover, Study 2 established that when considered from the point of view of leaders, readiness for change is significantly positively correlated to affective commitment for change.

Therefore, the findings pertaining to followers were very much in line with theoretical expectations. Establishing readiness for change as a mediator is like the findings obtained by Allen et al. (2013) and Wardani et al. (2020) who established that readiness for change mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and commitment to change. The results of this research suggest that transformational leadership behaviours positively and significantly affect readiness for change but not affective commitment to change. Moreover, readiness for change was found to fully mediate the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change, as such Hypothesis 4 when considered from the point of view of followers was supported. Readiness for change is an important concept that is related to the unfreezing stage of Lewin's (1947) change model.

This result suggest that leaders need to ensure their followers' readiness for change if they want their followers to affectively commit to change efforts (Holt et al., 2007). If leaders try to rely solely on their transformational behaviours to directly influence followers' affective commitment to change, they might be in for a surprise as such behaviour on its own might either makes it harder or might not be enough to bring about the desired outcomes. Indeed, Armenakis et al. (1993) argued that leaders who reactively monitor their workplace for signs of resistance when undertaking change are less likely to ensure their followers' affective commitment to change. Instead, leaders should "focus on creating readiness for change by minimizing resistance, transforming [followers] into agents of change, while crafting a change message that facilitates the adoption of behaviours that are indispensable for the successful implementation of change" (Neves, 2009, p. 216). Thus, it is important for change leaders to understand that to ensure their followers' affective commitment to change, they must first create a state of readiness. "The implications of overlooking the importance of readiness may very well be that an appropriate intervention may not produce the intended organisation changes because organisation members are simply not ready" (Armenakis et al., 1993, p. 700). As such, a fundamental point of departure for change leaders is to create change readiness among their followers prior to starting with the change process. This will help to lessen followers' fears and doubts resulting from the change in the status quo and make them work for and support the proposed change.

Also, the findings of this research upheld Hypothesis 3 that readiness for change is positively associated to affective commitment to change when considered from a leadership perspective. This finding supports previous literature and the feedback received from followers in Study 2, that there is a positive relationship between readiness for change and affective commitment to change (Hanpachern et al., 1998; Madsen et al., 2005; Lyons et al., 2009). As this result is correlational, the researcher cannot claim causality; however, it is quite understandable to conclude that teams' readiness for change would help to enable their affective commitment to change. If this is true, then an

increase in readiness for change may increase followers' affective commitment to change. This highlights the importance for organisational leaders to actively build and maintain readiness prior to (Armenakis et al., 1993) and during the change process (Holt et al., 2007). Armenakis et al. (1993, p.700) argue that "readiness must be maintained throughout the process of large-scale change particularly since such change is composed of smaller changes which are ongoing". This is important as "readiness is associated with a belief that the organisation can change successfully, and an intention to exhibit behaviours that will support the change" (Rafferty and Simons, 2006, p. 327). To this effect, Armenakis et al. (1999) argue that it is critical for change leaders to create a message for change consisting of five components: discrepancy (there is a need for change); self-efficacy (there is collective capability to change successfully); personal valence (changing serves our best interests); principal support (the leaders support the change); and appropriateness (it is important to change to reach the desired future state for the organization).

6.2.2 Findings for Destructive Leadership Behaviours

Study 2 also looked at the associations between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. Again, the structure of the Study 2 chapter will be followed, starting from a discussion on the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change and the reactions of followers to such leadership behaviours during the renewal of a public service organisation in Malta. As to the associations between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment towards change, the results of Study 2 suggest that destructive leadership behaviours are significantly negatively correlated to affective commitment for change.

The results obtained from followers regarding the association between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change were in line with theoretical expectations. Study 2 found a negative correlation between destructive leadership and followers' affective

commitment to change, thus upholding Hypothesis 6 from a followership perspective. Although, because of the correlative nature of the result, the researcher cannot conclude affirmatively about a causal relationship between these two variables, one can assume that leaders exhibiting destructive behaviours do produce dysfunctional outcomes such as in the form of reduced followers' affective commitment to change. This is more possible when one considers the environment that Study 2 refers to, that of a change process within a public organisation. As suggested by Neves and Schyns (2018) organisational change can produce power vacuums resulting in the absence of checks and balances where a small nucleus of leaders become all too powerful and vested with increased managerial discretion. The finding is in line with, for example Tepper (2000), Duffy et al. (2002), Schyns and Schilling (2013), Zhiang and Liao (2015), and Caesens et al. (2018) who found negative associations between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment. In this case, the researcher can fairly assume that the more destructive leadership behaviours are exhibited within an organisational change environment, the less followers will remain affectively committed to the change being undertaken. The more followers are subject to destructive leadership behaviours the less they will remain emotionally attached to, identify with, and involve themselves in the change process and might even resist it. This is because 'bad experiences have a much stronger impact than good ones, resulting in a 'horns' effect, whereby the leader is only perceived in negative terms' (Aasland et al., 2010, p. 447). Moreover, this could give rise to a vicious circle in which the relationship between leaders and followers become sour. Followers will avenge destructive leadership behaviours "by showing less motivation, performance, and positive affect which in turn might intensify the leader's behaviour to discipline his obstinate subordinates" (Schilling, 2009, p. 121) Such a situation will increase the probability of change failure, which is very costly for an organisation. As such, the negative correlation between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change is quite troubling in this regard. In fact, past studies found that there is a link between destructive leadership and decreased performance (Neves, 2014), lower followers' satisfaction and commitment

(Elangovan and Xie, 2000), and lack of organisational commitment (Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009). The problem is that destructive leadership is quite prevalent (Aasland et al., 2010).

This research also considered resistance to change as a mediator in the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change from a followership perspective. It also looked at the direct relationship between resistance to change and affective commitment to change from a leadership point of view. With regards to the mediating effects of resistance to change on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change, the results obtained from followers showed that resistance to change partially mediated the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. This is because the regression analysis also showed a significant direct negative effect between destructive leadership and followers' affective commitment to change. Moreover, Study 2 found that when considered from a leadership perspective, resistance to change was found to be significantly negatively correlated to affective commitment for change.

The results obtained from followers supported the researcher's expectations, showing that resistance to change partially mediated the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. Study 2 therefore suggests that when followers are subject to destructive leadership behaviours by their immediate leaders, they will resist any attempt at change more, and in doing so will reduce their commitment to the change being undertaken by the organisation. This emphasizes the general principle that followers' affective commitment to change is determined by the relationship that exists between their perception of the organisational change being proposed or undertaken and the leadership behaviours exhibited by their immediate leaders. As such, this result directs attention to followers' resistance to change and the antecedent that influences it. It cannot simply be assumed that there is a direct negative relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change.

This is because followers' own "negative attitude towards change, which includes affective, behavioural, and cognitive components" (Oreg, 2006, p. 76) influence their understanding of their immediate leaders' destructive behaviours, and therefore mediate the way in which destructive leadership behaviours influence their affective commitment to change. Study 2 was particularly interested in the mediating role played by resistance to change between destructive leadership behaviours and affective commitment to change. The regression analysis showed that the negative effects of destructive leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change are stronger when followers' resistance to change is high. This finding is very much in line with previous studies that found resistance to change to be negatively associated with commitment to change (Ashforth, 1994; Oreg, 2003; Oreg, 2006). It is also consistent with previous studies that consider destructive leadership to be an antecedent to resistance to change (Ashforth, 1994; Tepper et al., 2001; Oreg, 2006; Furst and Cable, 2008; van Dam et al., 2008; Boohene and Williams, 2012). This result shows that followers may respond to destructive leadership behaviours by increasing their resistance to change, thus lowering their affective commitment to such; this is a very costly outcome for organisations and the reason why leaders try to avoid resistance to change.

Also, the findings of this research upheld Hypothesis 8 and similar to the result obtained from followers, resistance to change was found to be negatively associated to affective commitment to change when considered from a leadership perspective. Similar to commonly held beliefs about resistance to change, this result showed that there is a negative relationship between resistance to change and affective commitment to change. This finding is like that of a few previous studies that examined resistance to change together with commitment to change. In fact, Judge et al. (1999) found that tolerance for ambiguity and positive affectivity to be positively related to coping with organizational change. Moreover, Oreg (2003) established an association between dispositional inclinations to resist change and affective reactions to change. Although both studies further claimed that the relationship between these two variables is quite complex and not easy to compare. Again, Study 2

was a correlational study and as such one cannot claim causality, however one can fairly assume that teams that resist change would be less committed to the proposed organisational change, yet followers rarely resist openly, maliciously, or intentionally (Kotter, 1995). Therefore, as this result reflects the perception of leaders, it could be that what they perceived to be as resistance to change is nothing more but a reaction by their teams' members to the way that the change has been introduced or due to unrealistic expectations (Dent and Goldberg, 1999). If this was the case, it would have been the behaviours and actions of leaders that were problematic. This situation makes one question the widespread assumptions that change is always good whilst resistance is always bad. In fact, several researchers (Ashforth et al., 1998; Dent and Goldberg, 1999; Dutton et al., 1997; Graham, 1984, 1986; Piderit, 2000) are questioning such norms and are offering a different view of resistance to change; a view that underlines its importance and benefits. Moreover, it could be that leaders, especially during times of change, expect their followers to support their initiatives and direction. In fact, Neves and Schyns (2018) claim that although dissent is often a form of productive resistance as it reduces the risks of conformity, leaders might fail to recognise the potential of followers who do not correspond with their views.

6.2.3 Findings for Voice

Study 2 also examined the association between promotive voice and affective commitment to change from the point of view of leaders. As to the relationship between promotive voice and affective commitment towards change, the results of Study 2 suggest that promotive voice is significantly positively correlated to affective commitment for change. The results obtained from leaders for the association between promotive voice and affective commitment to change were in line with theoretical expectations. Study 2 found a positive correlation between promotive voice and affective commitment to change, thus supporting Hypothesis 2. This result is in line with the findings of previous research (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Farndale et al., 2011; Jena et al., 2017; Kim and Leach, 2020), that established a positive association between voice and

organisational commitment. Although this result is a correlative one and, therefore, one cannot draw conclusions about the causal relationship, such a positive significant association between promotive voice and affective commitment to change makes theoretical sense. According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), affective commitment to change increases because of certain mechanisms such as voice. This is in accordance with Blau's (1964) exchange theory concept of "input-to-output ratios". As leaders provide their teams with the opportunity to engage in promotive voice and participate in decision making, the latter respond by increasing their affective commitment to change. Moreover, as promotive voice offers innovative solutions and suggestions for improvement, it is considered to be future oriented and beneficial for the organisation, as such leaders are bound to consider those engaging in promotive voice positively (Liang et al., 2012). Therefore, it appears that teams who actively use promotive voice tend to receive higher performance evaluations (Chamberlin et al., 2017) and this in turn will further enhance the teams' affective commitment to change. It is a positively reinforcing cycle that benefits the organisation.

Study 2 also looked at the association between prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change from a leadership perspective. The correlation analysis for this association was not supported as the result shows that prohibitive voice is not significantly correlated with affective commitment to change. As such the findings of Study 2 did not uphold Hypothesis 7 that prohibitive voice is positively associated with affective commitment to change. Given that earlier studies reported positive associations between voice and affective commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Farndale et al., 2011; Jena et al., 2017; Kim and Leach, 2020) and given the importance of voice to both followers and organisations (Detert and Burris, 2007; Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), the findings of Study 2 were not as expected. In accordance with Blau's (1964) exchange theory, the researcher was expecting to find prohibitive voice to be positively associated with affective commitment to change as the opportunity to use prohibitive voice as part of the decision-making process especially when an organisation is undertaking a major organisational change is acknowledged

as an important driver of teams' commitment (Farndale et al., 2011). Yet, according to leaders within the public service organisation studied here, it appears that their teams' affective commitment to change was not necessarily dependent on the latter's opportunity to use prohibitive voice. There might be two explanations for this. First, because the nature of prohibitive voice is intended to stop or hinder harmful factors that affect the status quo, teams might be afraid that using this type of voice might be viewed negatively by leaders, as it implicates that the latter are failing in their mission (Liang et al., 2012), as such teams might not use this type of voice for fear of repercussions. It is also fair to assume that this situation is exacerbated in the presence of destructive leadership behaviours, in which case followers take on the role of conformers (Padilla, 2007; Thoroughgood et al., 2012).

Moreover, as explained by Ng and Feldman (2012), voice is affected by the workplace climate, notably job and social stressors that arise from the work itself, social relationships in the workplace, and the organizational environment in general. The public service organisation being a bureaucracy is characterised by a high degree of formalization and this tends to limit the amount of opportunity for followers to voice their opinions. Therefore, it could be that because of this high degree of formalisation, jobs that are meant to be meaningful and challenging by those holding them might be perceived as being boring, meaningless, or giving a perception of underutilization, therefore more stressful (Ng and Feldman, 2012). Moreover, it could be that the level of affection from leaders within a bureaucracy is low, leading followers to perceive fewer tangible rewards and less intangible support from their immediate leaders (Ng and Feldman, 2012), making the organisation environment within the Maltese Public Service a stressful one. In such instances, and according to conservation of resources theory, followers would be less likely to engage in voice behavior as this depletes their resources; therefore, in the face of major workplace stressors, the probability of followers speaking up, especially in a prohibitive way, is very low (Ng and Feldman, 2012).

6.3 Implications

As outlined in Chapter 1, this research is founded on a professional interest in the effects that different leadership behaviours might have on followers' affective commitment to change. This motivated the research on the mechanisms through which leadership behaviours affect followers' affective commitment to change, resulting in the theoretical framework that forms the basis of this research. As a result, it has always been thought to be crucial to employ rigorous research methodologies and a solid theoretical foundation without sacrificing the conclusions of studies' practical relevance and applicability.

6.3.1 Theoretical Implications

This section looks at the several theoretical contributions of this thesis. It has been very interesting from a theoretical point of view to look at and understand how transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours influence the affective commitment of followers to change both directly and indirectly. To the best knowledge of the researcher, previous studies have studied these differing behaviours and their outcomes separately (Allen et al., 2013; Duffy et al., 2002; Gillet and Vandenberghe, 2014; Herold et al., 2008; Oreg, 2003; Tepper, 2000; Wardani et al., 2020). Moreover, in the extensive research undertaken, the researcher did not become aware of any empirical study that tried to understand and test the effects of transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change through readiness for change and resistance to change within the context of a public organisation from a followership perspective. Study 2 also tested the direct relationship between readiness for change, resistance to change and promotive and prohibitive voice on affective commitment to change, this time from a leadership point of view. Therefore, the unique research model used as a blueprint for this research added to the relevant literature an elucidation of the underlying mechanisms of the effects of leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change. It also

extended the literature on the effects of readiness for change, resistance to change and promotive and prohibitive voice on affective commitment to change.

Similar to previous studies (Cho et al., 2019; Gillet and Vandenberghe, 2014; Kim, 2014; Rowold et al., 2014) this research contributed to the existing knowledge on transformational leadership by establishing a direct influence for transformational leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change within a public organisation. According to Rowold et al. (2014) within non-profit organisations, such as a public one, transformational leadership influences affective commitment because these organisations have multiple salient values that are relevant for their effectiveness and, consequently, leaders exhibit transformational leadership behaviours to make the set of multiple values comprehensible for followers such as by communicating these principles, ideas, and values clearly. This result suggests that followers do believe that when their leaders exhibit transformational leadership behaviours when an organisation is undergoing change, they will become more affectively committed to the change and support it. Therefore, the finding of Study 2 extends the body of research about the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' commitment to change to a new area, the undertaking of transformational change within a public sector organisation in a small island state.

Another important contribution made by this research towards the literature of organisational psychology, change and commitment is related to the mechanisms in which transformational leadership behaviours influence followers' commitment to change. Although, there were many scholars that looked at the significant role of transformational leadership vis-à-vis affective commitment to change (Cho et al., 2019; Gillet and Vandenberghe, 2014; Kim, 2014; Rowold et al., 2014), as far as the researcher is aware, very few attempted to address the complex mechanisms through which transformational leadership behaviours actually influence followers' affective commitment to change (Allen et al., 2013; Wardani et al., 2020). Moreover,

according to Jones et al. (2005, p. 368), “readiness for change has rarely been considered as a mediating variable between change management strategies and change implementation success”. The present research contributes to this limited knowledge by confirming readiness for change as an explanatory underlying variable within the leadership process of a public organisation that is undergoing change. Accordingly, Study 2 helps to explain how transformational leadership behaviours influence followers’ affective commitment to change in a public organisation from a followership perspective. By factoring in readiness for change as a mediator in the research model, Study 2 extends the knowledge about the importance of followers’ change readiness. Armenakis et al. (1993) suggested that readiness for change is critical to the effective implementation of organisational change, whilst Weiner (2009, p. 1), proposes that readiness for change refers to followers’ “shared resolve to implement a change (change commitment) and shared belief in their collective capability to do so (change efficacy)", believing in their capacity to do so. The findings of this research support such opinions. In fact, Study 2 found that when followers perceive that their change readiness is high, they become more affectively committed to the change.

Also, to the best knowledge of the researcher, Study 2 is one of the first to measure the direct influence of readiness for change on affective commitment to change in a public organisation from a leadership perspective. With regards to the importance of readiness for change vis-à-vis affective commitment to change, Holt et al. (2003), suggested that for the desired change to occur, it is important for leaders to align followers’ beliefs and cognitions with those of the organisation, this essentially entails the creation of a state of readiness. This research supports such a suggestion as like previous research (Hanpachern et al., 1998; Lyons et al., 2009; Madsen et al., 2005) and the results obtained from followers here, the leaders who participated in Study 2 believe in the importance of their teams’ readiness for change as a factor that is related to affective commitment to change within a specific context, that of a public organisation.

In accordance with previous research (Duffy et al., 2002; Elangovan and Xie, 2000; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009) the result of this research confirms that destructive leadership behaviours negatively affect followers' affective commitment to change within the context of a public organisation. As such, it contributes towards the existing literature on destructive leadership and its consequences by extending the body of research to the context of public organisations during times of change. This finding is important because followers believe that when they are exposed to destructive leadership behaviours, their affective commitment to change is negatively affected; this is considered to be a prevalent factor towards the failure of change initiatives (Conner and Patterson, 1982). Besides, the lack of followers' affective commitment to change may strengthen a destructive leader's negative stereotype of followers, resulting in further destructive leadership behaviours, thereby completing a vicious circle (Ashforth, 1994). This tie into the suggestion made by Neves and Schyns (2018) vis-à-vis destructive uncertainty, that organisations that restrict antiprototypical roles, such as non-conformity, insubordination, or incompetence, might engage in more punitive actions.

Also, Study 2 contributed towards the understanding of the mechanisms in which destructive leadership behaviours influence followers' commitment to change. Many previous studies examined the direct influence of destructive leadership on followers' resistance to change (Boohene and Williams, 2012; Furst and Cable, 2008; Oreg, 2006; van Dam et al., 2008), and affective commitment to change (Duffy et al., 2002; Elangovan and Xie, 2000; Tepper, 2000; Tepper et al., 2009). However, the researcher is not aware of any attempts to address resistance to change as a mechanism through which destructive leadership behaviours negatively affect followers' affective commitment to change. To this effect, this research contributes to the limited knowledge in this area by establishing resistance to change as an explanatory underlying variable of the destructive leadership process within a public organisation in the context of change. Accordingly, Study 2 contributes towards an explanation of how destructive leadership behaviours effect followers'

affective commitment to change in a public organisation. By considering resistance to change as a mediator in the research model, Study 2 extends the knowledge about the effects of followers' resistance to change when a public organisation is implementing a planned change. Oreg (2006, p. 93) suggested that followers' negative view of leadership is "strongly related to increased reports of anger, frustration, and anxiety with respect to the change, to increased actions against it, and in particular to negative evaluations of the need for, and value of, the organisational change". The finding of this research supports this suggestion. In fact, this research established that followers' perception of destructive leadership behaviours is strongly related to an increase in their resistance to change which is then reflected in lower affective commitment to the change.

Furthermore, like previous research (Judge et al., 1999; Oreg, 2003) and similar to the results obtained from followers here, leaders confirmed that their teams' affective commitment to change is negatively affected when the latter resist change. This result extends existing knowledge by showing that followers' resistance negatively effects their affective commitment when a public organisation is undergoing transformational change. Boohene and Williams (2012) suggest that resistance to change is considered to be one of the impediments to organisational change because of its negative repercussions. The result of this research supports such a suggestion. However, as this result reflects leaders' perspective, as suggested by Dent and Goldberg (1999), the perceived resistance to change could be solely a reaction to their behaviours and actions. Unfortunately, Study 2 did not measure this. If this is the case, then Study 2 would be contributing to the existing literature by following the suggestion of Dent and Goldberg (1999, p. 39), that there needs to be a change in the mental model of resistance to change as it could be that 'resistance to change occurs when the changers have not identified a balancing process (compensating feedback loop) that needs to be altered in order for the change to be effective'. However, additional research is required in this regard.

Finally, Study 2 also contributes towards Blau's (1964) exchange theory by shedding light on the relationship between promotive and prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change from a leadership perspective. An important implication of Study 2 is that from a leadership perspective, the two types of voice under investigation here do not affect their teams' affective commitment towards change in the same manner. In fact, promotive voice was found to be positively related to affective commitment to change as in previous studies (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Farndale et al., 2011; Jena et al., 2017; Kim and Leach, 2020). However, no evidence was found to support prohibitive voice as a precursor to affective commitment to change. This finding suggests that promotive voice contributes towards affective commitment to change. Farndale et al. (2011, p. 116), suggest that this is because when followers are given the opportunity to influence decisions "they may align organizational and personal goals and values, which in turn may assist them in accepting, believing in, and identifying with these organizational goals". Also, Liang et al. (2012) suggest that promotive voice is promotion focused and related to followers' ability to influence an organisation's decisions through the chance of advancing their ideas and having these taken into account, as such it is considered more favourably by leaders. On the other hand, the lack of evidence vis-à-vis the relationship between prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change might be because leaders might consider followers who engage in prohibitive voice as 'engaging in counterproductive behaviour in so far as the communication may be seen as overtly negative and interpersonally threatening' (Chamberlin et al., 2017, p. 41). Therefore, it could be that leaders do not consider followers voicing in a prohibitive way as being affectively committed to change. When followers see this, they will refrain from engaging in prohibitive voice to avoid any potential retributions. However, additional research is required to explore the variables that predict leaders' feedback on their followers' promotive and prohibitive voice.

6.3.2 Practical Implications

Affective commitment to change, the extent of followers' emotional identification with the goals and values related to a specific change, is critical for both public and private organisations. This is because the more followers are affectively committed to change implementation, the higher is the probability of its success. Therefore, especially when considering the high rate of failure of change programmes, the influence of leaders is critical for the development of their followers' affective commitment to change. One way of doing this is through leadership behaviours and this is what Study 2 focuses upon. Leaders involved in change programmes would benefit from knowing what works and what does not to increase the probability of successful change. Although it is impossible for a single study to ensure this, this research did provide a few relevant practical implications for leaders, thus contributing towards applied leadership practices. The main contribution of Study 2 from a practical perspective relates to the direct and indirect influences of transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change. Also, this research contributes towards an understanding of the link that exists between promotive and prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change. As such, the practical implications of Study 2 can be presented in three subsections. The first section relates to the influences of transformational leadership behaviours and the mechanisms through which these affect affective commitment to change. The second section looks at the effects of destructive leadership behaviours on affective commitment to change, both directly and indirectly, whilst the last one explores the relationship between promotive and prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change.

6.3.2.1 Practical Implications for Transformational Leadership

By establishing that there is a link between followers' perception of their leaders' transformational leadership behaviours and the former's affective commitment to change, it appears that transformational leadership behaviours

by immediate leaders do help followers to develop their affective commitment to change which apparently increases the probability of successful change. Therefore, in their attempts to influence and develop followers' affective commitment to change, leaders may need to pay particular attention to their leadership approach. Specifically in times of change, leaders may need to apply more transformational leadership behaviours to "align [followers] around [their] vision and empower them to take greater responsibility for achieving the vision" (Bass and Avolio, 1993, p. 113). To achieve this, leaders need to consider carefully how to become better at articulating the organisation's vision, whilst taking care of, involving, guiding, and providing followers with an understanding of where the organisation is going. It appears that when followers can make sense of the reasoning and the strategy behind their leaders' vision, they become more cognizant of what needs to be done to achieve it. In fact, affective commitment to change develops when followers "become involved in, recognize the value relevance of, or derive their identity from, association with an entity or pursuit of a course of action" (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002, p. 484).

Moreover, having identified readiness for change as a mechanism through which transformational leadership behaviours influence followers' affective commitment to change, a practical consideration would be to have transformational leaders focusing more on creating change readiness among their followers. This will reduce followers' resistance and make them support and work more for the proposed change, thus increasing the probability of a successful transformation. However, creating readiness for change might not come automatically, especially in a public service organisation which tends to be highly bureaucratic and expects its members to comply with the proposed or introduced changes no matter what the latter' state of readiness is. In such circumstances, leaders need to remain focused and apply transformational leadership behaviours to support followers through their influential, inspiring, motivating, and challenging behaviours and by serving as a role model. Essentially, leaders need to create a state of readiness among their followers by explaining clearly why the change being proposed is suitable for the

organisation and by enhancing their followers' confidence in their ability to deliver what is being expected of them. These two aspects of readiness for change go hand in hand and both are needed to increase followers' affective commitment to change. The more leaders actively create such a state of readiness among their followers, by means of, for example, training, participation in decision making and empowerment, the more they are likely to increase their followers' 'involvement, value relevance, or identification, and therefore foster affective commitment [to change]' (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002, p. 484).

However, to create high readiness for change, leaders must distinguish between incremental changes and transformational ones such as the one implemented within the Maltese public service organisation. Rafferty and Simons (2006, p. 344) suggest that in the case of transformational change, "leaders would be more likely to create high readiness for change by focusing on actions designed to create trust in leaders and on actions designed to develop individuals' self-efficacy concerning their capacity to implement change". Ideally, such actions should constitute of three well-planed strategies aimed at enhancing social relationships among members of an organisation. Armenakis et al. (1993) pointed out three influence strategies that leaders can apply to increase followers' readiness for change. The first is persuasive communication, that allows leaders to communicate the change message directly through oral persuasive communication (speeches, meetings, or presentations), recorded communication (audio, media, or online presentations) and written communication (memos, newsletters, annual reports). Secondly, there is the management of external information. Here, leaders use both external and internal sources to manage information about the change and make it available to both followers and the organisation's stakeholders. Third, is active participation, in this case leaders can manage opportunities for followers to learn directly through their own activities (Armenakis et al., 1993). According to Armenakis and Harris (2001, p. 172), there are three forms of active participation: "enactive mastery (gradually building skills, knowledge, and efficacy through successive involvement and

practice), vicarious learning (observing and learning from others), and participation in decision making". Also, according to Armenakis et al. (1993), creating readiness for change should not be treated solely as a pre-change concern but must be maintained throughout the change process. This is especially the case regarding a transformational change such as that experienced by the Maltese Public Service, as usually such a change is made up of smaller changes that are introduced incrementally. Failing to ensure a constant state of change readiness among followers might lead to change failure. Thus, Armenakis et al. (1993) emphasise that leaders must ensure that followers are constantly ready and that readiness efforts should be implemented on an as required basis throughout the change process.

Consequently, considering the benefits of transformational leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change, another important practical implication would be for organisations to reflect in more depth on the degree to which their leaders are perceived to be transformational. In doing so, organisations should be asking whether their leaders have what it takes to foster their followers' affective commitment. If not, would it be possible, as suggested by Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014), to train such leaders on how to become transformational leaders? This could be done, for example, by making use of the Full Range Leadership Development programme developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) aimed specifically at helping leaders to display transformational leadership behaviours more regularly. According to Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014), leaders who participated in this programme exhibited transformational leadership behaviours much more regularly whilst their followers reported significantly higher extra efforts and satisfaction with leaders who attended such training. Similarly, Brown and May (2012) claim that leaders who attended a transformational leadership development and training programme significantly increased both their contingent reward and transformational leadership behaviours. They also assert that "the increases in transformational leadership were accompanied, in an otherwise stable and unchanged operating environment, by significant increases in productivity and satisfaction with supervision" (Brown and May, 2012, p. 533). Likewise,

Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) found transformational leadership training to be quite effective and that the followers of leaders who received such training perceived the latter as higher on intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration than those who did not receive such training.

6.3.2.2 Implications for Destructive Leadership Behaviours

The research also found that destructive leadership behaviours negatively affect followers' affective commitment to change and that this affect is exacerbated when followers resist change. It appears that when leaders exhibit destructive behaviours, followers respond by increasing their resistance to change whilst reducing their affective commitment to it, thereby increasing the probability of change failure. These findings also have several practical implications. First, having leaders exhibiting destructive leadership behaviours will not get followers to affectively commit to the change. Therefore, it is important for leaders that are managing change to be self-aware, keep themselves under check and consider how their behaviours are being perceived by their followers and change these, if need be, to emphasise more on transformational leadership behaviours. Organisations can help in this regard by investing strongly in training to address the developmental needs of leaders. Training programmes need to be developed to help leaders increase their behavioural self-awareness and instil in them techniques that help them to desist from exhibiting destructive leadership behaviours. Neves (2009) goes a step further and claims that such training is required not only to make it clear that destructive leadership behaviours are not tolerated but also to coach leaders on how to act supportively, deal constructively with perceived followers' resistance to change and implement change effectively.

Moreover, to increase affective commitment to change, leaders should consider addressing resistance to change. This can be done in a number of ways. First, resistance can be tempered with by having leaders involving followers in the change process; this can be done through clear and timely

communication and opportunities to involvement in the planning and implementation of change (van Dam et al., 2008). To achieve this, leaders need to create a safe environment where followers can engage in open communication and share their ideas, worries, problems, and needs. Moreover, leaders must be realistic when they present the pros and cons of change to their followers. According to Folger and Skarlicki (1999), leaders may be tempted to oversell the positive and understate the negative potential effects of change on their followers and organisation. However, if, as the change starts to unfold, the expectations are unmet, followers might respond by resistance and lack of commitment. Also, the involvement of followers by leaders in the change process, indicates that followers are respected, and that their contributions are valued. This will make followers more affectively committed to the change, thereby increasing their discretionary behaviour. Besides, and on a different note, leaders can offer followers training and support to help them learn new skills and adapt to the proposed change by, for example, being followed by a mentor. Lastly, leaders need to be always switched on and together with their teams evaluate, on a regular basis, the change process to address any emerging issues and adjust the change process accordingly for the successful implementation of change.

6.3.2.3 Practical Implications for Voice

Moreover, according to leaders, there is a positive relationship between promotive voice and affective commitment to change, though no relationship was found between prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change. Although further research is required, to establish the reasons behind such a result, it could mean that leaders' receptivity to promotive and prohibitive voice differs, depending on the type of voice used (Zhang et al., 2020). Leaders need to understand and be aware that their openness to different types of voice may differ. Though leaders might hope to benefit from followers' ideas, suggestions, challenges and concerns, the unfortunate truth is that followers often feel uncomfortable to voice out, especially in a prohibitive way, because of the potential consequences (Liang et al., 2012). As prohibitive voice is intended to

prevent harmful consequences to the organisation, leaders should be particularly receptive to such to identify and solve problems in a timely manner (Zhang et al., 2020). Therefore, as voice plays a crucial role in the change process, leaders need to create an environment where followers feel safe to voice out their opinions about the change as this will increase their commitment to it. So, it is important for leaders, especially those in a highly centralised and bureaucratic organisation, to ensure that they do not enable or restrict a particular type of voice by taking advantage of their hierarchical position or because they feel threatened by it. Moreover , leaders could, for example, nurture high levels of identification with the organisation, show an attitude of openness to followers' ideas, challenges, and concerns and providing both formal and informal methods for voice, remind followers of their value to the organisation and of their ability to give valuable input, and stress that followers can contribute towards the change's success by providing recommendations (promotive voice) and pointing out problematic aspects (prohibitive voice) of the change (Liang et al., 2012). Also, leaders can make voice a positive experience for followers by, for example, practicing open communication and engage in active listening, thereby increasing the prospects of having followers engaging in both promotive and prohibitive voice. It would be interesting to identify those leadership behaviours that serve as antecedents by explicitly welcoming promotive and prohibitive voice when an organisation is undergoing change, unfortunately this was not covered in Study 2. Besides, as followers also play a crucial part vis-à-vis voice, it is important for organisations to invest in the personal development of followers and build the latter's communication skills as it could be that followers lack the necessary confidence to voice their opinions or concerns because they lack self-efficacy and do not belief that their input matters. This is important, as it is critical for followers to develop effective communication skills to be able to voice their ideas, suggestions, and concerns timely, professionally and respectfully, thereby increasing the probability of having their voice heard and acted upon by leaders (Dutton et al., 2001).

6.4 Limitations

Although this research made several valuable contributions to the literature on change leadership and organisational change, there are a number of limitations that deserve mention. First, Study 2 was undertaken in a single public organisation in Malta, as such this might limit the generalisability of the results obtained to other organisations operating in the public or private sectors. However, as most of the hypotheses tested here were tested before, albeit in different circumstances and organisational contexts (Ashforth, 1994; Hanpachern et al., 1998; Tepper, 2000; Oreg, 2003; Herold et al., 2008; Farndale et al., 2011; Allen et al., 2013), there might be some evidence to support the robustness of the results obtained here. Generalisability might also be affected by the sample size of one hundred and ninety-three. One hundred and sixteen of these were followers and seventy-seven were leaders. As such, although Study 2 attempts to demonstrate both theoretical and practical relevance, such relevance could be affected by the relatively small sample size.

Also, as Study 2 was a cross-sectional one, the degree to which one can determine the cause-and-effect relationships was limited. Although all the findings except one are according to the presented research model, these only show that a relationship exists among the variables. The researcher cannot claim that one variable affected another, it could be possible that the direction of the relationship among the variables could be different. Taris, Kessler, and Kelloway (2021) claim that this issue could be addressed by undertaking a longitudinal study where data is collected for the same set of variables over two or more instances to allow for intra-individual comparison over time. Such a design “temporally separate a presumed outcome from its possible cause, and usually also allow for testing whether across-time change in this outcome is predicted by a presumed antecedent” (Taris et al., 2021, p. 1). Even though this does not constitute conclusive evidence for a causal relationship, demonstrating “that an antecedent precedes across-time change in an outcome certainly helps in arguing that this association can be interpreted

causally" (Taris et al., 2021, p. 2). Still, despite the effectiveness of this measure, there are several disadvantages related to this approach that must be kept in mind. First, temporal separation increases the complexity and cost of the study; second, temporal separation may allow other nonmethodological factors to influence changes to the dependent variable; third the longer the temporal delay, the higher the possibility of respondent attrition; fourth, it is difficult to determine the time delay for a given relationship, and fifth, the temporal separation procedure is based on the assumption that the relationship between two variables remain stable over time and that the method bias will reduce over time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff , 2012).

Another limitation is that of common method variance, this is because both followers and leaders rated both the independent and dependent variables respectively. To control for such method bias, a researcher can collect data on the independent and dependent variables from different persons as this will go quite a long way to decrease the average split level correlations between the several dimensions of two variables. However, according to Podsakoff et al. (2012), although such a method can address several important sources of method bias, it may not be appropriate to use in a case like Study 2 when both the independent and dependent variables are capturing someone's perceptions, beliefs, judgements, or feelings. Besides, there is also the possibility of social desirability bias, where it might be the case that respondents answered in a way that makes them feel good, rather than responding truthfully. To limit this risk, the researcher provided participants with an introductory note explaining why the research is being undertaken and its importance for their organisation, and appropriate instructions stating that there are no right, or wrong answers and that the researcher is only interested in their opinion. Respondents were also assured anonymity to further decrease the probability of this bias. According to Podsakoff et al. (2012, p. 563), "the tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner, threats to self-esteem, and defensiveness may be diminished through anonymity, telling respondents in the cover story or instructions there are no right or wrong

answers, and assuring them that people have different opinions about the issues addressed in the questionnaire". Also, there is the possibility of recall bias where followers could have failed to recall accurately the requested information about their leaders. In fact, Hansbrough, Lord, and Schyns (2015, p. 220) claim that "the use of follower reports of leader behavior creates challenges given that…behavioural ratings reflect not only recall of actual behaviours, but also inferences based on semantic memory, which may vary among individuals". There are several options that researchers can consider to increase the accuracy of followers' reporting on their leaders. According to Hansbrough et al. (2015) researchers can provide training to followers on what to report; they can also collect data over time and use more measures that enable followers to tap into their episodic memory and or create conditions that enable followers to recall their episodic memory easier; lastly, researchers can introduce measures to control for individual differences that might impact rating accuracy, though the latter does not eliminate raters' effects completely.

Another limitation for Study 2 is related to the sample method. As Study 2 relied entirely on volunteers to participate in the survey, there could be a degree of self-selection bias. It could be that those who volunteered to participate did so for personal reasons that are beyond the scope of Study 2. It could also be that such sampling might have resulted, to a certain degree, in the respondents not being representative of the subject population. However, despite these issues, in the circumstances faced by the researcher this was the most effective sampling strategy. There were two main reasons behind the adoption of this sampling method. First, the researcher found it very difficult to find an organisation willing to participate in Study 2. The researcher approached another two organisations that experienced change prior to settling for this public service organisation, one was an international player in the hospitality sector and the other was a main player in the Maltese communications' sector. However, both organisations refused to participate at the last-minute citing confidentiality issues, this considerably increased the time constraints faced by the researcher.

Secondly, the researcher was interested in the views of both leaders and followers, and the original idea was to use the snowball sampling technique, starting from leaders, moving to their immediate followers. Such technique was considered best as it was difficult for the researcher to identify the desired initial participants, leaders having three or more immediate followers. At the end of the leaders' questionnaire, respondents were provided with a link to followers' questionnaire and were asked to share it with their immediate subordinates. The questionnaires had an imbedded unique login-id to link them together, thereby allowing the researcher to verify that the followers' questionnaires corresponded to those of their direct leaders. However, when this technique was implemented, the response rate from both leaders and followers was very poor and the exercise had to be stopped. According to the public service organisation's gatekeeper participation was very low because of the sensitivity of the subject being researched (the effects of leadership behaviours of immediate supervisors) and due to political reasons, as such public officers, be it leaders and followers were afraid to participate. Following this, the researcher was advised by the gatekeeper to stop using the snowball sampling technique and to disseminate the leaders' and followers' questionnaires separately. As a result, the researcher cannot infer anything about the relationship of the variables between the two samples.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of Study 2, suggestions for future research can be made. First, it would be interesting to undertake a similar research project to this one as it was originally intended. Although this research project did not work as initially planned when implemented within the Maltese public service organisation, it does not mean that other organisations will be resistant to it. Therefore, the proposed study should adopt a snowball sampling technique, starting from the dissemination of leaders' questionnaires, moving on to those of their immediate followers. In their questionnaires, leaders would be provided with a link to followers' questionnaire and will be asked to share it with their immediate subordinates. The questionnaires will have an imbedded unique

login-id to link them together, thereby allowing the researcher to verify that the followers' questionnaires corresponded to those of their direct leaders. The aim of linking leaders with their immediate followers is important to ensure that both are referring to the same group set, thereby making the results more relevant. Moreover, such project should adopt a longitudinal design that enables the separate measurement among variables, this would lead to a better understanding of causality.

Also, the sample used for Study 2 comprised solely of organisational members of a public organisation in Malta. This might limit the generalisability of such results to public organisations in Malta. Although studies in different organisations and countries on readiness for change (Santhidran et al., 2013, Wardani et al., 2020, Yeap et al., 2020) and resistance to change (Boohene and Williams, 2012; Oreg, 2006) deliver comparable results, further study in these areas is necessary to confirm and broaden these conclusions. For example, it would be interesting to undertake similar studies in public service organisations that underwent change in other countries. Also interesting would be to study private organisations that experienced change, even in Malta, and see how the results will compare.

Moreover, it would be interesting for future research to study other mediators apart from readiness for change and resistance to change to identify the mechanisms through which both transformational leadership behaviours and destructive leadership behaviours influence followers' affective commitment to change. For example, it would be interesting to use participation as a mechanism between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. Also interesting would be to use followers' helplessness and work alienation as mediators between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. This will further contribute to a more holistic understanding of the respective beneficial and destructive effects of these two differing leadership behaviours.

Moreover, although according to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), followers' affective commitment to change is essential for the successful implementation of change, there are other behavioural (organizational citizenship and deviance), attitudinal (engagement and cynicism), and emotional (positive and negative emotions) reactions that are important for the successful implementation of change and that could be influenced by transformational leadership behaviours. As such, future research should focus on the study such reactions as this will help to further extent the knowledge on the positive influences of transformational leadership behaviours.

Also, Study 2 measured followers' promotive and prohibitive voice behaviour from a leadership perspective. Future research can focus on the antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice such as leadership behaviours or psychological safety or workplace climate. For example, it would be interesting to explore how and under what circumstances followers of destructive leaders are likely to voice their concerns and grievances. It is also considered important to study the psychological mechanisms at play when leaders rate their followers promotive and prohibitive voice behaviours and whether they give them the same value and weight. Research in this regard will help to increase awareness and reduce adverse situations.

Moreover, with reference to destructive leadership behaviours, it is important for future research to examine the circumstances that enable leaders to behave destructively. According to several researchers (Ashforth, 1994; Neves, 2014, Neves and Schyns, 2018, Padilla et al., 2007, Thoroughgood et al., 2018), leaders, followers and context seems to play a role in this. According to Padilla et al.'s (2007), toxic triangle model, the antecedents of destructive leadership may be found in leaders' characteristics (e.g. personalised power motives) and behaviours (e.g. coercion), followers' characteristics (e.g. neuroticism) and behaviours (e.g. constantly seeking affirmation) and the organisational context (e.g. lack of checks and balances, complexity) and in the continuous interaction among these. Yet, this toxic interaction remains unexplored. Therefore, future research should explore how leaders and

followers interact within a context of organisational change. As change, especially transformational change brings about a lot of uncertainty and complexity whilst reducing the effectiveness of organisational checks and balances, followers may end up vulnerable to their leaders' destructive behaviours, this is more so if, for example, followers lack alternative job opportunities. For a more comprehensive view, it will also be beneficial to explore those institutional elements "that define, influence, and prescribe certain practices and behaviours" (Thoroughgood et al., p. 643).

Also, similar to Study 2, previous research mainly focused on the harmful consequences of destructive leadership behaviours, as such it would be interesting for future research to explore the antecedents of destructive leadership behaviours such as leaders' negative stereotypes of followers and followers' reactions to destructive leadership behaviours that might prompt leaders to act more destructively (Ashforth, 1994). Such research should examine these interactions by considering the views of both followers and leaders and verify whether these correspond or not. Such research will provide a deeper understanding of destructive leadership.

7 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

To conclude, this chapter revisits the main aim and objectives of Study 2. To this effect, each objective, and the way it was addressed by Study 2 will be explained briefly.

7.2 The Main Aim and Objectives of Study 2

The main aim of Study 2 was to determine the effects of two opposing leadership behaviours, transformational and destructive, on followers' perceptions and reactions to a transformational change programme that has been undertaken within a Maltese public service organisation between 2013 and 2021. Researchers (Bass, 1990; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994) consider transformational leadership behaviours to play a crucial role in increasing followers' affective commitment to change, thereby increasing the probability of a successful outcome. However, increasingly, researchers (Erickson et al., 2015; Neves and Schyns, 2018; Padilla et al., 2007; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009) are looking at the dark side of leadership and are claiming that destructive behaviours are more prevalent than originally thought and that such behaviours are more prevalent during times of change. Such destructive leadership behaviours are considered to have negative effects on followers, thereby decreasing their affective commitment to change. This research explores the influence of these two differing leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change. To achieve this and based on the presented research model, four objectives have been set.

The first objective was to shed light on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. Transformational leadership behaviours are considered to be

supportive of followers' commitment to change as through these behaviours, leaders can support, inspire, and motivate followers. This was confirmed by the findings of this research that established a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change, confirming that transformational leadership behaviours enable leaders to positively influence followers' affective commitment to change.

The second objective was to explain the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. Destructive leadership behaviours are considered to have a negative effect on followers' commitment to change as when such behaviours are experienced by followers, the latter identify less with the proposed change and develop an overall negative feeling towards the organisation, thus contributing to change failure and organisation decline (Mullen et al., 2018; Rafferty and Restubog, 2011; Schyns and Schilling, 2013; Tepper, 2007; Tepper et al., 2009; Trepanier et al., 2019). This was corroborated by the results of Study 2 that found destructive leadership behaviours to be negatively related to followers' affective commitment to change. When leaders show destructive leadership behaviours, they elicit negative effects on their followers.

The third objective was to explain the mechanisms through which transformational and destructive leadership behaviours affect followers' affective commitment to change. Although transformational leadership behaviours are considered to positively influence followers' affective commitment to change, very few studies attempted to establish how this influence is exerted. Study 2 considered readiness for change as the mechanism through which leaders can influence followers' affective commitment to change. Readiness for change is important as when followers are change ready, they are more likely to support the change, put more effort, cooperate more and act as champions to the change (Armenakis et al., 1993; Drzensky et al., 2012; Jones et al., 2005; Neves, 2009;). On the other hand, not much is known in the literature on how destructive leadership behaviours

influence followers' affective commitment to change. Therefore, Study 2 considered resistance to change as the mechanism through which such influence is applied. Resistance to change was regarded as ideal as it can be one of the countermeasures used by followers to counter destructive leadership behaviours (Boohene and Williams, 2012; Furst and Cable, 2008; Oreg, 2006; van Dam et al., 2008;). When resistance to change is high, followers support for the change on the merits of its value to the organisation is reduced, increasing the probability of change failure. In addition to that the direct relationships between readiness for change and resistance to change with affective commitment to change were also considered. In this regard, this research established that readiness for change mediates the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. This result shows the relevance of readiness for change in change leadership and organisational change research and makes it a requirement for researchers to consider change readiness when studying transformational leadership behaviours and its effects on change. Also, resistance to change was found to mediate the relationship between destructive leadership behaviours and followers' affective commitment to change. This result shows that resistance to change is relevant to change leadership and organisational change research and makes it a condition for researchers to consider when studying destructive leadership behaviours and its effects on the change process.

The fourth and last objective was to verify the kind of relationship that exists between promotive and prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change. Voice, in its two different forms is considered crucial for the implementation of successful change. This is because whilst promotive voice is constructive, providing solutions and focusing on innovation, and the improvement of the change process (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2012), prohibitive voice is considered to be less constructive and aimed to limit the damage to the organisation (Chamberlin et al., 2017; Hg and Feldman, 2015; Liang et al., 2012; Morrison, 2011). The findings of this research established a positive relationship between promotive voice and affective commitment to change.

Leaders believe that having their teams engaging in promotive voice increases the latter's affective commitment to change. However, of particular interest was the finding that prohibitive voice was not significantly associated with affective commitment to change. As the nature of prohibitive voice is meant to stop or hinder harmful acts that harm the organisation or followers, followers might not use it fearing that it might be viewed negatively by leaders, especially if it indicates failure on their part.

7.3 A Final Note

Different to other studies, this research explored the influences of transformational and destructive leadership behaviours on followers' affective commitment to change. In doing so, this thesis established that transformational leadership behaviours have a positive influence on followers' affective commitment to change. Furthermore, it established that readiness for change is an effective mechanism through which transformational leaders generate such influence. Also, this research found that destructive leadership behaviours have a negative effect on followers' affective commitment to change. More importantly, it showed resistance to change to be a mechanism through which followers' affective commitment to change is negatively affected. Also, this thesis looked at the relationship between followers' promotive and prohibitive voice and affective commitment to change and established that leaders need to create an open environment whereby followers feel safe to voice their ideas, suggestions, challenges, and concerns.

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9 Appendices

Appendix 1 – Participant Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Project title: The influences of leadership behaviors on followers' perceptions and reactions to change in a Maltese Public Service Organisation.

Researcher(s): Mr. Brian Zahra

Department: DBA – Durham University Business School

Contact details: brian.zahra@durham.ac.uk / Mobile No: +35699449100

Supervisor name: Professor Birgit Schyns

Supervisor contact details: birgit.schyns@durham.ac.uk / birgit.schyns@neoma-bs.fr

You are invited to take part in a study that I am conducting as part of my DBA programme at Durham University. The study aims to contribute to the current knowledge on organizational change, followers' resistance and leadership within your organization. The research aims to present a comprehensive understanding of personal and group responses to change, specifically the interaction between leaders, followers and context applied to your organization.

This study has received ethical approval from the Ethics Committee of the Business School of Durham University. The researcher currently holds the position of Economic Envoy at the Ministry for Finance and Employment, Malta. Previously he served as FLHSS Director at Corinthia Hotels, Chief Officer Enforcement – Transport Malta, Head of HSSEQ for a bunkering organization and Police Inspector within the Malta Police Force. Mr. Zahra holds an Hons Degree in Public and Private Sector Management, a post graduate Certificate in Policing and a Masters Degree in Security and Risk Management. Mr. Zahra is also a Visiting Lecturer at the Department of Criminology at the University of Malta where he lectures on Offence and Criminal Profiling and Migration, Crime and Borders.

Before you decide whether to agree to take part it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what is involved as a participant. Please read the following information carefully. Please get in contact if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

The rights and responsibilities of anyone taking part in Durham University research are set out in our
'Participants Charter':

https://www.dur.ac.uk/research.innovation/governance/ethics/considerations/people/charter/

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of this study is to contribute to the current knowledge on organizational change, employees' resistance and leadership. Although the study recognises the importance of leadership, specifically transformational leadership, to implement change effectively, the research aims to present a more complete understanding of personal and group responses to change, specifically the interaction between leaders, followers and context as applied to your specific organization. This is because at any point in time leaders' behaviour might be affected by followers and situations at work. Additionally, the research will be looking at the destructive side of change management. This is because change is bound to fail when leaders, followers and the environment exhibit negative practices leading to bad leadership practices

Do I have to take part?

Your participation is voluntary, and you do not have to agree to take part. If you do agree to take part, you can withdraw at any time, without giving a reason. Your rights in relation to withdrawing any data that is identifiable to you are explained in the accompanying Privacy Notice. Still, all data is anonymized as such I will not be able to omit the data given, though no one will be able to trace such data to a particular person either.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you agree to take part in the study, you will be required to do the following:

- Fill in the online questionnaire on any mobile device such as a mobile phone, tablet or laptop or on your desktop computer. It is estimated that the questionnaire will take you 20 minutes to fill in. You can stop and continue at your leisure. You are receiving this questionnaire as you have been identified by your respective supervisor as a suitable candidate for the study.
- In case you do not feel comfortable answering a question or a number of questions you are free to do so without any prejudice.

Are there any potential risks involved?

The researcher does not envisage any risks involved to you, the participant. All information is collected anonymously so that the researcher is not able to identify any one specifically. Also, all information, personal or otherwise, will be received and hosted by my supervisor on her NEOMA Business School private account (birgit.schyns@neoma-bs.fr), as such your privacy is guaranteed, and your identity cannot be divulged. The researcher does not have access to this account.

Will my data be kept confidential?

The data you provide is fully anonymous and we will not collect or ask you to provide any personal data. We will have no way of linking responses back to an individual. Full details are included in the accompanying Privacy Notice.

What will happen to the results of the project?

It is expected that the results of the project will be published by the end of July 2022. No personal data will be shared, however anonymized (i.e. not identifiable) data may be used in publications, reports, presentations, web pages and other research outputs. At the end of the project, anonymized data may be archived and shared with others for legitimate research purposes. All research data and records needed to validate the research findings will be stored for 10 years after publication of the results. Durham University is committed to sharing the results of its world-class research for public benefit. As part of this commitment the University has established an online repository for all Durham University Higher Degree theses which provides access to the full text of freely available theses. The study in which you are invited to participate will be written up as a thesis. On successful submission of the thesis, it will be deposited both in print and online in the University archives, to facilitate its use in future research. The thesis will be published open access.

Who do I contact if I have any questions or concerns about this study?

If you have any further questions or concerns about this study, please speak to the researcher or their supervisor. If you remain unhappy or wish to make a formal complaint, please submit a complaint via the University's Complaints Process.

Thank you for reading this information and considering taking part in this study.

Appendix 2 – Followers' Questionnaire

Introductory Note

Hello, I am Brian Zahra, a postgraduate researcher at Durham University Business School. I am conducting a study on the influence of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to the changes introduced in a Maltese public service organisation over recent years.

Specifically, I chose this Maltese public service organisation to undertake this research as I am aware that the organisation passed from a process changes and I am very much interested in your experiences and views in this regard.

The following questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. I truly appreciate your valuable time and effort in helping me with this research.

Under no circumstances are you obliged to answer any of these questions; however, doing so will be very helpful for me to complete my research and improve my understanding of this research.

If you consent to answer the questions please be aware that there are no right or wrong answers, I am just interested in your opinion. I will ensure that all your information and data collected for this research will remain confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your participation.

Best regards,

Brian

Title of Project: The influence of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to changes in a Maltese Public Service Organisation.

Student Name: Mr Brian Zahra
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Supervisor Name: Prof. Birgit Schyns
Supervisor contact details: birgit.schyns@durham.ac.uk/birgit.schyns@neoma-bs.fr

Please read and give your consent:

I confirm at I have read and understood the information sheet about the above-named project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during the undertaking of this questionnaire, without giving a reason. I also understand that once i submit my questionnaire i cannot request the researcher to withdraw my participation.

In case you need additional information please follow the below hyperlink: Participant Information Sheet

By clicking on "I consent" I agree to have the information provided by me to be used for the purposes of this research project.

I consent

I do not consent

Definitions:
The following questions will refer to your direct leader, team, follower/s and change. Here is briefly what we would like you to think about when responding to the questions.

Direct Leader: the immediate superior with whom there is daily face-to-face interaction and that directs you to meet specific goals or tasks. In case you had more than one leader over the change period, please refer to the last leader you had.
Team: A group of people that report directly to a specific leader.
Follower/s: Followers are the person or persons that report directly to a specific leader.
Change: Change refers to the recent change introduced in a Maltese public service organisation over recent years.

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Lied to me.	○	○	○	○	○
Was always seeking new opportunities for the team.	○	○	○	○	○
Broke promises he/she made.	○	○	○	○	○
Painted an interesting picture of the future for my team.	○	○	○	○	○
Had a clear understanding of where my team was going.	○	○	○	○	○
Was able to get others committed to his/her dream of the future.	○	○	○	○	○
Inspired others with his/her plans for the future.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Did not allow me to interact with my colleagues.	○	○	○	○	○
Got the team to work together for the same goal.	○	○	○	○	○
Developed a team attitude and spirit among his/her followers.	○	○	○	○	○
Encouraged followers to be 'team players'.	○	○	○	○	○
Fostered collaboration among work teams.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the change introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Invaded my privacy.	○	○	○	○	○
Did not settle for second best.	○	○	○	○	○
Showed us that he/she expects a lot from the team.	○	○	○	○	○
Insisted on only the best performance.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the change introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Treated me without considering my personal feelings.	○	○	○	○	○
Behaved in a manner that was thoughtful of my personal needs.	○	○	○	○	○
Ridiculed me.	○	○	○	○	○
Put me down in front of others.	○	○	○	○	○
Told me my thoughts or feelings were stupid.	○	○	○	○	○
Made negative comments about me to others.	○	○	○	○	○
Showed respect for my personal feelings.	○	○	○	○	○
Acted without considering my feelings.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Provided me with new ways of looking at things which used to be a puzzle for me.	○	○	○	○	○
Reminded me of my past mistakes and failures.	○	○	○	○	○
Stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways.	○	○	○	○	○
Did not give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	○	○	○	○	○
Had ideas that forced me to rethink some of my own ideas I have never questioned before.	○	○	○	○	○
Told me I am incompetent.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the change introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your direct manager showed the following behaviours during the change process.

My direct manager...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Blamed me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	○	○	○	○	○
Expressed anger at me when he/she was mad for another reason.	○	○	○	○	○
Lead by 'doing' rather than simply by 'telling'.	○	○	○	○	○
Was rude to me.	○	○	○	○	○
Lead by example.	○	○	○	○	○
Provided a good model to follow.	○	○	○	○	○
Gave me the silent treatment.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often you felt prepared for the change.

I was willing...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
To create new ideas about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To be part of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To work more because of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To change the way I worked because of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To help solve the challenges offered by the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To do things in a new or creative way because of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To make the changes introduced in the organisation over the recent years fail.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often you felt prepared for the change.

I was willing...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
To take responsibility for the changes introduced in the organisation if it failed in my area.	○	○	○	○	○
To be part of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To learn new things due to the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To change the way in which the organisation was working even if what the organisation was doing appeared to be working.	○	○	○	○	○
To support the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
To improve what we were doing rather than undertaking the changes introduced in the organisation, which constituted a transformational change.	○	○	○	○	○
To sell ideas about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○

What colour is grass?
The fresh, uncut grass, not leaves or hay. Make sure to select purple as an answer so that we know you are paying attention.

- Red
- Purple
- Green

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often you felt prepared for the change.

When I thought about the renewal and change that took place in my organisation over the recent years...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
I complained about the changes introduced in the organisation to my colleagues.	○	○	○	○	○
The changes introduced in the organisation over the recent years made me upset.	○	○	○	○	○
I protested against the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I presented my objections regarding the changes introduced in the organisation to my superior.	○	○	○	○	○
I was stressed by the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I had a bad feeling about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I was afraid of the changes introduced in the Maltese organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I looked for ways to prevent the changes introduced in the organisation from taking place.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often you felt prepared for the change.

When I think about the renewal and change that took place in my organisation over the recent years...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
I believed that the changes introduced in the organisation would harm the way things were done at the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I think that it was a negative thing for the organisation to go through the changes' process.	○	○	○	○	○
I believed that the changes introduced in the organisation over the recent years would make my job harder.	○	○	○	○	○
I was quite excited about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I spoke rather highly of the changes introduced in the organisation to others.	○	○	○	○	○
I believed that the changes introduced in the organisation would benefit the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I believed that I could personally benefit from the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○

Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree how much you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believed in the value of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
The changes introduced in the organisation consisted of a good strategy for the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
I think that the top management made a mistake by introducing the changes in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Things would have been better without the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
The changes introduced in the organisation were not necessary.	○	○	○	○	○
The changes introduced in the organisation served an important purpose.	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic Information: The following information will be used for research purposes only. At no time will your individual answers be identified.

	Male	Female	Other	Prefer not to answer
Gender:	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the age bracket you fall into:

	18 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 - 64	65+
Age:	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please state for how long have you been employed with the Maltese public service organisation (job tenure):

	0 - 1	1 - 2	2 - 3	3 - 5	5 - 10	10 - 15	15 - upwards
Years:	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please indicate the highest level of education achieved:

	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Technical	Post-Secondary	Tertiary
Education:	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please state for how long you reported to your current leader:

	0 - 1	1 - 2	2 - 3	3 - 5	5 - 10	10 - 15	15 - upwards
Years	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.

Appendix 3 – Leaders' Questionnaire

Introductory Note

Hello, I am Brian Zahra, a postgraduate researcher at Durham University Business School. I am conducting a study on the influence of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation that took place over recent years.

Specifically, I chose this Maltese public service organisation to undertake this research as I am aware that the organisation passed from a process of changes and I am very much interested in your experiences and views in this regard.

The following questionnaire will take approximately 8 minutes to complete. I truly appreciate your valuable time and effort in helping me with this research.

Under no circumstances are you obliged to answer any of these questions; however, doing so will be very helpful for me to complete my research and improve my understanding of this research.

If you consent to answer the questions please be aware that there are no right or wrong answers, I am just interested in your opinion. I will ensure that all your information and data collected for this research will remain confidential and will be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your participation.

Best regards,

Brian

Durham University Business School

Title of Project: The influence of leadership behaviours on followers' perceptions and reactions to changes in a Maltese Public Service Organisation.

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Please read and give your consent:

I confirm at I have read and understood the information sheet about the above-named project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during the undertaking of this questionnaire, without giving a reason. I also understand that once I submit my questionnaire I cannot request the researcher to withdraw my participation.

In case you need additional information please follow the below hyperlink: Participant Information Sheet

By clicking on "I consent" I agree to have the information provided by me to be used for the purposes of this research project.

- ○ I consent
- ○ I do not consent

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Definitions:

The following questions will refer to your direct leader, team, follower/s and change. Here is briefly what we would like you to think about when responding to the questions.

Direct Leader: the immediate superior with whom there is daily face-to-face interaction and that directs you to meet specific goals or tasks. In case you had more than one leader over the change period, please refer to the last leader you had.

Team: A group of people that report directly to a specific leader.

Follower/s: Followers are the person or persons that report directly to a specific leader.

Change: Change refers to the change introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years.

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Please state the number of direct followers that you have...

	Yes	No
Do you have three or more followers reporting directly to you?	◯	◯

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree how much you agree with the following statements.

My team...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Agrees that the changes in the organisation were not necessary.	○	○	○	○	○
Agrees that things would be better without the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Agrees that top management made a mistake by introducing the changes in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Values the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Agrees that the changes introduced in the organisation served an important purpose.	○	○	○	○	○
Agrees that the changes introduced in the organisation is a good strategy for the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree how much you agree with the following statements.

Individuals under my responsibility...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Proactively developed and made suggestions for issues that may have influenced the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Proactively voiced out constructive suggestions that helped the changes introduced in the organisation's implementation process.	○	○	○	○	○
Proactively suggested new approaches which were beneficial to the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Raised suggestions to improve the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Made constructive suggestions to improve the changes introduced in the organisation's implementation process.	○	○	○	○	○

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service over recent years and state from a response scale of Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree how much you agree with the following statements.

Individuals under my responsibility...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Dared to point out problems in the changes' process introduced in the organisation when they appeared, even if that would have hampered relationships with other colleagues.	○	○	○	○	○
Dared to voice out opinions on things that might have affected the efficiency of the changes introduced in the organisation, even if that would have embarrassed others.	○	○	○	○	○
Proactively reported coordination problems in the changes' implementation process in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Advised other colleagues against undesirable behaviours that would have hampered the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Spoke up honestly with problems with the changes' process that might have caused serious loss to the organisation, even when/though dissenting opinions existed.	○	○	○	○	○

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What colour is grass?

The fresh, uncut grass, not leaves or hay. Make sure to select purple as an answer so that we know you are paying attention.

- ◯ Red
- ◯ Purple
- ◯ Green

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your team exhibit the following change behaviours.

My team...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Created new ideas regarding the changes in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Did things in a new or creative way to help the introduction of changes in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Helped to solve the organisation problems with the changes' process.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Took responsibility for the changes introduced in the organisation if these failed in their area.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Worked more because of the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Was part of the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Changed the way it worked because of the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your team exhibit the following change behaviours.

My team...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Was part of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Learned new things during the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Changed things because of the changes introduced in the organisation even if they appeared to be working.	○	○	○	○	○
Supported the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Sold ideas about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Made the changes in the organisation fail.	○	○	○	○	○
Improved what we were doing rather than implemented the changes introduced in the organisation, which constitute a transformational change.	○	○	○	○	○

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your team exhibit the following change behaviours.

My team...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Was afraid of the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Had a bad feeling about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Was made upset by the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Was stressed by the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Looked for ways to prevent the changes introduced in the organisation from taking place.	○	○	○	○	○
Complained about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Presented objections about the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○
Protested against the changes introduced in the organisation.	○	○	○	○	○

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Please think of the changes introduced in the Maltese public service organisation that took place over recent years and state from a response scale of Never to Always how often your team exhibit the following change behaviours.

My team...

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Believed that the changes introduced in the organisation harmed the way things were done in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Thought that it was a negative thing for the organisation to undergo such changes.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Believed that the changes introduced in the organisation made their job harder.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Was quite excited about the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Spoke rather highly of the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Believed that the changes introduced in the organisation benefited the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Believed that we could personally benefit from the changes introduced in the organisation.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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Demographic Information: The following information will be used for research purposes only. At no time will your individual answers be identified.

	Male	Female	Other	Prefer not to answer
Gender:	◯	◯	◯	◯

Please indicate the age bracket you fall into:

	18 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 - 64
Age:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Please state for how long have you been employed with this Maltese public service organisation (job tenure):

	less than 3 months	3 months - 1 year	1 - 2 years	2 - 3 years	3 - 5 years	5 - 10 years	10 - 15 years	15 years - upwards
Years:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Please indicate the highest level of education achieved:

	Primary	Secondary	Vocational	Technical	Post-Secondary	Tertiary
Education:	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

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Please state the number of employees that report directly to you:

	1 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	31 - 50	51 - 100	101 - upwards
Number of followers:	○	○	○	○	○	○