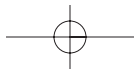
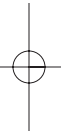
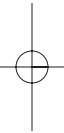
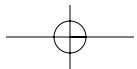
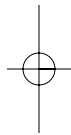
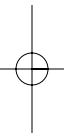
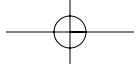


PART VI

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY
AT WORK





CHAPTER 15

Leading Well: Transformational Leadership and Well-Being

NIRO SIVANATHAN, KARA A. ARNOLD,
NICK TURNER, and JULIAN BARLING

YOU DON'T HAVE to look far in either the popular media or academic research literature to find accounts of poor leadership (e.g., Dutton, Frost, Worline, Lilius, & Kanov, 2002; Tepper, 2000), and we are now beginning to understand just how negative such leadership can be for people trapped in these organizational relationships. Thankfully, at the other end of the spectrum, there are countless stories about positive leadership, embedded both in states of crisis (e.g., Giuliani, 2002) and in the routines and rhythms of everyday organizational life. What is missing from this dialogue, however, is a body of knowledge about positive leadership—leadership that has the potential to elevate followers in the long term, such that followers can achieve greater levels of both well-being and effectiveness themselves. We have a limited appreciation of the comprehensive benefits that can be derived from leadership (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002), and transformational leadership represents a set of behaviors that have the potential to fill this void.

The organizational effectiveness of transformational leadership is not in question. Studies routinely demonstrate its effectiveness in diverse situations, ranging from profit-oriented organizations (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996), trade unions (Kelloway & Barling, 1993), young workers (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002; Sivanathan, Barling, & Turner, 2003), sports teams (Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001; Zacharatos, Barling, & Kelloway, 2000), educational contexts (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995), self-managed teams (Arnold, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001), to military organizations (Bass, 1998). Understanding exactly

All of the authors contributed equally to this manuscript. A version of this chapter was presented at the Second International Positive Psychology Summit, Washington, DC. Financial support from the Queen's School of Business and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada helped to make this collaboration possible.

242 POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AT WORK

what constitutes transformational leadership not only enables us to appreciate its effects on these organizations but also aids in knowing precisely why transformational leadership might enhance well-being.

To explore these connections, we have organized our discussion here into several parts. First, we define *well-being*. Second, we outline both the nature of transformational leadership and the rich background of research that has documented its effects, which leads us to the surprisingly few research studies that have empirically documented leadership in relation to well-being. Third, we speculate on several psychological processes that we believe underpin the effects of transformational leadership on well-being. Finally, we chart some directions for future research and some issues about putting the link between transformational leadership and well-being into practice.

WHAT IS WELL-BEING?

Like the medical model of health, many studies of individual health in organizations have focused on psychological and physical ill health (Warr, 1987). However, like a number of recent contributors to the field (e.g., Hofmann & Tetrick, 2003; Snyder & Lopez, 2002), we believe that well-being (at least in Westernized cultures) goes beyond the absence of ill health to include aspirations to learn, being reasonably independent, and possessing confidence. In the same way, physical well-being at work goes beyond evading workplace injury and disease to include personal initiatives that aim to improve physical health. We define *job-related well-being* as the promotion of both psychological and physical health at work, and we discuss this in more detail later.

We focus on the effects of job-related well-being in this chapter for two reasons. First, a broad concept of job-related well-being is now well defined in the literature and provides a *positive* basis from which to examine healthy work. For example, Warr (1987, 1990) identifies three assessable aspects of affective well-being on two orthogonal dimensions (pleasure and level of arousal):

1. An axis of pleasure or displeasure, often measured in terms of satisfaction or happiness
2. An axis ranging from anxiety (low pleasure, high arousal) to comfort (high pleasure, low arousal)
3. An axis from depression (low pleasure, low arousal) to enthusiasm (high pleasure, high arousal)

Measures of affective well-being that assess anxiety, depression, psychological distress, and psychosomatic symptoms aim to detect ill health, as opposed to positive mental health. Measures of positive mental health, on the other hand, capture high arousal-high pleasure states such as enthusiasm.

Job satisfaction (i.e., a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of your job experiences) can be considered either an indicator of poor mental health (e.g., job dissatisfaction) or an indicator of positive mental health (e.g., job satisfaction). According to Warr (1999), however, job satisfaction is a rather "passive" form of mental health because most measures of job satisfaction assess only the degree of pleasure or displeasure derived from the job and do not include the arousal state. Indeed, Bruggeman, Groskurth, and Ulich (1975) describe a state of

“resigned” job satisfaction, in which employees, while “happy,” may also experience little aspiration and acquiesce to job constraints. Given the scope of this chapter, we do not discuss evidence that explores transformational leadership and job satisfaction (for examples of this research, see Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Instead, we focus on evidence about explicit indicators of mental and physical ill health and active mental and physical health.

Warr (1987) also identified a number of other types of mental health that may persevere and represent more active states and behaviors than most traditional indicators of well-being. These variously include positive self-regard (e.g., high self-esteem), perceived competence (e.g., effective coping), aspiration (e.g., goal directedness), autonomy (e.g., proactivity), and integrated functioning (e.g., balance, harmony, and internal relatedness). These indicators can influence a person’s affective well-being (e.g., reduced anxiety through effective coping), and in this chapter we discuss a number of these components as the mechanisms that might enable transformational leadership to affect well-being.

Our first reason for focusing on job-related well-being, as we have just discussed, is its rich conceptual and empirical foundation. Second, the experience of work translates directly into other health outcomes (e.g., Amick et al., 2002; Kelloway & Barling, 1991). There is evidence that job-related well-being affects employees’ overall life satisfaction (e.g., Hart, 1999; Higginbottom, Barling, & Kelloway, 1993; Judge & Watanabe, 1993), and maintaining physical health at work (e.g., staying injury-free and helping to keep coworkers safe) affects life beyond the workplace (Hofmann & Tetrick, 2003). Although this interdependence between work and nonwork domains warrants prominent attention in emergent positive psychology scholarship, our focus in this chapter is on how transformational leadership, which we describe in more detail next, promotes well-being in the workplace.

WHAT IS TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP?

Transformational leadership comprises four separate elements, or perhaps more accurately, four different types of behaviors (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration; Bass, 1985, 1998). Any or all of these four have the potential to advance well-being.

Idealized influence reflects behaviors that leaders enact because they choose to do what is right, rather than what is expedient, simple, or cost-effective. Leaders are guided to engage in these behaviors because of their moral commitment to both their own actions and to their followers (Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, & Milner, 2002). Employees respect leaders who engage in behaviors that reflect idealized influence because they know that their leaders have chosen to behave in this way; they are not behaving this way just because they have to. Indeed, any positive benefits would be minimized to the extent to which followers perceive leaders as having no choice to behave any other way. Employees who see their leaders as doing the right thing and, therefore, manifesting idealized influence are likely to accord their leaders high levels of trust and respect and to have positive perceptions of interpersonal justice (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002).

Leaders evidence *inspirational motivation* when they inspire their followers to be their very best and to greater levels than the followers themselves ever thought possible. Unlike many popular, and perhaps populist notions of inspiration,

inspirational motivation does not require that the leader display stereotypical charismatic behaviors. Instead, inspirational motivation within a transformational leadership context is achieved by convincing employees that they can break through previously perceived performance barriers, whether self- or externally imposed. Leaders do so by instilling in their employees realistic feelings of self-efficacy, feelings of what can be accomplished rather than fears of what cannot be accomplished. They frequently use symbols and stories to convey positive messages.

Using *intellectual stimulation*, leaders no longer provide all the answers for others. They challenge employees to think more for themselves and to continuously question their long-held and cherished assumptions. This is critical in the development of well-being, first, because followers will become more confident and, second, because this enhances their self-efficacy.

Finally, *individualized consideration* is reflected through those behaviors in which leaders show their concern for their employees' development and physical and psychological safety. They do this by listening, caring, empathizing, and being compassionate, perhaps especially during the most difficult of times when employees need them the most. It is through individualized consideration that leaders develop and cement a relationship with their followers.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND WELL-BEING

Transformational leadership may have important, positive effects on both leaders' and followers' well-being. Although transformational leadership has garnered more empirical attention than all other leadership paradigms combined over the past decade (Judge & Bono, 2000), there is surprisingly little empirical research linking it with facets of well-being. One facet of well-being that has recently received attention with respect to the effects of transformational leadership is workplace safety. Recent research shows that transformational leadership enhances employees' safety performance in correlational (Barling et al., 2002) and quasi-experimental investigations (Sivanathan et al., 2003; Zohar, 2002).

However, we suggest that the four components of transformational leadership are also especially relevant in terms of psychological well-being. Idealized influence takes place when leaders do what is proper and ethical, rather than what is effortless, and when they are guided by their moral commitment to their followers and go beyond the interests of the organization. During times of crisis, leaders who manifest idealized influence are able to forego organizational pressures for short-term financial outcomes and instead focus their efforts on the long-term health and well-being of their employees (Walsh, 2001). Leaders exhibiting inspirational motivation inspire their employees to achieve more than what was once thought possible. These leaders inspire employees to surmount psychological setbacks and instill in them the strength to tackle future hurdles. Leaders who manifest intellectual stimulation help employees to question their own commonly held assumptions, reframe problems, and approach matters in innovative ways. Given the autonomy to arrive at their own personal strategies to tackle psychological setbacks, employees become more confident of developing and protecting their own well-being. Finally, individual consideration occurs when leaders pay special attention to employees' needs for achievement and

development; they provide needed empathy, compassion, and guidance that employees may seek for their well-being. In doing so, leaders establish the basis for a relationship within which their other leadership behaviors are more likely to be accepted.

We also hypothesize that being a transformational leader has the potential to enhance the leader's well-being. The logic underlying this hypothesis is that when leaders feel trusted by their own employees because of their own leadership behaviors, when they experience reciprocal care and consideration from their followers, they in turn develop higher levels of well-being. While intriguing, this remains but an interesting proposition that awaits empirical testing.

PSYCHOLOGICAL MECHANISMS LINKING TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND WELL-BEING

In articulating the nature of the relationship between components of transformational leadership and well-being, we have implied a number of psychological processes that deserve further attention. More specifically, we believe that followers' self-efficacy, trust in management, meaning derived from work, and way of identifying with their work and their leader enable the effects of transformational leadership on well-being. We describe each of these potential mechanisms in more detail in the following sections.

SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy reflects the judgment of an individual's ability to accomplish a certain level of performance (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy has attracted considerable research scrutiny and has been shown to be positively related to job attitudes (Saks, 1995), motivation on the job (Prussia & Kinicki, 1996), and job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). At the same time, research findings also show consistently that feelings of self-efficacy enable individuals to confront formerly fear- and anxiety-provoking stimuli (see Bandura, 1997). For example, Jex and Bliese's (1999) findings that self-efficacy buffers the negative impact of work stressors on employee psychological well-being are to be expected because individuals high in self-efficacy are more likely to confront their stressors, while those low in self-efficacy are more likely to consume their time worrying about them (Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Therefore, by relying on their problem-focused coping, employees higher in self-efficacy are better equipped to have more adaptive responses to setbacks and stressors in their work environment and thus are more likely to maintain healthy levels of psychological well-being.

Successful accomplishments, vicarious experiences, and verbal persuasion have been found to facilitate the development of the individual's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). These results suggest that the cognitive and affective processes that shape an individual's self-efficacy can be positively shaped by psychosocial factors such as the quality of leadership. We believe that by (1) inspiring their followers to greater heights (verbal persuasion), (2) manifesting positive behaviors that followers want to emulate (vicarious experience), (3) exhorting their followers to think of challenges in ways that make it possible to confront them (verbal persuasion), and (4) providing a supportive climate in which this is all possible (successful accomplishments), transformational leaders affect their followers' self-efficacy.

Preliminary evidence for this claim comes from a laboratory study in which Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that the effects of charismatic/transformational leaders' vision on followers' performance were mediated by self-efficacy. Thus, we suggest that transformational leadership positively affects employee self-efficacy, which in turn enhances employee well-being.

TRUST IN MANAGEMENT

Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) view trust as an individual's willingness to be vulnerable to another individual. Extending this to the workplace, trust in management can be viewed as the willingness of employees to be vulnerable to their leader. Trust in management, and, perhaps more specifically, the process by which employees are willingly vulnerable to their leader, has been defined as being comprised of a cognitive component (a belief that the leader is capable of carrying out his or her tasks) and an affective component (a belief that the leader will not act in a manner to harm employees; Cook & Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995). Not surprisingly, the development of *trust in leader* has been identified as a crucial element in the effectiveness of leaders, individuals, and their organization (Bass, 1990; Fleishman & Harris, 1962). Given its importance in organizations, surprisingly little research has focused on illuminating the positive effects trust in leadership has on employee well-being.

Our hypothesis that trust in management mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee well-being derives from two separate sources: The first has received substantial empirical support; the second, as mentioned previously, has received no empirical scrutiny and is thus more speculative. First, being able to rely on the skills, abilities, and intentions of those in supervisory positions (i.e., trust in leadership) has been argued to be one of the most important predictors of positive organizational outcomes (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Yukl, 1998). Empirical findings support this notion: Trust in leadership is associated, for example, with higher work satisfaction (Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999), citizenship behaviors (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999), and performance (Dirks, 2000). Of specific importance to this chapter, transformational leadership has been shown to be associated with higher levels of trust in management in several different studies (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Pillai, Schriesheim, et al., 1999; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). These consistently positive findings suggest that by acting as role models who consistently do what is moral and right and not personally beneficial, transformational leaders gain the respect and trust of their followers.

In contrast, we are not aware of any empirical inquiry to date on the relationship between trust in management and psychological well-being. Nonetheless, we suggest that such a link exists for two reasons. First, positive individual outcomes are consistently associated with trust in management (Arthur, 1994; see Kramer, 1999). Second, as organizations face changes of the nature and severity experienced in the past decade, individuals experience uncertainty, anxiety, and fear (Yukl, 1998), all of which have potentially detrimental effects on an individual's well-being. Under such circumstances, high levels of trust in leadership would enable employees to feel less threatened, thereby exerting positive effects on their well-being.

Thus, we propose that by acting as role models, being committed to employee needs, empowering and encouraging employees to think on their own, and

motivating their followers to achieve more than what was thought possible, transformational leaders gain their followers' trust and heighten followers' self-efficacy beliefs. In turn, employees' trust in management and self-efficacy beliefs are associated with their own well-being.

MEANINGFUL WORK

A transformational leader can also enable individuals to find positive meaning in their work. We propose that the meaning that individuals make of their work is another one of the mechanisms through which transformational leadership exerts its positive effects on individual well-being. First, we briefly describe the various ways that meaningful work has been conceptualized and measured; then we discuss the research that leads us to suggest that meaningful work mediates this relationship.

The meaning of work is generally conceptualized as the aim or purpose that people have for working. Early research into the meaning that people make of their work found that the economic function of work is but one of many meanings that work may have (Morse & Weiss, 1955) and is, in fact, not generally the most salient meaning of work (Morse & Weiss, 1955; MOW International Research Team, 1987).

Meaning has been conceptualized and measured in many different ways. While we cannot summarize this body of literature adequately here, we point to a few of the main conceptualizations. Meaning may be conceptualized as existing on multiple levels. Individuals may find a certain specific meaning in their current job (i.e., job involvement; Kanungo, 1982). They may also espouse meaning in relation to work in general (work involvement, Kanungo, 1982; work centrality, Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero, 1994; or work values, Nord, Brief, Atieh, & Doherty, 1988). These measures entail a broader sense of what work should provide in terms of purpose, as well as some indication of the value of work in relation to other aspects of life. Orientation toward work has been conceptualized as intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation (Robertson, 1990). In the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), meaningful work is conceptualized as a critical psychological state resulting from a job that is high in task significance, task identity, and skill variety. The commonality among all of these measures of meaning is that they all focus on a purpose to work that somehow transcends the financial one. We posit that it is this *higher* purpose that a transformational leader instills in followers, and, as we discuss later, it is this connection that we believe contributes to enhanced well-being.

The theory of transformational leadership suggests several avenues through which the meaning of work can be positively transformed. Transformational leaders raise followers' levels of morality to "more principled levels of judgment" (Burns, 1978, p. 455; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, et al., 2002) and activate higher order needs in followers (Bass, 1985). The intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership allows the transformation of crises or stressful situations to challenges (Bass, 1998). Finally, stress levels of followers may be reduced because of a sense of identity with a social support network that is created through the use of individualized consideration (Bass, 1998). The respect that a transformational leader exhibits for each follower as an individual also applies to the work that each follower is engaged in. The verbal cues that individuals in the environment give us about our work are very powerful (see the social information processing literature:

Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; White & Mitchell, 1979). The transformational leader is likely to provide positive verbal cues to followers.

Research has established an association between transformational leadership and various measures of meaningful work. Transformational leadership has been found to have a positive impact on congruence of values between leaders and followers (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996), on intrinsic motivation (Charbonneau et al., 2001), on belief in a higher purpose of work (Sparks & Schenk, 2001), and indirectly on job involvement through procedural justice perceptions (Beeler, 1997). Transformational leadership has also been shown to be negatively associated with work alienation (consisting of the dimensions of powerlessness, meaninglessness, & self-estrangement; Sarros, Tanewski, Winter, Santora, & Densten, 2002).

Evidence of a positive link between the meaning of work and well-being is mixed. Some studies have found that job involvement may exacerbate negative health outcomes in certain cases (cf. Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1995). Yet, there are also studies that find a positive link between the meaning of work and well-being. Experiencing higher job involvement has been found to be negatively related to burnout (Paullay, 1991), and in a recent longitudinal study, the meaning of work (defined as "being engaged in important and relevant work") was found to explain 32% of the variance in psychological benefits derived from the experience of deployment in Bosnia (Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001). These studies suggest that a positive link between meaningful work and well-being is possible. Future research is necessary to confirm these associations and to establish empirically our belief that transformational leadership affects well-being via enhancing the meaning of work.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL IDENTITY

A final mediating mechanism through which we believe transformational leadership enhances well-being is organizational and/or occupational identity. Social identity theory states that an individual's self-concept is composed of a personal identity, which encompasses idiosyncratic characteristics, and a social identity, which encompasses the salient groups to which an individual belongs (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Social identification is "the perception of belongingness to a group classification" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104). An individual possessing a positive self-concept (i.e., positive personal and social identity) potentially experiences more positive well-being. Hence, we hypothesize that enhancing organizational or occupational identity (both potentially salient aspects of social identity) in turn positively affects well-being.

In terms of an individual's sense of belonging in the work domain, two of the salient groups to which we belong are the organization and our occupation. *Organizational identification* has been defined as "a perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 103). We define occupational identity in a similar fashion: a sense of oneness with an occupational group. We know little, if anything, about how these two identities may interact because of a limited focus in the literature on potential interactions that exist between organizations and occupations (Barley & Tolbert, 1991; Van Maanen & Barley, 1984).

To our knowledge, there have been no empirical investigations of the links between transformational leadership and occupational or organizational identity. Yet, theoretically, transformational leaders have the potential to positively

influence how individuals perceive the defining characteristics of the organization as well as the occupational group to which they belong. Indeed, with respect to organizational identification, it is “through the manipulation of symbols such as traditions, myths, metaphors, rituals, sagas, heroes, and physical setting, [that] management can make the individuals’ membership salient and provide compelling images of what the . . . organization represents” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 28). Through transformational leadership, the needs, values, preferences, and aspirations of followers evolve from self- to collective interests (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Specifically, Bass (1998, p. 23) suggests that the charismatic dimensions transform participation in organizational efforts from satisfying the self-interests of the follower to an “expression of membership and identity with a social collective.” The dimensions of idealized influence and inspirational motivation are most likely to inspire positive identification—whether with the organization or the occupation.

The positive impact of organizational identification on well-being of individuals and organizations has been recognized in past research (Brown, 1969; Hall & Schneider, 1972; O’Reilly & Chapman, 1986). However, because of a lack of attention to occupations in organizational research (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984), there have been fewer investigations of occupational identity. There is indirect evidence that occupational identity impacts positively on well-being. One study of cancer patients found that being able to return to a work role that was important gave people a sense of control (Peteet, 2000). Possession of positive student identity was also found to be positively related to self-esteem in another study (Shields, 1995). Theory would suggest that the more positively and strongly that we feel *at one* with the organization and the occupation we work in, the more positive our self-concept is, and hence our well-being is enhanced. The influence of transformational leadership on this process is conceptually plausible, yet remains empirically untested.

SUMMARY OF OUR MODEL

Based on the previous discussion, Figure 15.1 shows a model for linking transformational leadership and well-being. This model draws on and aims to integrate existing research on the outcomes of transformational leadership, as well as the determinants of well-being summarized thus far.

Two broader features of this model are worth noting in summary. First, well-being is broadly defined to include both traditional, mainly negative, indicators of well-being (e.g., distress, strain, injuries), as well as more positive indicators. This approach is consistent with more established research approaches (e.g., Warr, 1987) and burgeoning interest in broader conceptualizations of health in organizations (e.g., Hofmann & Tetrick, 2003). Second, the model proposes that transformational leadership influences well-being via four key psychological mechanisms: self-efficacy (i.e., belief in your ability to perform), trust in management (i.e., belief in your leader), meaningful work (i.e., a sense of making a valuable contribution), and identity with your organization and occupation (i.e., a sense of belonging to an important collective). Although it is likely that there are stronger links between some of these mechanisms and different indicators of well-being, these more specific suggestions are not depicted in this initial version of the model. We also suggest that the mechanisms may influence one another. For example, if a person believes

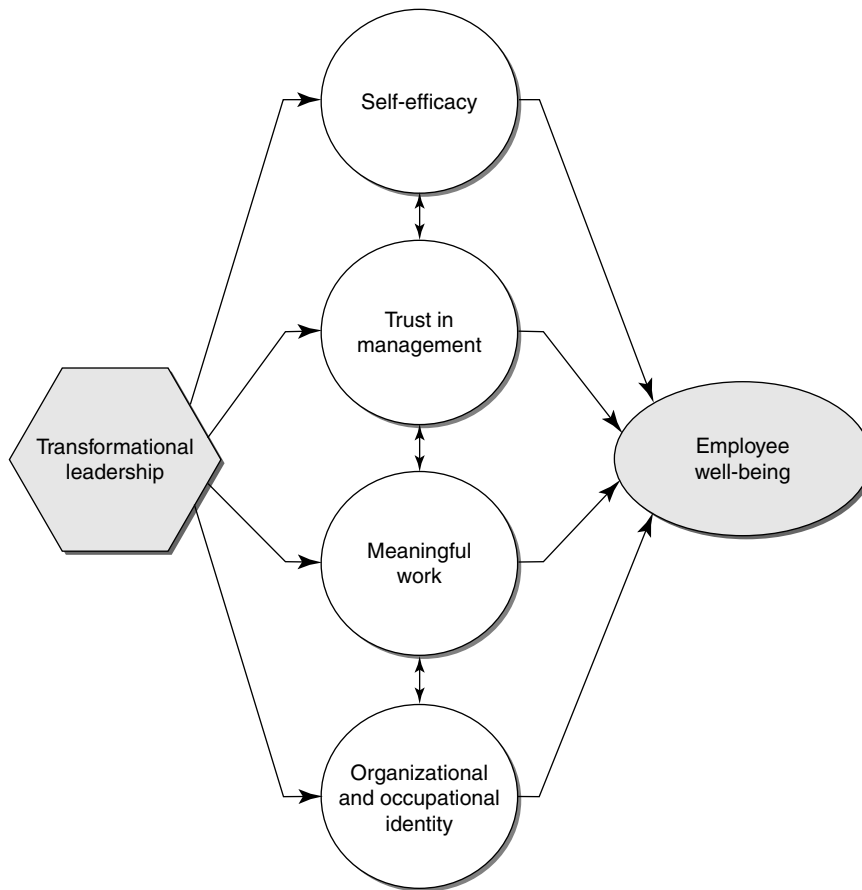


Figure 15.1 Proposed Indirect Effects of Transformational Leadership on Employee Well-Being

in her ability to perform to a certain level (e.g., high self-efficacy), it is likely that she also derives considerable meaning from the target of her efforts (e.g., meaningful work). Likewise, feeling connected with the organization (e.g., organizational identification) may also manifest itself with a simultaneous belief in the capabilities of the organization's leaders (i.e., trust in management). Taken together, these mechanisms help to articulate the empirical black box between transformational leadership and well-being.

RESEARCH DIRECTIONS AND PUTTING IT INTO PRACTICE

As with all emerging fields, the arena of positive psychology at work has many avenues for future research. With respect to transformational leadership and well-being, one aspect that future research must incorporate is more rigorous research designs. Not only is there the usual call for more longitudinal studies, but also combining multiple wave studies with multiple levels of analyses will help

to rule out alternative explanations. For example, the predominant approach to studying transformational leadership is an individual level of analysis (i.e., subordinates' perceptions of a supervisor's leadership behaviors) and using formal supervisors as the source of transformational leadership behaviors. While formal supervisors can clearly play a role in employee well-being (e.g., Barling et al., 2002), exploring the effects of transformational leadership on group-level constructs (e.g., group-level safety climate; Zohar, 2000, 2002) over time and the emergent role of informal leaders in a work group remain important research directions in this domain. Future research might also explore more positive aspects of well-being, in line with a broader conceptualization of health (Hofmann & Tetrick, 2003). One such avenue might be to distinguish the effects of transformational leadership on context-specific well-being (i.e., job-related mental health) versus general well-being (e.g., life satisfaction). This could be of importance to the larger study of positive psychology, given the growing evidence of job-related well-being spilling over to well-being in life (Judge & Watanabe, 1993), and have implications for what organizations view as positive consequences of leadership development and training.

Given evidence that transformational leadership is trainable (Barling et al., 1996), an important and practical focus should be the well-being of young people. Young workers make up a growing percentage of the workforce, and research on transformational leadership has shown the validity of this leadership theory to young people (e.g., Charbonneau et al., 2001; Sivanathan et al., 2003; Zacharatos et al., 2000). If organizations bolster the well-being of young workers, this will have a positive impact on future effectiveness, in terms of both healthy workers and organizations as these young/part-time workers join the full-time workforce.

A more underresearched population on which to focus the positive effects of transformational leadership on well-being is "dirty workers" (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). Dirty work has been defined as work that is considered disgusting and/or degrading and is stigmatized by society (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Hughes, 1951). This could include various physically tainted work roles (e.g., janitors, funeral directors), socially tainted work roles (e.g., prison guards), and morally tainted work roles (e.g., sex workers). Individuals who hold these types of work roles are potentially at higher risk for experiencing negative well-being (Arnold & Barling, in press). These workers must expend extra effort to overcome the stigma of their work roles and to be able to define their work in a more positive light. If individuals are not able to reframe their work in positive terms (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999), their well-being is potentially negatively affected. Transformational leadership may exert even more positive effect in these marginalized groups, and empirical research is necessary to explore this question.

It is our wish that researchers continue to address the call for research on work and well-being through the lens of positive psychology. Orienting the study of work and well-being in this way has the potential to amplify our knowledge and practice of work through which employees and their leaders have a chance to truly flourish.

REFERENCES

- Amick, B. C., III, McDonough, P., Chang, H., Rogers, W. H., Duncan, G., & Pieper, C. (2002). The relationship between all-cause mortality and cumulative working life

252 POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AT WORK

- course psychosocial and physical exposures in the United States labor market from 1968–1992. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 64, 370–381.
- Arnold, K. A., & Barling, J. (in press). Prostitution: An illustration of occupational stress in “dirty” work. In M. Dollard, A. Winefield, & H. Winefield (Eds.), *Occupational stress in the service professions*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Arnold, K. A., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Transformational leadership or the iron cage: Which predicts trust, commitment and team efficacy? *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 22, 315–320.
- Arthur, J. B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 670–687.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Kreiner, G. E. (1999). How can you do it? Dirty work and the challenge of constructing a positive identity. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 413–434.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20–39.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Barley, S. R., & Tolbert, P. S. (1991). Introduction: At the intersection of organizations and occupations. In P. S. Tolbert & S. R. Barley (Guest Eds.), *Research in the sociology of organizations* (Vol. 8, pp. 1–13). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- *Barling, J., Loughlin, C. A., & Kelloway, E. K. (2002). Development and test of a model linking safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational injuries. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 488–496.
- Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 827–832.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Beeler, J. D. (1997, Winter). A survey report of job satisfaction and job involvement among governmental and public auditors. *Government Accounts Journal*, 45, 26–31.
- Britt, T. W., Adler, A. B., & Bartone, P. T. (2001). Deriving benefits from stressful events: The role of engagement in meaningful work and hardiness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6, 53–63.
- Brown, M. (1969). Identification and some conditions of organizational involvement. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 14, 346–355.
- Bruggeman, A., Groskurth, P., & Ulich, E. (1975). *Arbeitszufriedenheit* [Work satisfaction]. Bern, Switzerland: Huber.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Butler, J. K., Cantrell, R. S., & Flick, R. J. (1999). Transformation leadership behaviors, upward trust, and satisfaction in self-managed work teams. *Organization Development Journal*, 17, 13–28.
- Charbonneau, D., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Transformational leadership and sports performance: The mediating role of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31, 1521–1534.
- Cook, J., & Wall, T. D. (1980). New work attitudes measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need nonfulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 53, 39–52.
- Dirks, K. T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 1004–1012.

- *Dutton, J. E., Frost, P. J., Worline, M. C., Lilius, J. M., & Kanov, J. M. (2002). Leading in times of trauma. *Harvard Business Review*, 80, 55–61.
- Fleishman, E., & Harris, E. F. (1962). Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 15, 43–56.
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1995). Job stressors, job involvement and employee health: A test of identity theory. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 68, 1–11.
- Giuliani, R. W. (2002). *Leadership*. New York: Miramax.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hall, D. T., & Schneider, B. (1972). Correlates of organizational identification as a function of career pattern and organizational type. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 17, 340–350.
- Hart, P. M. (1999). Predicting employee life satisfaction: A coherent model of personality, work and nonwork experiences, and domain satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 564–584.
- Higginbottom, S., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (1993). Linking retirement experiences and marital satisfaction: A mediational model. *Psychology and Aging*, 8, 508–516.
- *Hofmann, D. A., & Tetrick, L. E. (Eds.). (2003). *Health and safety in organizations: A multi-level perspective*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Hughes, E. C. (1951). Work and the self. In J. H. Rohrer & M. Sherif (Eds.), *Social psychology at the crossroads: The University of Oklahoma lectures in social psychology* (pp. 313–323). New York: Harper & Brothers.
- Jex, S. M., & Bliese, P. D. (1999). Efficacy beliefs as moderator of the impact of work-related stressors: A multilevel study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 349–361.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 751–765.
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 939–948.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 949–964.
- Kanungo, R. N. (1982). Measurement of job and work involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67, 341–349.
- Kelloway, E. K., & Barling, J. (1991). Job characteristics, role stress, and mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 64, 291–304.
- Kelloway, E. K., & Barling, J. (1993). Member's participation in local union activities: Measurement, prediction, replication. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 262–279.
- Kinicki, A. J., & Latack, J. C. (1990). Explication of the construct of coping with involuntary job loss. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 36, 339–360.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 36–51.
- Koh, W. L., Steers, J. M., & Terborg, J. R. (1995). The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16, 319–333.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1995). *The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kramer, R. M. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 569–598.

254 POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AT WORK

- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 103–123.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*, 709–734.
- McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 24–59.
- Morse, N. C., & Weiss, R. W. (1955). The function and meaning of work and the job. *American Sociological Review, 20*, 191–198.
- MOW International Research Team. (1987). *The meaning of working*. New York: Academic Press.
- Nord, W. R., Brief, A. P., Atieh, J. M., & Doherty, E. M. (1988). Work values and the conduct of organizational behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 10*, 1–42.
- O'Reilly, C., & Chapman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 492–499.
- Paullay, I. M. (1991). *Clarification of the job involvement and work centrality constructs and their relationship to job burnout*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, State University of New York, Albany.
- Paullay, I. M., Alliger, G. M., & Stone-Romero, E. F. (1994). Construct validation of two instruments designed to measure job involvement and work centrality. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*, 224–228.
- Peteet, J. R. (2000). Cancer and the meaning of work. *General Hospital Psychiatry, 22*, 200–205.
- Pillai, R., Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (1999). Leadership and organizational justice: Similarities and differences across cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies, 30*, 763–779.
- Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C. A., & Williams, E. S. (1999). Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management, 25*, 897–933.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*, 107–142.
- Prussia, G. E., & Kinicki, A. J. (1996). A motivational investigation of group effectiveness using social-cognitive theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 187–198.
- Robertson, L. (1990). Functions of work meanings: Work meanings and work motivation. In A. P. Brief & W. R. Nord (Eds.), *Meanings of occupational work: A collection of essays* (pp. 107–134). Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Butterworth.
- Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80*, 211–225.
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*, 224–253.
- Sarros, J. C., Tanewski, G. A., Winter, R. P., Santora, J. C., & Densten, I. L. (2002). Work alienation and organizational leadership. *British Journal of Management, 13*, 285–304.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science, 4*, 577–594.
- Shields, N. (1995). The link between student identity, attributions, and self-esteem among adult, returning students. *Sociological Perspectives, 38*, 261–272.

- Sivanathan, N., Barling, J., & Turner, N. (2003). *Leading others to safety: Effects of transformational leadership training on occupational safety*. Manuscript in preparation, Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada.
- Snyder, C. R., & Lopez, S. J. (Eds.). (2002). *Handbook of positive psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Sparks, J. R., & Schenk, J. A. (2001). Explaining the effects of transformational leadership: An investigation of the effects of higher-order motives in multilevel marketing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*, 849–869.
- Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 42*, 240–261.
- Tepper, B. K. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 178–190.
- Turner, N., Barling, J., Epitropaki, O., Butcher, V., & Milner, C. (2002). Transformational leadership and moral reasoning. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 304–311.
- *Turner, N., Barling, J., & Zacharatos, A. (2002). Positive psychology at work. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 715–728). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. R. (1984). Occupational communities: Culture and control in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 6*, 287–365.
- Walsh, C. (2001). *Leadership on 9/11: Morgan Stanley's challenge*. Retrieved August 20, 2002, from <http://hbswk.hbs.edu/item.jhtml?id=2690&t=leadership&sid=0&pid=0>.
- Warr, P. B. (1987). *Work, unemployment, and mental health*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Warr, P. B. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 193–210.
- *Warr, P. B. (1999). Well-being and the workplace. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 392–412). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- White, S. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1979). Job enrichment versus social cues: A comparison and competitive test. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64*, 1–9.
- Yukl, G. (1998). *Leadership in organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Zacharatos, A., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Development and effects of transformational leadership in adolescents. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*, 211–226.
- Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: Testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 587–596.
- Zohar, D. (2002). Effects of leadership dimensions, safety climate, and assigned priorities on minor injuries in work groups. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 78*, 85–97.