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Can Employees Motivate Themselves? The Link Between Peer Motivating Language and Employee Outcomes

Doreen Hanke

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CAN EMPLOYEES MOTIVATE THEMSELVES? THE LINK BETWEEN PEER
MOTIVATING LANGUAGE AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

A Dissertation

by

DOREEN HANKE

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2020

Major Subject: Management

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Chair of Committee,
Committee Members,

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Head of Department,

May 2020

Major Subject: Management

ABSTRACT

Can Employees Motivate Themselves? The Link between Peer Motivating Language and Employee Outcomes (May 2020)

Doreen Hanke, MBA; BBA, Texas A&M International University;

Chair of Committee: Dr. Jacqueline Mayfield

This study builds upon the leadership, leadership communication, and organizational behavior literature to examine the effects of peer motivating language on employee outcomes. Despite the increasing interest in examining the relationships between leader motivating language and employee attitudes and behaviors, the effects of peer motivating language on such remain unexplored. Researchers Mayfield and Mayfield (2017) are calling for moving beyond ML as a dyadic, leader communication model to research on peer-to-peer motivating language. Moreover, leadership studies started placing greater emphasis on followers to avoid a possible unproductive overemphasis on the leader in an organization. In line with this move is the substitutes for leadership theory. Researchers are calling for the theorizing of further substitutes (Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997). Given these existing research needs, the purpose of this study is three-fold. I first propose, validate a scale for, and test a new construct called peer motivating language. Second, I develop and test a model that highlights the comprehensive nature of both leader and peer motivating language and employee outcomes, incorporating peer motivating language as a possible new substitute for leadership variable. Specifically, my study examines the questions of whether employee outcomes can be affected through motivating

language use among peers, and if these peers, therefore may substitute or weaken the need for a leader's use of motivating language. Therefore, I study motivating language theory from a follower perspective to shed light on the often too narrowly focused leader-centric approaches to leadership and leadership communication. Third, I examine the generalizability of my presented model by testing it in two different countries: the USA and India. The final sample to test my model consisted of 545 respondents from the United States and 511 respondents from India. The results of the study substantiate the validity of the peer ML construct. The findings show that peers' use of motivating language in organizations has the potential to positively influence employee attitudes and behaviors and serves as a substitute for such communication style coming from a leader. The cross-national investigation of this study presents that these relationships may differ depending on the national setting, i.e. while peer ML serves as a substitute variable for leader ML for the Indian sample, it does not for the U.S. sample. Several theoretical and practical implications as well as limitations and direction for future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving husband, Roberto, and my parents, Dorle and Hans-Jörg Hanke. Thank you for your loving support and encouragement. Your confidence in me is what made me succeed.

Diese Dissertation ist meinem liebevollen Partner Roberto und meinen Eltern Dorle und Hans-Jörg Hanke gewidmet. Vielen Dank für eure liebevolle Unterstützung und Ermutigung. Euer Vertrauen in mich hat mich zum Erfolg geführt.

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Writing this dissertation has been a formative part of my life. When I started my PhD studies, I clearly had more enthusiasm than skill. It was through the dedicated guidance, patience, and immense expertise of my dissertation chair, Dr. Jacqueline Mayfield, and my dissertation committee member, Dr. Milton Mayfield, that I was able to find my path in the world of academia. For that I will forever be grateful.

Thank you to my dissertation committee members, Dr. Nereu Kock and Dr. Haibo Wang. Their guidance and support were invaluable for conducting this research. Many thanks to all faculty and staff who helped me along the way, especially Mrs. Pam Short. My gratitude goes out to the Association for Business Communication, whose funding through the Marty Baker Graham Research Grant made the data collection for this dissertation possible. I also thank my peers in the PhD program for having always been there to support, encourage, and help each other to succeed. Having shared the path together, definitely made it an easier one.

This journey would not have been possible without my family's continuous support. Thank you to my parents for being my role models, and having instilled in me a sense of perseverance, discipline, and grit – and most of all, the love of learning. Thank you to my brother, Marcus, and his wonderful family for the joyful time we spent together that provided fresh energy for my studies. I will be forever grateful to my dogs, Apache, Kiowa, and Oni who have been very patient with me throughout this time and have been a tremendous source of comfort, joy, and laughter.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

“New insights into the processes of leadership can be gained by focusing attention squarely on processes connected to followers and their contexts, independently of what leaders are actually doing.” (Meindl, Pastor, & Mayo, 2004, p. 1347)

The last two decades have been marked by an increasing interest in examining how leadership communication, specifically the use of motivating language, affects employee attitudes and behaviors. In short, motivating language theory asserts that leader speech can motivate workers and in turn, can improve desirable employee outcomes. Motivating language communicates follower value, aligns their personal goals with organizational vision, dispels ambiguity, is transparent and emotionally supportive. It is categorized into three leader-subordinate oral communication dimensions: (1) direction-giving language, (2) empathetic language, and (3) meaning-making language (J. Mayfield et al., 2015; Sullivan, 1988).

Current research on motivating language finds significant relationships between motivating language, and desirable employee behaviors and attitudes including more effective decision making, higher job satisfaction, higher communication satisfaction toward a leader, higher perceived leader communication competence, more innovation, higher job performance, higher team creativity quality, higher self-efficacy, enhanced organizational commitment, lower absenteeism, and lower intent to turnover (Holmes, 2012; Madlock & Sexton, 2015; J. Mayfield et al., 1998; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2012, 2016, 2017; M. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2016; McMeans, 2002; Sharbrough et al., 2006; P.-C. Sun et al., 2008; C.-W. Wang et al., 2009; Zorn & Ruccio, 1998).

These outcomes translate into significant potential savings for organizations as well as

This dissertation follows the model of the *Journal of Management*.

improved employee well-being and potential productivity increases. Yet, despite this promise we are still witnessing a lack of effective business communication in today's workplaces with dissatisfaction rates as high as 91 percent (Solomon, 2015). Moreover, to date, the motivating language literature has only focused on improving such through leadership communication. However, in their comprehensive review of motivating language theory, J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2017) state, "motivating language can occur outside of leader-follower dyads" (p. 141). "True ML has been conceptualized (and has largely been implemented as) a dyadic, leader communication model. Yet its implications are much broader" (p. 141). The authors further emphasize that "anyone can use ML," and call for future research on peer-to-peer motivating language (p. 141).

Moreover, the "romance of leadership" (Meindl, 1995; Meindl et al., 1985) shows us that we need to put greater emphasis on followers, i.e. the employees in a firm, to avoid a possible unproductive overemphasis on the leader in an organization. In their review of leadership studies, Jian and Fairhurst (2017) state that leader-centric models on leadership, in spite of their popularity, "have been criticized for lacking a clear and precise articulation of underlying influence processes ... Many scholars came to the realization that understanding the underlying influence processes of these models requires a shift from a leader-centric view toward more follower-centric and relationship based perspectives on leadership" (p. 5). This led to a move from the study of leadership as a leader-centric approach (e.g. trait approach, capabilities approach, behavioral and situational approaches like task-oriented versus people-oriented behaviors or the situational leadership model, and neo-charismatic theories like visionary, charismatic, transformational, transactional leadership) to a follower-centric and leader-member

relationship based approach (e.g. the romance of leadership, leadership categorization theory, leader-member exchange theory) over the past decades (Jian & Fairhurst, 2017).

One theory that addresses the need to focus more on followers when studying the concept of leadership is Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership theory. This theory states that certain situational factors (i.e. characteristics of the subordinates, tasks, and the organization) may enhance, neutralize, and/or totally substitute for leadership, such that they may moderate the relationship between leader behavior (including communication) and subordinate outcomes (attitudes and effectiveness) (Howell et al., 1986). For example, an employee who works in a closely-knit, cohesive and interdependent workgroup (i.e. characteristic of the organization) with peers who provide task-relevant guidance, performance feedback, and are a source of affiliative need satisfaction, may not require or even care for receiving such from a leader. Hence, this employee's peers may substitute the leader's ability to improve the employee's satisfaction and performance, rendering specific behaviors of the formal leader partially ineffective (den Hartog & Koopman, 2001; Dionne et al., 2005; Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

Jermier and Kerr (1997) emphasized that the substitutes for leadership framework is not "a closed system or refined to the point that intervening constructs were not needed" (p. 97). In fact, researchers are calling for the theorizing of further substitutes (e.g. Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997).

Based on the previous discussion, I develop a new construct named "Peer Motivating Language," including validating its measure and exploring its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors. I propose this new construct as a newly developed substitute variable (i.e. full substitute and/or neutralizer). Based on the substitutes for leadership perspective, I argue that motivating language use by an employee's peers (i.e. peer motivating language) may serve as a

substitute and/or neutralizer for motivating language coming from an employee's supervisor, and therefore may have the ability to affect employee outcomes (i.e. employee's actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance). Peer motivating language may have the ability to serve as a new organizational characteristic similar to a cohesive workgroup. A peer may provide guidance to another peer on how to complete tasks, offer support and provide feedback, and clarify underlying unwritten rules in an organization. Such processes may lead to decreasing importance of a leader providing such, enabling her or him to focus on other relevant tasks. Hence, I propose peer motivating language as a substitute and/or neutralizer for leadership motivating language, validate a measure for this construct by adapting the original leader motivating language scale (J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995), and empirically test my model.

Moreover, research on substitutes for leadership is calling for more focus “on the nature of the samples to be included in tests,” and proposes to “focus on the cultural background” of followers (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 436; Howell et al., 2007). Motivating language scholars are also emphasizing the need for more studies of ML outside the confines of the United States (Madlock & Hildebrand Clubbs, 2019; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). To address these calls, the aforementioned relationships are examined in two distinct national settings, the USA and India. These two countries differ in several dimensions, especially their cultural characteristics, which may influence the results of this study. According to Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions, the United States is characterized by a higher degree of individualism as compared to India, which is described as being a more collectivistic culture. “Individualism versus its opposite, collectivism, refers to the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. In individualist societies, the ties between individuals are loose: Everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his

or her immediate family. In collectivist societies, people are integrated from birth onward into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts, and grandparents), protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (Geert Hofstede & McCrae, 2004, p. 63).

Therefore, in the US people’s self-image is defined in terms of “I,” whereas in India it is defined in terms of “we” (G. Hofstede et al., 2010). Moreover, according to Zheng, Zhu, Zhao, & Zhang (2015), employees in collectivistic cultures such as India put great emphasis on interpersonal relations at work as compared to employees in individualistic cultures such as the United States. They do so through deep conversations with peers and sharing time with them. Thus, employees in collectivistic cultures might be more receptive and might put greater emphasis and importance on motivating language coming from their peers versus their superior than employees in individualistic cultures. Additionally, both countries differ in their degree of power distance, which is “the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally” (Geert Hofstede & McCrae, 2004, p. 62). The U.S. culture is characterized by a low degree of power distance, as opposed to the Indian culture which is a high power distance culture. This cultural dimension may play a role in influencing the value that employees place on peer versus leader motivating language. For example, in the USA employees might be more willing to put less emphasis on their superior and receive guidance and support from their peers instead. On the contrary, employees in India may be more reluctant to listen to their peers instead of receiving feedback and directions from their supervisor as they observe hierarchical boundaries. As a result, testing the model in two countries that are culturally distinct from each other allows for wider generalizability of the results of this study. As such, it should be emphasized that a detailed cross-cultural study is not the scope of this study.

Overall, the purpose of this study is three-fold. I first propose, validate a scale for, and empirically test a new construct called peer motivating language. Second, I develop and empirically test a model that highlights the comprehensive nature of both leader and peer motivating language and employee outcomes, incorporating peer motivating language as a possible new substitute for leadership variable. Therefore, I study motivating language theory from a follower perspective to shed light on the often too narrowly focused leader-centric approaches to leadership and leadership communication. Third, I examine the generalizability of my presented model by testing it in two different countries. This shows whether my hypotheses hold in different countries and national settings.

Contribution of the Study

This study provides several contributions to the literature. From a theoretical perspective, this investigation adds progress in the field of organizational communication. It contributes to the motivating language literature by providing a better understanding of the context within which motivating language may occur. Doing so it addresses J. Mayfield and Mayfield's (2017) call for future research on peer-to-peer motivating language. It puts greater emphasis on followers and their importance in business communication addressing the romance of leadership issue (Meindl, 1995; Meindl et al., 1985). By developing a new construct, peer motivating language, and validating its measurement scale, this research sheds light on the role of employees and their use of motivating language to improve employee attitudes and behaviors by linguistic means. To the best of my knowledge, no study has yet discussed motivating language among peers, nor conceptualized and measured this construct to then validate a scale accordingly.

Moreover, developing and examining the concept of peer motivating language moves motivating language beyond being a vertical dyadic (leader-follower) communication model to

having the capability of being a horizontal non-dyadic (worker-peers) communication tool. Therefore, this study advances motivating language by looking at group-level characteristics. Most motivating language research has been collected solely at the individual level of analysis; this research uses a mixed level approach by exploring both the individual and group level of analysis.

Furthermore, by developing the construct of peer motivating language I am addressing researchers' calls to create further substitutes for leadership (Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). The emergence of peer motivating language as a new leadership substitute may be relevant to researchers attempting to understand the strategic leadership communication process in organizations. In fact, Dionne et al. (2005) state, "pinpointing factors or characteristics of an organization or an organization's members that render the CEO's leadership unnecessary could provide significant theoretical advancements in the field of strategic leadership" (p. 185).

Another contribution to the motivating language and strategic leadership communication literature is the cross-national nature of this study. By studying my proposed model in both the USA and India I am addressing researchers' call to study substitutes for leadership in different national settings (Avolio et al., 2009; Dionne et al., 2005; Howell et al., 2007). Such research is needed to expand academics' as well as practitioners' understanding of what variables may affect leadership effectiveness in different contexts. Moreover, this study is extending Madlock and Hildebrand Clubbs's (2019) recent work on the use of motivating language in Indian organizations. The scholars point out how, "much has been written about the area of motivating language (ML) use in U.S. business communication, but no research to date could be found on its influence in Indian organizations" (p. 2). Hence, Madlock and his colleague call for further

research on “the impact of culture on the use of ML in organizations across the globe” (p. 15). Therefore, the findings of this study may provide a clearer understanding of the influence of the U.S. as compared to the Indian culture on the vertical and horizontal communication interactions in organizations in these distinct countries.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to empirically examine and answer the following research questions:

1. Does peer motivating language directly influence employee outcomes (actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance)?
2. Does peer motivating language moderate the relationship between leader motivating language and employee outcomes (actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance)?
 - 2.1. Does peer motivating language neutralize (i.e. weaken) the impact of leader motivating language on employee outcomes (actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance)?
 - 2.2. Does peer motivating language fully substitute the impact of leader motivating language on employee outcomes (actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance)?
3. Is there a significant relationship between a leader’s use of motivating language (LML) and peers’ use of motivating language (PML)? If so, is it linear or non-linear?
4. Will the results be similar in culturally different countries such as the USA and India?

My expectation for the first research question is in line with the research stream claiming that leader motivating language significantly impacts employee outcomes, and thus, I expect that

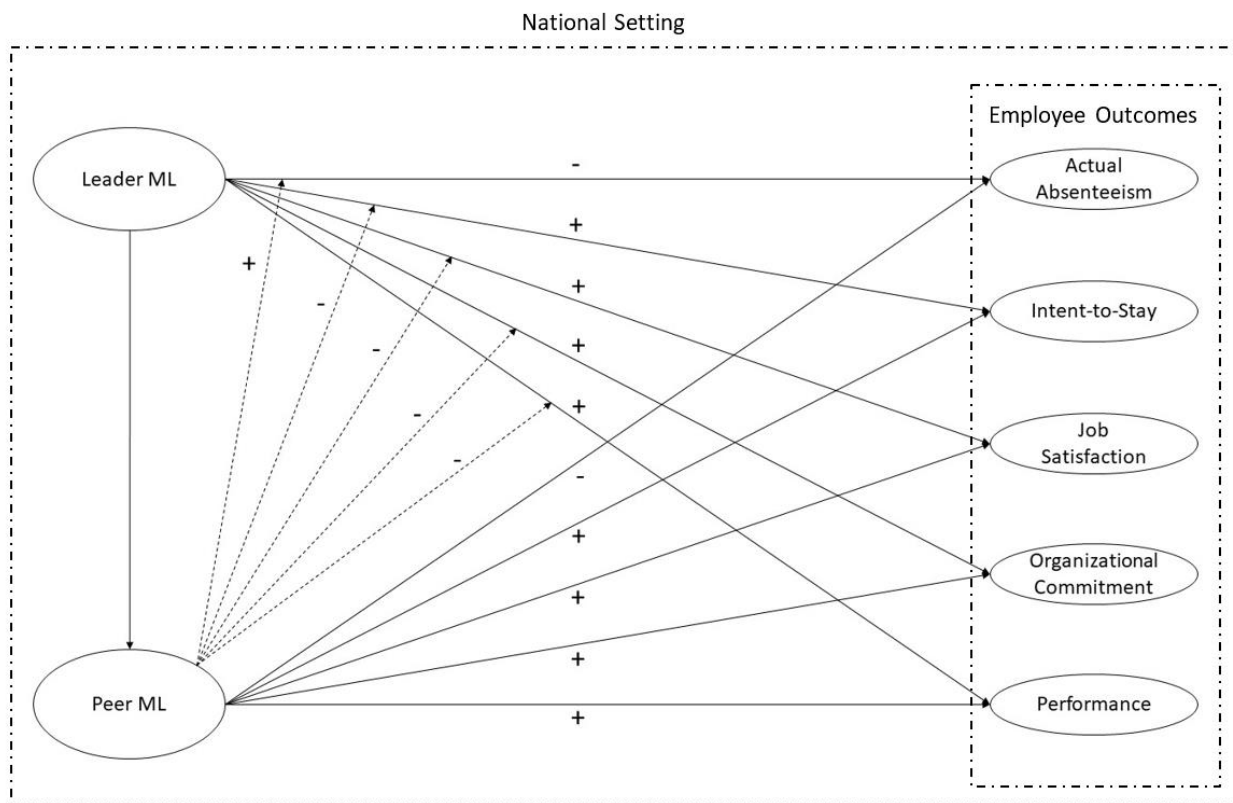
the results will be similar for peer motivating language, i.e. peer motivating language will decrease an employee's actual absenteeism, and will increase her or his intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance.

As for the second research question and its subquestions, in line with the substitutes for leadership theory, I expect that peer motivating language will moderate the relationship between leader motivating language and the aforementioned employee outcomes. I expect that at least a neutralizing effect will occur; a full substitution is possible, however.

The third research question is of exploratory nature and examines a possible link between a leader's use of motivating language and peer's use of motivating language. Similar diffusion processes of motivating language use in organizations were recently examined by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2019) and are becoming an emerging topic in ML literature. In other words, I am examining whether followers will increase their use of motivating language, if they observe effective ML talk by their leader. I am also examining whether this link, if it does exist, is linear or non-linear.

Finally, the fourth research question is of exploratory nature. On the one hand, I expect a stronger moderating effect of peer motivating language for the Indian sample due to the collectivistic nature of their culture that relates to peer ML characteristics. On the other hand, due to the low power distance culture in the United States, peer motivating language may have a stronger effect on the U.S. sample. While the scope of this study is not a cross-cultural analysis, a cross-national comparison of the model results will extend its generalizability and give greater insights in ML and substitutes for leadership processes in different countries as a whole. Figure 1.1 provides the conceptual model of the study which includes the expected signs of the hypotheses.

Figure I.1
Conceptual Model



CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Leader Motivating Language Theory

In 1988, Dr. Jeremiah Sullivan developed motivational language theory, today known as motivating language (ML) theory. Sullivan found his motivation to develop this theory through work by Austin (1962), *How to do things with words*, which explains what people actually do when they say something. People may, for instance, persuade, annoy, or even mislead someone using language, either intentional or unintentional. Professor Sullivan (1988) described three leader-subordinate oral communication dimensions: direction-giving language, empathetic language, and meaning-making language, and argued that these three dimensions could be strategically used by managers to increase their subordinates' motivation. The further development of motivating language occurred in the early 90s through pioneering work by Drs. J. Mayfield and M. Mayfield (J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995) who operationalized the theory into a reliable and well-validated scale which then was applied in several investigations (e.g., Holmes, 2012; Madlock & Sexton, 2015; J. Mayfield et al., 1998; Sharbrough et al., 2006).

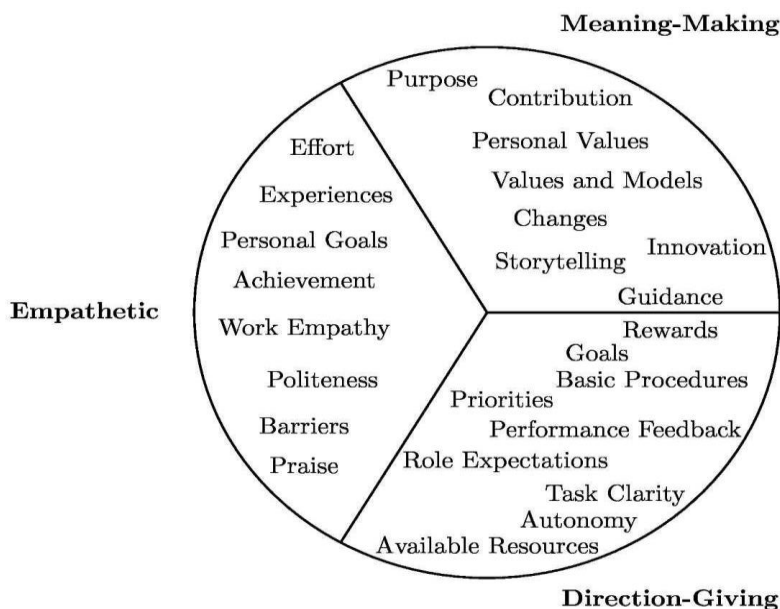
Overall, throughout the past two decades, motivating language theory has received fruitful research support and has emerged as an effective technique to improve both employee attitudes and behaviors such as absenteeism, cultural intelligence, intent-to-stay, intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, perceived leader communication competence and effectiveness, organizational commitment, performance, self-efficacy and self-esteem, among others (T. Banks, 2014; Choi, 2006; Holmes, 2012; Holmes & Parker, 2017; Krause, 2013; Madlock, 2013; Madlock & Sexton, 2015; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007, 2012, 2017; Sharbrough et al., 2006; Simmons & Sharbrough, 2013; P.-C. Sun et al., 2016).

Furthermore, motivating language theory has been validated not only in the United States but on an international level (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Investigations covered countries such as Japan (Kunie et al., 2017), Mexico (Madlock & Sexton, 2015), Taiwan (Fan et al., 2014; C.-W. Wang et al., 2009), Australia (Luca & Gray, 2004; Sarros et al., 2014), Turkey (Özen, 2013, 2014), Kuwait (Alqahtani, 2015), Poland (Wińska, 2010, 2013, 2014), China (Zhang, 2009), and a recent study in India (Madlock & Hildebrand Clubbs, 2019).

Figure 2.1 captures all three motivating language dimensions and their respective key characteristics (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). All three dimensions of motivating language are of special importance in the process of affecting employee behavior and attitudes in the workplace. The next sections will highlight each dimension individually.

Figure II.1

The Key Motivating Language Dimensions



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Direction-giving language is referred to as “the hands” of leader speech as it “clarifies goals and transparently dispels ambiguity” (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 146). Most supervisors in today’s organizations use this kind of language when they provide clear directions to their followers and set goals that they should strive towards. The use of direction-giving language reduces ambiguity because it clarifies to the employee what needs to be done, how and when. Therefore, it prioritizes tasks and gives clear guidance to followers. A leader using this language style reduces the uncertainty of an employee during times of change or when entering a new firm by addressing questions, such as “What am I supposed to do?”, “How am I supposed to do it?”, or “How will I be rewarded?”.

Direction-giving language has its theoretical foundation in several theories from the literature on management and social science (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). For example, it links to goal-setting theory, which states that an employee needs specific and difficult goals to perform well as compared to only general, easy goals (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). It is also rooted in expectancy theory (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017; Vroom, 1994), which links to favorable rewards expected by employees for the fulfillment of certain tasks. For example, an employee might decide to work on Thanksgiving day to get a \$500 bonus, which will help him/ her pay for the weekend trip he/ she wanted to take. On the other hand, a vegetarian might not care about getting a gift card for a steak house if he/ she stays late for providing extra help on a project on a Friday evening, hence, he/ she may decide not to stay late. Therefore, an expected outcome that results from a certain behavior needs to be meaningful to an employee to engage in such. This means that followers need to be asked by supervisors to participate in setting goals and outcomes so that they will be more motivated to achieve them.

Direction-giving language is also “embedded in task identity, feedback, and the critical psychological states of experienced responsibility for a work outcome and knowledge of work results in the job characteristics model” (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 16). Lastly, this motivating language dimension also relates to directive leadership in path-goal theory (House, 1971; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017) as it calls for a leader explaining what he/ she expects from the follower and how the follower is supposed to complete the task, especially in ambiguous situations.

Meaning-making language is “the spirit” of leader speech, “enriching a follower’s work experience with significance and mutual values” (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 146). It is used much less than the previous dimension as it is far more complex. A leader using this dimension motivates employees by explaining how the work one is assigned to do is meaningful and how it contributes to the bigger picture, a higher cause, as well as aligns the goals and vision of the organization with the employee’s goals and values. For example, a cleaner in a hospital is not just simply cleaning up after other people; in fact, by properly cleaning and disinfecting patients’ areas, the cleaner helps to prevent the spread of hospital-acquired infections, a big factor in premature deaths. The cleaner, therefore, helps saving lives.

Furthermore, it clarifies how to behave in certain situations by explaining cultural and behavioral norms that are based on the organization’s culture. This may happen through storytelling or informal hallway talk. For example, being told that it is essential to attend the yearly summer barbeque if you want to get promoted, represents a way of conveying meaning to these tasks. This dimension is especially influential in times of organizational entry, assimilation, or change. When an employee experiences heavy sensemaking, during changes at work or when entering a new firm, a leader’s use of meaning-making language creates “a sense of belonging in

the work place,” i.e. organizational identification (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 13). This aligns with the qualities of transformational leadership. It also provides skills coaching, organizational norms, as well as inspires significance to the daily tasks of a follower. Overall, a leader’s use of meaning-making language addresses questions, such as “What’s the story here?”, “Why is my work important?”, “What are the unwritten rules of work behavior?”.

The reasoning behind meaning-making language is rooted in management, communication, and psychology theories (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). For example, in the management area, it is based on the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Sullivan, 1988) which explains how some core job characteristics, such as experiencing task significance (meaningfulness of the work one is doing) will positively affect outcomes like worker motivation, performance, and satisfaction. It is also based on interpersonal sense-making, positive leadership and transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Cameron, 2012; Dutton & Spreitzer, 2014; J. Mayfield et al., 2015; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017; Sullivan, 1988; Weick, 1995; Wrzesniewski et al., 2003; Yukl, 2013). Moreover, psychology theories such as Frankl’s logotherapy state that, “the ultimate human aspiration is to embrace meaning” (Frankl, 1985; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 14; Pattakos, 2010). Lastly, J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2017, p. 14) state that, “in communication, this dimension of ML draws influence from Jablin’s models of workplace entry and assimilation, symbolic interactionism, and the communicative construction of organizational culture” (Blumer, 1986; Jablin, 2001; Smircich, 1983; Smircich & Morgan, 1982).

Empathetic language is said to be “the heart” of leader speech as it “imparts genuine caring to others” (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 146). This speech tool is used least by leaders as it surpasses mere informational talk. Using empathetic language ranges from being

polite and cordial, over showing work empathy, addressing achievements as well as setbacks, to giving praise and recognizing effort. It communicates genuine concern for the follower, is supportive, understanding, and expresses true appreciation for what the follower does, including her/his personal background. It means putting yourself in someone else's shoes and showing compassion. For example, a single father might be more absent due to his child being sick. A supervisor may express understanding with words like, "I know it may be tough to be at work while caring for your son. Why don't you do home office more often so that you will be less stressed and can attend to your son." Moreover, empathetic language creates affective relations by using statements, such as "How are you feeling today?", "Let me know, if you need anything", "You're doing a great job!".

The use of empathetic language is based on authenticity (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). According to J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2017), "leaders can foster authentic organizational cultures where employees do bring their whole selves to work" (p. 39). The display of emotions at work, especially among leaders, was long frowned upon to avoid seeming weak or lowering the power differential. However, more organizations are adopting a more honest display of emotions and are trying to address them through open communication (e.g. verbal support during personal events), such as online clothing retailer Zappos (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hsieh, 2010; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017).

Several theories support the effectiveness of this speech tool, such as "path goal's supportive leadership (actions that nurture employee relationships), and people-directed (strong concern for individual and interpersonal satisfaction at work) models in organizational behavior," as well as positive organizational behavior, compassion in the workplace, empathy in emotional intelligence, and compassionate communication (Dutton et al., 2014; Dutton &

Spreitzer, 2014; Goleman, 1998; House, 1971; J. Mayfield et al., 2015, p. 100; Miner, 2005; Sullivan, 1988; Yukl, 2013). The characteristics of each motivating language dimension are summarized in Table 2.1 and will be applied throughout this study.

Table II.1
Motivating Language Dimensions

Motivating Language Dimension	Description
Direction-Giving Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides directions and goals for the employee to strive for - Dispels ambiguity and sets priorities - Articulates reward contingencies - Answers questions, such as “What am I supposed to do?”, “How am I supposed to do it?”, “How am I doing?”, “How will I be rewarded?”
Meaning-Making Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explains meaningfulness of the work someone is assigned to do and aligns her/his goals with the organization’s goals and vision - Clarifies cultural/ behavioral norms at work - Answers questions, such as “What’s the story here?”, “Why is my work important?”, “What are the unwritten rules of work behavior?”
Empathetic Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows genuine concern, support, understanding, and appreciation for the employee and her/his personal background - Extends from pure civility to express true compassion - Affective relations such as “How are you feeling today?”, “Let me know, if you need anything”, “You’re doing a great job!”

Assumptions of Motivating Language

Four key assumptions must be met in order to optimize motivating language’s potential, and were summarized by J. Mayfield et al. (2015): “(1) the leader must walk-the-talk; (2) the three facets comprise the majority of leader speech; (3) although ML only refers to leader-employee speech, the employee must accurately perceive the leader’s intended message” (p.

101). While motivating language can be a leader's speech to one or many, it also refers to leader talk in dialogue with a follower. The last assumption (4) states that "all three components of ML must be used appropriately" (p. 101). The first assumption, congruence between words and actions, has been supported in later work by Holmes and Parker (2017). And the third assumption is evidenced in the motivating language scale (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009) which is based on follower evaluations.

Substitutes for Leadership Theory

The concept of substitutes for leadership dates back to the late 1970s, a period which was marked by a heroic, idealized view of leaders in organizations with little regard to followers, as well as the notion of contingency theories (e.g. Fiedler's Contingency Theory, 1967; Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model, 1971; House's Path-Goal Theory, 1971; Vroom-Yetton Model of decision making, 1973; Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, 1977). These theories and models of leadership all "assumed that some type of hierarchical leadership was needed and important in formal organizations" (Howell, 1997, p. 113). They argued that "hierarchical leadership is always important" and that "while the style of leadership most likely to be effective will vary with the situation, some leadership style will be effective regardless of the situation" (Kerr, 1977, p. 138). However, the empirical results of such models often resulted in low explained criteria variance, which researchers explained with having studied "leader behaviors which were inappropriate to the situation" (Howell, 1997, p. 113).

Steven Kerr and John M. Jermier, however, questioned these models and argued that hierarchical leadership may not always be needed, that it can be substituted in certain situations. They believed that leader behaviors are not the only influence on follower attitudes and effectiveness, nor are the most important factor in some situations. Therefore, in 1978, these two

scholars formulated the original framework of the substitutes for leadership theory to address some of these romance effects (Avolio et al., 2009). Driven by the research results that showed very low effects of hierarchical leadership during the time, Kerr and Jermier were eager to find out what actually did make a difference (Jermier & Kerr, 1997). Kerr explained that,

“I clung to the primordial Psychology assumption that Ability x Motivation = Performance: That for members of a work organization to perform, something has to make them able, and something has to make them want to. I didn’t discount the possibility that the source might be the formal leader, but I wanted to broaden the lens to admit other possibilities. I came to feel, as the article states, that ‘if we really want to know more about the sources and consequences of guidance and good feelings in organizations, we should be prepared to study these things whether or not they happen to be provided through hierarchical leadership.’ That was the thought process that led me to coin the term ‘substitutes for leadership.’” (Jermier & Kerr, 1997, p. 96).

Howell (1997) emphasizes that, “by focusing attention on nonleader sources of influence on followers, their model was representative of an emerging view during this period that many factors in the worker’s environment could provide guidance and good feelings needed on the job” (p. 114).

In essence, substitutes for leadership theory states that certain situational factors in the job environment (i.e. characteristics of the subordinates, tasks, and the organization) may *enhance, neutralize, and/or totally substitute* for hierarchical leadership, such that they may moderate the relationship between leader behavior (including communication) and subordinate outcomes (attitudes and effectiveness) (Howell et al., 1986). The theory originally classified only substitutes and neutralizers to act as moderators in the relationship between leader behavior (task

or relationship-oriented leadership) and subordinate outcomes (attitudes and behaviors) (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Howell et al. (1986) proposed to add enhancers to the classification.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) articulated 14 characteristics of subordinates (ability/experience/training/knowledge, need for independence, professional orientation, indifference to organizational rewards), tasks (unambiguous and routine, methodologically invariant, provides its own feedback concerning accomplishment, intrinsically satisfying), and organizations (formalization, inflexibility, highly specified and active advisory and staff functions, closely-knit/cohesive workgroups, organizational rewards not within the leader's control, spatial distance between superior and subordinates) that may have the ability to enhance, neutralize, and/or substitute for relationship and/or task-oriented leadership. In their 1978 study, they found that “when certain substitutes for leadership existed, the leader's supportive behavior failed to significantly predict the criterion” (Dionne et al., 2005, p. 170).

Most researchers use the general term ‘leadership substitutes’ to refer to either enhancers, neutralizers, or true substitutes. However, this practice has been criticized by researchers as the use of unspecific terminology may result in issues designing and interpreting research studies (Dionne et al., 2005). Therefore, Dionne and colleagues (2005) call for future research to use this kind of typology, i.e. enhancers, neutralizers, and true substitutes.

Enhancers refer to “variables that strengthen the impact of the leader's behavior, regardless of whether or not these enhancers have a main effect of their own” on the criterion variable (Podsakoff, Niehoff, et al., 1993). Hence, they are task, organizational, or subordinate characteristics that increase leader behaviors' impact or influence on followers (Howell et al., 1986). For example, the characteristic of the organizational rewards being within the leader's control can act as an enhancer, such that “substantial leader reward power can enhance the

impact of a leader's behavior on subordinates, especially if the subordinates perceive rewards to be contingent upon their behavior or performance" (Howell et al., 1986, p. 89).

Neutralizers are "variables that weaken the impact of the leader's behavior, regardless of whether or not the neutralizers have a main effect on the criterion variable" (Podsakoff, Niehoff, et al., 1993, p. 26). They are further defined as task, organizational, or subordinate "characteristics which make it effectively impossible for relationship and/or task-oriented leadership to make a difference" (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 395). For example, the characteristic of a cohesive workgroup can serve as a neutralizer, such that "to the extent that group norms run counter to managerial goals, a cohesive work group can act as a neutralizer by preventing a leader from having an impact" (Howell et al., 1986, p. 90). On the contrary, this characteristic may also serve as an enhancer, i.e. "to the extent group norms foster cooperation with management, a cohesive work group can act as an enhancer; in some cases weak or eccentric leaders are 'rescued' by supportive group norms" (Howell et al., 1986, p. 90).

Substitutes are defined as "special types of neutralizer variables that both weaken the impact of the leader's behavior on the criterion variable and replace the impact with a direct effect of their own" (Podsakoff, Niehoff, et al., 1993, p. 26). They are further referred to as task, organizational, or subordinate "characteristics which render relationship and/or task-oriented leadership not only impossible but also unnecessary" (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 395). Hence, as compared to neutralizers (as well as enhancers), substitutes have the ability to fully substitute leader behaviors by having a direct impact of their own on follower outcomes. As such, even though both neutralizers and substitutes weaken the effect of leader behaviors on followers' attitudes and performance, "an important theoretical distinction does exist. It is that substitutes do, but neutralizers do not, provide a 'person or thing acting or used in place of' the formal

leader's negated influence. The effect of neutralizers is therefore to create an 'influence vacuum,' from which a variety of dysfunctions may emerge" (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 395). Therefore, while a true substitute is also a neutralizer, not every neutralizer is a substitute. This can be seen in the following example, "subordinates' perceived 'ability, experience, training, and knowledge' tend to impair the leader's influence, but may or may not act as substitutes for leadership. It is known that individuals who are high in task-related self-esteem place a high value upon non-hierarchical control systems which are consistent with a belief in the competence of people. The problem is that subordinate perceptions concerning ability and knowledge may not be accurate. Actual ability and knowledge may, therefore, act as a substitute, while false perceptions of competence and unfounded self-esteem may produce simply a neutralizing effect" (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 395-396).

Therefore, overall, "for a variable to qualify as a neutralizer, both the main effect of the leader behavior and the interaction term must be significant, and they must have different signs. To qualify as an enhancer, both the leader behavior main effect and the interaction term must be significant, with the same signs. Finally, to qualify as a substitute: (a) the leader behavior must have a significant main effect; (b) the potential substitute variable must weaken the relationship between the leader behavior and the criterion variable (i.e., the interaction must be significant and it must have a different sign than the leader-behavior main effect); and (c) the substitute must have a significant main effect on the criterion variable in the same direction as the leader behavior's main effect. Only when conditions (a), (b), and (c), are met, can it be said that the variable both weakens the impact of the leader's behavior on the criterion variable and also replaces, or 'substitutes' for, it" (Podsakoff, Niehoff, et al., 1993, p. 26).

Scholars have challenged the original definition of substitutes as making leadership “unnecessary” (Dionne et al., 2005). This original “all or nothing” view of substitutes has changed through more extensive research to a “relative phenomenon” (Dionne et al., 2005). Dionne and colleagues argue that “substitute variables may not cause a particular leader behavior to be totally ineffective and unnecessary, but only partially so. Here the substitute may make a leader behavior significantly less impactful on followers. In the case of true substitutes, the substitute may have an effect on followers that is equal to or greater than the leader’s effect. In this situation, which seems to occur fairly often, we would say that a substitution effect is occurring and should be carefully considered by the leader before choosing the optimum leadership approach. It may be that further developing the substitute is the most potent leadership strategy to influence followers rather than emphasizing traditional interpersonal leadership behaviors (Howell & Costley, 2001)” (p. 176). However, the scholars conclude that “It has therefore been clear for some time that important substitutes for leadership can and do exist for specific leadership behaviors without eliminating the need for all leadership behaviors” (Dionne et al., 2005, p. 176).

A complete list of the original 14 (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) individual, task, and organizational characteristics that may serve as enhancers, neutralizers and/or true substitutes for leadership is shown in Table 2.2. Jermier and Kerr (1997) emphasized that the substitutes for leadership framework is not “a closed system or refined to the point that intervening constructs were not needed” (p. 97). Therefore, researchers are calling for the theorizing of further substitutes/neutralizers/enhancers, which is one of the goals of this study (e.g. Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997). Velez and Neves (2017) also point out the need for further theorizing, “over the last decades, additional substitutes for leadership have been identified, such

as teams, core self-evaluations, job autonomy, task significance or organizational reputation (Huusko, 2007; Neves et al., 2014; Nübold et al., 2013), however there is still a call for extending the list of potential substitutes for leadership, which also takes the specific domain of leadership into account (e.g. Dionne et al., 2005), because the same moderators should not operate for all dimensions of leader behavior (Neves et al., 2014)” (p. 9).

Table II.2

Potential Moderators for Hierarchical Leadership

Characteristic of the <i>Subordinate</i>	Characteristic of the <i>Task</i>	Characteristic of the <i>Organization</i>
ability, experience, training, knowledge	unambiguous and routine	formalization (explicit plans, goals, and areas of responsibility)
need for independence	methodologically invariant	inflexibility (rigid, unbending rules and procedures)
professional orientation	provides its own feedback concerning accomplishment	highly-specified and active advisory and staff functions
indifference toward organizational rewards	intrinsically satisfying	closely-knit, cohesive workgroups
		organizational rewards not within the leader’s control
		spatial distance between superior and subordinates

Kerr and Jermier (1978) emphasized that “derived from previously-conducted studies, substitutes are only suggested for the two leader behavior styles which dominate the research literature [task and relationship-oriented leadership]. The substitutes construct probably has much wider applicability” (p. 378). As a result, Jermier and Kerr (1997) further call for “conceptual refinement and elaboration of the construct” (p. 97) and “underscore the importance of additional leader activities” (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 397). They were hoping that scholars would not just accept the conceptual domain of substitutes for leadership as originally formulated but adapt and expand it by identifying other relevant leader behaviors. This study, therefore, extends the conceptual domain of substitutes for leadership into leader and follower communication in organizations.

Since its original formulation, researchers have empirically tested Kerr and Jermier’s model, mostly as a moderated effect, and have found mixed support (Childers et al., 1990; De Vries, 1997; Dionne et al., 2002; Farh et al., 1987; Freeston, 1987; Howell & Dorfman, 1981, 1986; Hussain, 2010; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; McIntosh, 1990; Pitner & Charters Jr, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1984, 1986, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, et al., 1993; Podsakoff, Niehoff, et al., 1993; Wan Ismail et al., 2011; Wu, 2010; Yusof & Shah, 2008; Zacher & Jimmieson, 2013)

For example, a meta-analysis by Podsakoff et al. (1996) combined the results of 22 studies and analyzed the main effect of leadership substitutes on the relationship between leadership behaviors and subordinate attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. These scholars found support for the theory, i.e. the combination of both leadership substitutes and leader behaviors accounted for a majority of the variance in employee outcomes; and on average, the leadership substitutes uniquely accounted for more of the variance in the employee outcomes than did leader behaviors alone. Furthermore, Hussain, Wan Ismail, Rashid, and Nisar (2016)

examined alternative models of substitutes for leadership. Their results showed that substitutes for leadership, independently from leadership behaviors (transformational leadership), directly influenced follower outcomes (job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role clarity). They also found that substitutes mediated the link between transformational leadership facets and follower outcomes.

On the other hand, Howell and Dorfman (1981) examined the effect of substitutes for leadership on follower job satisfaction and organizational commitment among 220 employees in a community hospital. Their results showed that several potential substitutes impacted followers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment; but that only one substitute (organizational formalization) actually made leadership impossible and/or unnecessary (i.e. being a true substitute as compared to a neutralizer). Moreover, Dionne et al. (2002) tested the theory as a both a moderated and mediated effect studying data from 940 subordinates rating 156 leaders. They found no general support for neither the moderator nor the mediator effects, suggesting that leadership matters in predicting employee outcomes.

Scholars (e.g. Avolio et al., 2009; Dionne et al., 2005; Muchiri & Cooksey, 2011; Yukl, 2011) argue that the lacking empirical support for the substitutes for leadership theory is due to theoretical and methodological issues. They claim that it is due to “the narrow definition of substitutes for leadership as a generally moderated-only phenomena , and the questionable use of same-source-biased data sets and ‘everything-but-the-kitchen-sink’ regressions” (Dionne et al., 2005, p. 173). They also argue that longitudinal data is needed that expands to non-Western contexts (Avolio et al., 2009).

Overall, the strength of the substitutes for leadership theory lies in “its recognition of the role of followers in the leadership process, rather than just the characteristics and behavior of the

leader;” therefore, it is essential to recognize that leadership goes beyond a focus on the leader him or herself (“ORG Module,” 2010).

Peer Motivating Language

Based on the previous discussions of both leader motivating language theory and substitutes for leadership theory, I develop a new construct named “Peer Motivating Language” and explore its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, namely employee absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. I propose this construct as a newly developed substitute variable (i.e. true substitute and/or neutralizer). It is important to point out that, consistent with previous motivating language research, this study focuses on individual employee outcomes. This will provide for a richer understanding of how an individual employee may be impacted by her/his peers’ use of motivating language.

Based on the substitutes for leadership perspective, I argue that motivating language use by an employee’s peers (i.e. peer motivating language) may serve as a substitute and/or neutralizer for motivating language coming from an employee’s supervisor, and therefore may have the ability to affect employee outcomes (i.e. employee’s actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance) in either an equal or stronger way as/than leader ML does (substitute) or weaken the impact leader ML has on such (neutralizer).

Peer motivating language may have the ability to serve as a new organizational characteristic similar to the organizational characteristic proposed by Kerr and Jermier (1978) of a cohesive workgroup. By nature, humans are social beings. We seek belonging, clarity, meaning, and have a psychological need for recognition. Organizations are moving to more decentralized structures with matrix teams, shared leadership, and self-managing teams. This means that peers are relying on each other to fulfill such needs. Jermier and Kerr (1997) phrased

it this way, “many employees do not need structuring and emotional support from their organizational leaders to do their jobs, and many will rely more on people other than formal leaders in deciding how to organize the work and in deriving satisfactions from participating in organizational life” (p. 99). According to a survey among more than 300 global organizations resulting in over 40,000 responses administered by TINYpulse (2013), employee happiness depends more on coworkers (.92) than on supervisors (.74); team play and collaboration were ranked as the top traits employees love about their peers; and 36 percent of employees provide peer-to-peer recognition. Other research, such as the yearly SHRM/Globoforce Employee Recognition survey, also shows that peer to peer employee recognition is essential and has a greater impact on financial results than manager-only recognition (“SHRM/Globoforce,” 2018). Overall, David Niu, CEO of TINYpulse, emphasizes that these survey results show that “who you work with is becoming more important than who you work for. We often think of employee happiness and satisfaction as being manager-driven, but now as the workplace becomes more cross-matrixed, collaborative, and ‘bottom-up,’ the importance of co-worker relationships continues to grow” (TINYpulse, 2013).

Through the use of all three motivating language dimensions, peers may act as a powerful motivator. While research shows the importance of coworkers in an organization, peer motivating language demonstrates exactly how this may look like. Peers may guide each other on how to complete tasks, offer support and provide feedback, and clarify underlying unwritten rules in an organization. Such processes may lead to decreasing importance of a leader providing such, enabling a leader to focus on other relevant tasks.

Peer Motivating Language and Team-Member Exchange Theory

The concept of peer motivating language as a possible leadership substitute and/or

neutralizer also links to Seers's (1989) team-member exchange (TMX) theory that details the reciprocal exchange process between team members (Seers et al., 1995). According to Seers et al. (1995), TMX expresses a team member's perception of the quality of "the reciprocity between a member and his or her team with respect to the member's contribution of ideas, feedback, and assistance to other members and, in turn, the member's receipt of information, help, and recognition from other team members" (p. 21). It has its theoretical roots in role theory and social exchange theory and is comprised of three dimensions – meeting (effectiveness of team meetings), exchange (two-way reciprocal behavior between a member and a team), and cohesion (common sense of belonging) (Seers, 1989). Seers et al. (1995) later argued that "the exchange dimension is the most reliable predictor for measuring the TMX concept" (Chen, 2018, p. 436).

Moreover, Tse and Dasborough (2008) classified TMX relationships into two dimensions: task-oriented exchange and relationship-oriented exchange that have been applied in several investigations. Task-oriented exchange refers to "idea sharing, feedback, information, and knowledge sharing," while relationship-oriented exchange includes "help, care, support, similar values and standards, intimacy of relationship, private sharing, friendship, and encouragement" (Chen, 2018, p. 435).

Interesting relations between TMX and several workplace outcomes at the individual and team level have been found. A meta-analysis by G. C. Banks et al. (2014) found that individual-level TMX increases team members' job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment, as well as decreases turnover intentions. Further studies find that individual-level TMX increases a member's organizational citizenship behavior, her/his willingness to share knowledge, innovative behavior, as well as the socialization process after entering an

organization (Farmer et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2011; Monica Hu et al., 2012; R. Sun et al., 2009). Negative links have been found between individual-level TMX and a member's role of pressure, relationship conflicts, and burnout (Cruz & Pil, 2011; Liang, 2012). At the team level, TMX has been shown to improve team innovation performance, team effectiveness, team knowledge sharing, team commitment, team efficacy, as well as team performance (Chae et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2011; Tse et al., 2008).

The concept of peer motivating language, despite not being defined as a reciprocal relationship as compared to TMX, reflects qualities of team-member exchange. Peer ML is also rooted in mutual trust, assistance, care, and guidance, as well as loyalty to the group and commitment. It is an altruistic employee-to-employee communication that fosters cohesiveness. A high level of peer motivating language should reflect a high quality of the work relationships within a team. Peer ML also reflects a horizontal relationship between a member and other coworkers that might lessen the impact of vertical relationships between a member and her or his leader (Chen, 2018). In fact, TMX had gained importance with "the emergence of Shared Leadership (Carson et al., 2007) and Self-managed teams (Bunderson & Boumgarden, 2010; Zárraga & Bonache, 2005)" through which the "impact of leadership may be relatively weakening" (Chen, 2018, p. 434).

When comparing the effect of team-member exchange on employee outcomes to leader-member exchange (LMX, i.e. the perceived quality of the relationship between a superior and the subordinate) (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), Epitropaki and Martin (2015) state that, "Seers (1989) found longitudinally that TMX, above and beyond LMX, predicted job satisfaction" (p. 145) and that G. C. Banks et al. (2014) "found TMX to show incremental validity above and beyond LMX for work attitudes (organizational commitment and job

satisfaction)” (p. 146). Therefore, these two scholars argue that “perceptions of the horizontal relationships among team members (TMX) seem to play an important role for job attitudes over and above vertical exchanges (LMX)” (Epitropaki & Martin, 2015, p. 146). Chen (2018) further argued that “the interaction between team members has a more obvious effect on individual performance and team performance. That’s why understanding the role of horizontal exchange relationship in the work team is particularly urgent and important” (p. 434). Peer ML can be seen as the communicative counterpart to TMX, whereas leader ML can be seen as LMX. While TMX has been shown to “replace” LMX, peer ML may have a similar effect on leader ML. Overall, the results of this study will not only help organizations and supervisors decide whether to invest in leader ML or peer ML; they will also help to better understand if an employee’s time is best spent developing a vertical relationship between her/him and the supervisor (leader ML) or developing horizontal relationships among peers (peer ML).

A similar concept to team-member exchange, named coworker exchange theory was developed by Sherony and Green (2002). However, since this construct is concerned with dyadic relationships, i.e. exchanges between individual coworkers, it will not be further addressed for the purpose of this study.

Peer Motivating Language and Social Contagion Theory

Gustave Le Bon formulated social contagion theory in 1897 to explain crowd behavior (Le Bon, 1897). In essence, the theory “argues that crowds cause people to act in a certain way. The theory suggests that crowds exert a sort of hypnotic influence on their members. The hypnotic influence combined with the anonymity of belonging to a large group of people, even just for that moment, results in irrational, emotionally charged behavior. Or, as the name implies, the frenzy of the crowd is somehow contagious, like a disease, and the contagion feeds

upon itself, growing with time. In the end, the crowd has assumed a life of its own, stirring up emotions and driving people toward irrational, even violent action” (*Crowd Behavior*, n.d.). Therefore, emotions and behaviors among a group of people can be contagious, like fashion trends or even eating disorders (Ferguson, 2007).

Several definitions of social contagion have been proposed. For example, Levy and Nail (1993) defined social contagion as “the spread of affect, attitude, or behavior from Person A (the ‘initiator’) to Person B (the ‘recipient’), where the recipient does not perceive an intentional influence attempt on the part of the initiator” (p. 266). Moreover, Latane (2000) defined social contagion as “the phenomenon that occurs when individuals alter their behavior as a result of social interaction with others, and proposed that through the social process of relating to those with whom one interacts, individuals tend to adhere to the norms around them” (Ferguson, 2007, p. 32). In the context of this study, social contagion can be defined as the spread of attitude and behavior among the members of a group or organization through communication among them.

Applying social contagion theory to the context of peer motivating language, leaders have to be mindful of the spread of attitudes and behaviors among employees through language, this may include positive or negative ones. Positive behaviors, such as increased job satisfaction or performance, may be reinforced while negative ones, such as increased absenteeism or turnover, may need immediate corrective action or feedback. Overall, social contagion theory emphasizes the influence peers may have on individual employees in an organization. Peers’ use of motivating language may spread certain perceptions among these followers. For example, in situations of change like transitioning to a new software program, peers’ use of motivating language may help explain to other employees why it is necessary to change the way things are, what the long-term benefits will be, and how it will help each employee perform her/his job

more efficiently, decreasing overall resistance among peers.

Therefore, peers' use of direction-giving, meaning-making, and empathetic language may help employees to make sense of new situations, tasks or roles, as well as organizational change. It may also help attribute successes or failures to followers as compared to only the leader in an organization. While "romanticized leadership" normally resulted in leaders who "get undue credit for organizational successes and inordinate blame for organizational failures," peer motivating language puts more emphasis on followers and their role in employee and organizational outcomes (Jian & Fairhurst, 2017, p. 6). Hence, peer ML aims to study these follower processes from a communication perspective to discover whether employee behaviors and attitudes (e.g. absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance) act as social contagion "spreading" from one employee to another through peer ML.

Peer Motivating Language as a Substitute for Leader Motivating Language

Dionne et al. (2005) argued that the most potent leadership strategy may be to further develop a substitute for leadership "rather than emphasizing traditional interpersonal leadership behaviors (Howell & Costley, 2001)" (p. 177). If a substitute has a stronger effect on followers than the leader behavior does, he or she may choose to focus on other leader tasks for that specific leader behavior that is being substituted and use her or his time the most effectively. In the context of peer motivating language this means that if the use of all three motivating language dimensions by peers results in a stronger effect on an employee's absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance than leader motivating language does, a leader may want to consider further developing the use of motivating language among peers through training, etc. and focus on other important leadership tasks.

Furthermore, the same scholars proposed the following use of substitutes for leadership, which also represents ML dimensions: “Leaders may utilize or create substitutes to fill in for a weakness they perceive in their own behavioral repertoire. A leader may not feel comfortable providing interpersonal support for a troubled follower and may call in a skilled staff person who is better trained or suited to address the followers’ problems. Or if a leader is younger and less experienced or knowledgeable than certain followers, she or he may feel uncertain about using much directive leadership and may instead call on key staff people, or capable followers to address certain types of task problems for the group” (p. 186).

The first example could represent a leader that is low in empathetic language and needs another follower (A) to substitute her/him to provide emotional support, understanding, and guidance to follower (B). The latter example could represent a supervisor who just switched to a new department in the organization and is still learning and sensemaking much her-/himself, therefore, relies on follower A to use direction-giving language to provide specific instructions for certain tasks to follower B. In both cases peer ML would fully substitute leader ML for these specific occasions. The leader is invoking peer ML as a leader ML substitute to actually replace her or his own influence when she/he is unsure of her/his own motivating language capabilities (Dionne et al., 2005).

Moreover, peer motivating language may also be useful for “leaders who are frequently absent from the workplace due to other assigned responsibilities or leaders who have a wide span of control due to the elimination of middle management positions” (Dionne et al., 2005, p. 187). Followers may be able to fill in for the unavailable leader’s ML use by providing ML among themselves, building a cohesive and trusting work environment. Hence, peer ML shows that followers are influenced by multiple sources, and peer ML might just be one of the important

non-leadership factors.

Motivating Language Related Outcomes

The examination of peer motivating language as a potential substitute and/or neutralizer of leader motivating language is important because leader motivating language is a predictor of various employee outcomes (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). This study focuses on five outcomes in particular: actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. The importance of examining absenteeism and intent-to-stay lies in their associated costs to organizations. Absenteeism is defined as a person missing “work for any reason other than vacation days, non-work days, or non-operating days of the firm” (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 83). Intent-to-stay is the counterpart to turnover intention, and measures “a person’s intentions to remain with an organization” (i.e. the likelihood of remaining) (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 84). Organizations care about these outcomes as they may result in disruptions in the workplace, such as finding a replacement to cover the employee and the use of administrative resources to fix the issue. The daily cost of an absent employee is estimated to be equal to her or his pay for that day (Cascio, 2000; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). On the other hand, employees who don’t intend to stay in the organization often show low motivation and satisfaction at work, or they actually end up leaving their employer, which is estimated to cost organizations around one-half to one-and-a-half that employee’s annual salary (Cascio, 2000, 2009; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Intent-to-stay is used in this study as a proxy variable to measure actual turnover, as empirical results show that intention to stay (or its complement intent-to-turnover) in an organization is an important predictor of actual turnover (Dalton et al., 1999; Hom et al., 1992; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

An employee's job satisfaction is of similar importance. In brief, job satisfaction "measures how well someone likes her or his workplace, work environment, and job tasks" (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 86). A satisfied employee tends to be a happier, psychologically healthier, more motivated, and more productive one. Besides having satisfied employees, organizations seek employees who are truly committed to whom they are working. Organizational commitment is defined as "how loyal someone feels toward an employer and the person's willingness to exert high levels of effort even in difficult circumstances" (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 82). Organizational commitment may decrease turnover intentions and increase performance. It may lead to an employee being a true "citizen" or feeling part of the organization he or she is working for. Lastly, follower performance is also of great concern for organizations and researchers. It basically measures how well someone is doing her or his job. Every job has distinct performance components. Overall job performance is essential as it relates to "behaviors or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization in question" (McCloy et al., 1994). If employees do not perform well, it will be hard if not impossible to reach organizational goals and the overall mission and vision of the company.

Hypotheses Development

Leader Motivating Language and Employee Outcomes

The first set of hypotheses links leader motivating language with five employee outcomes, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. These relationships have been tested in the past and were shown to have significant correlations. First, absenteeism has been found to decrease with a leader's use of motivating language (e.g. Krause, 2013; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009). Overall, the results give a median correlation of -0.21 (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Second, the link between

leader ML and intent-to-stay has received investigation (e.g. Krause, 2013; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007); and has been shown to have a median r of 0.26 (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Next, job satisfaction has been examined the most in the context of leader motivating language (e.g. Madlock, 2013; Sexton, 2013; Sharbrough et al., 2006; Simmons & Sharbrough, 2013). Studies show a median correlation of 0.35 (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Fourth, the relationship between leader motivating language and a worker's organizational commitment has received much investigation (e.g. Krause, 2013; Madlock, 2013; Madlock & Sexton, 2015), and resulted in a median r of 0.33 (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). Finally, the link between leader ML and worker performance has been studied in several investigations (e.g. Holmes, 2012; Holmes & Parker, 2017; J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1998; Zorn & Ruccio, 1998) with a median r of 0.17 (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017).

The purpose of the first hypotheses set is to re-test these relationships in different national settings, i.e. both the US and India since most previous studies focused on the US setting only. This will also add further generalizability to previously established results. Therefore, the following hypotheses are developed:

Hypothesis 1a: Leader ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.

Hypothesis 1b: Leader ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.

Hypothesis 1c: Leader ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1d: Leader ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1e: Leader ML is positively related to a worker's performance.

Peer Motivating Language and Employee Outcomes

The second set of hypotheses links peer motivating language with the same five employee outcomes – actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, and performance. Since these relationships showed significant links when motivating language is used by leaders, I expect significant effects when coming from peers as well. This is because, based on previous discussions, peers have been shown to exercise heavy influence on each other. Therefore, the following hypotheses are developed

Hypothesis 2a: Peer ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.

Hypothesis 2b: Peer ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.

Hypothesis 2c: Peer ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2d: Peer ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2e: Peer ML is positively related to a worker's performance.

Moderating Effect of Peer Motivating Language

As my previous discussions demonstrate, substitutes for leadership theory shows the importance of studying non-leadership factors (peer ML for the purpose of this study), as they may substitute for effective leadership behavior (leader ML in this case) when the supervisor is not present or otherwise unable to guide, support, and motivate employees in the organization. Hence, I propose that by using peer motivating language, peers may substitute for their leaders' use of motivating language. Therefore, based on a substitutes for leadership perspective, I predict that peer motivating language may serve as a substitute and/or neutralizer for leader motivating language, and therefore will moderate the relationship between leader ML and the five employee outcomes (i.e. employee's actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance). Therefore, the following hypotheses are developed

Hypothesis 3a: Peer ML positively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's actual absenteeism, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.

Hypothesis 3b: Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's intent-to-stay, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.

Hypothesis 3c: Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's job satisfaction, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.

Hypothesis 3d: Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's organizational commitment, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.

Hypothesis 3e: Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's performance, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.

Different National Settings

Since this is a cross-national study, I tested the proposed model in two countries, the USA and India, which are culturally distinct from each other, especially in the two cultural dimensions, collectivism/ individualism and power distance. For instance, US individuals are characterized by a higher degree of individualism as compared to individuals in India, which are described as being more collectivistic. As such, they tend to pursue their individual goals and achievements with little regard to common goals or groups such as family, friends, colleagues. People in collectivistic cultures, on the other hand, live by the notion of “the interdependent self,” which “emphasizes the need to establish harmonious relationships with other members of the group to which an individual belongs as a significant life purpose” (Markus & Kitayama,

1998; Zheng et al., 2015, p. 638). Therefore, in the US people's self-image is defined in terms of "I," whereas in India it is defined in terms of "we" (G. Hofstede et al., 2010).

Moreover, the greater interpersonal orientation of Indian individuals results in deeper conversations with peers and sharing time with them as compared to US employees. As a result, employees in collectivistic cultures might be more receptive to and might put greater emphasis and importance on motivating language coming from their peers versus their superior than employees in individualistic cultures.

Additionally, both countries differ in their degree of power distance. The U.S. culture is characterized by a low degree of power distance, as opposed to the Indian culture which is a high power distance culture. This cultural dimension may play a role in influencing the value that employees place on peer versus leader motivating language. For example, in the USA employees might be more willing to put less emphasis on their superior and receive guidance and support from their peers instead.

On the contrary, employees in India may be more reluctant to listen to their peers instead of receiving feedback and directions from their supervisor as they observe hierarchical boundaries and submit to the authority of their superiors. Overall, for the aforementioned reasons, I expect the results of this study to differ between the USA and India samples.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed

***Hypothesis 4:** There will be a difference in the models between the two national settings.*

Table 2.3 presents a summary of the hypotheses developed above.

Exploratory Link between Leader ML and Peer ML

This study also examines a possible link between a leader's use of motivating language and peer's use of motivating language. Similar diffusion processes of motivating language use in

organizations were recently examined by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2019) and are becoming an emerging topic in ML literature. Such an assumption is based on social learning theory, which in essence states that people learn from imitating observed behavior from others (Bandura, 1986, 2001; Bandura & Walters, 1977). Such a modeling effect through observational learning also applies to communication, i.e. “followers may model an immediate superior’s behaviors, including speech patterns” (Bandura, 2001; Bandura & Walters, 1977; F. M. Jablin & Sias, 2001; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2019, p. 379). Hence, when a follower notices her or his leader using motivating language at work, that follower may model such oral communication practices her- or himself.

Such diffusion is also explained by contagion theory (Le Bon, 1897), which suggests that, in this context, oral communication practices (here the use of ML) may spread in organizations through its adoption by several members of that organization (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2019). Moreover, J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2019) state, that “the strength of immediate supervisor oral communication influence on direct reports has been strongly supported in the literature” (F. M. Jablin & Sias, 2001; J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2019, p. 379; Robbins & Hunsaker, 2012).

Based on these theories and previous findings, it seems plausible to examine whether motivating language use may be adopted and diffused by a leader’s speech to followers. If leaders use a high level of ML, there will be increased opportunities for their followers to observe such, and these followers should be more likely to adopt ML use. In other words, I am examining whether followers will increase their use of motivating language if they observe effective ML talk by their leader. I am also examining whether this link if it does exist, is linear or non-linear. Therefore, research question 3 states:

Research Question 3: Is there a significant relationship between a leader's use of motivating language (LML) and peers' use of motivating language (PML)? If so, is it linear or non-linear?

Table II.3

Hypotheses Overview

H1a	<i>Leader ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.</i>
H1b	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.</i>
H1c	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.</i>
H1d	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.</i>
H1e	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's performance.</i>
H2a	<i>Peer ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.</i>
H2b	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.</i>
H2c	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.</i>
H2d	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.</i>
H2e	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's performance.</i>
H3a	<i>Peer ML positively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's actual absenteeism, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>
H3b	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's intent-to-stay, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>
H3c	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's job satisfaction, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>

(Continued)

Table II.3 Continued

H3d	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's organizational commitment, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>
H3e	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's performance, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>
H4	<i>There will be a difference in the models between the two national settings.</i>

CHAPTER III: SCALE VALIDATION

To empirically test the proposed model, a measure for the peer motivating language construct was developed by adapting the original motivating language scale by J. and M. Mayfield (J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995), so that it referenced the employee's view of the use of motivating language by her/his peers rather than by her/his supervisor (e.g. "On average, my coworkers give me useful explanations of what needs to be done in my work."). Each item measures the average use of motivating language by a worker's peers. The scale has a total of 24 items that are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "very little" to "a whole lot."

Data Collection

Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online crowdsourcing survey tool offered by Amazon was used to collect data for an initial scale validation. Details on MTurk will be discussed in the principal study. Online surveys were distributed to working individuals in the U.S. and India to test the validity and reliability of the peer motivating language scale. The U.S. sample consists of 592 respondents and the India sample yielded 595 responses.

Data Analysis and Results

External Validity: Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Consistent with the literature on scale validation (DeVellis, 2016), validity was assessed by analyzing whether the peer ML (PML) construct is actually measuring what it is supposed to be measuring, also referred to as construct validity. Convergent validity measures whether variables that are supposed to be related, are in fact, related. On the other hand, discriminant validity measures whether variables that are not supposed to be related, are in fact, not related.

First, to test for convergent validity, the peer ML scale was compared to the following scales: TMX (team-member exchange) (Seers et al., 1995), CWX (coworker exchange) (Sherony & Green, 2002), and coworker communication satisfaction (CCS) (Downs & Hazen, 1977). Specifically, convergent validity was assessed by examining the factor loadings of each latent variable. According to Kock (2020), “two criteria are recommended as the basis for concluding that a measurement model has acceptable convergent validity: that the P values associated with the loadings be equal to or lower than 0.05; and that the loadings be equal to or greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 1987, 2009; Kock, 2014)” (p. 87). However, this threshold only applies to reflective latent variables. While most constructs in this study are indeed reflective, peer motivating language is a formative construct. Therefore, it is acceptable for this formative variable to have factor loadings below the 0.5 threshold (Kock, 2020). Moreover, to assess the convergent validity of peer motivating language, the p-values of the indicator weights were examined, which all had values of less than 0.05 for both samples (Kock, 2014).

Table 3.1 shows the factor loadings of each latent variable for the U.S. sample. All p-values associated with the loadings are statistically significant, i.e. they are equal to or lower than 0.05 (less than 0.001, in fact). Furthermore, all loadings have values greater than or equal to the threshold of 0.5. Hence, it can be concluded that the PML scale has acceptable convergent validity. In other words, the survey respondents understood the questions relating to this variable in the same way as I intended them to be understood.

Table III.1
Factor Loadings and Cross-Loadings for U.S. Sample

	PML	TMX	CWX	CCS	p-value
PML-DG	0.904	-0.062	0.044	-0.026	<0.001
PML-EM	0.884	0.070	0.100	0.041	<0.001
PML-MM	0.894	-0.006	-0.144	-0.014	<0.001
TMX1	0.116	0.632	-0.083	-0.134	<0.001
TMX2	0.044	0.669	-0.077	0.071	<0.001
TMX3	-0.122	0.695	-0.045	-0.041	<0.001
TMX4	-0.061	0.673	0.022	0.115	<0.001
TMX5	0.182	0.683	-0.031	0.105	<0.001
TMX6	-0.106	0.628	0.019	-0.007	<0.001
TMX7	0.151	0.666	-0.084	0.030	<0.001
TMX8	-0.221	0.692	0.106	-0.200	<0.001
TMX9	-0.161	0.660	0.145	-0.012	<0.001
TMX10	0.188	0.661	0.026	0.071	<0.001
CWX1	-0.084	-0.025	0.767	-0.046	<0.001
CWX2	0.059	-0.065	0.802	-0.047	<0.001
CWX3	0.025	-0.088	0.815	0.050	<0.001
CWX4	0.205	-0.043	0.702	-0.116	<0.001
CWX5	-0.219	0.276	0.659	0.202	<0.001
CWX6	-0.004	-0.010	0.779	-0.025	<0.001
CCS1	0.060	0.024	-0.175	0.741	<0.001
CCS2	0.045	-0.034	-0.024	0.821	<0.001
CCS3	0.074	-0.094	-0.010	0.831	<0.001
CCS4	-0.179	0.133	0.137	0.800	<0.001
CCS5	0.000	-0.022	0.057	0.837	<0.001

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language–direction-giving
PML-MM = Peer motivating language–meaning-making
PML-EM = Peer motivating language–empathetic
TMX = Team-member exchange
CWX = Coworker exchange
CCS = Coworker communication satisfaction

The same holds true for the convergent validity results from the Indian sample, which can be found in Table 3.2. Hence, for both samples, the PML construct operates as expected.

Table III.2
Factor Loadings and Cross-Loadings for Indian Sample

	PML	TMX	CWX	CCS	p-value
PML-DG	0.932	-0.015	0.019	0.007	<0.001
PML-EM	0.940	0.023	0.000	-0.026	<0.001
PML-MM	0.934	-0.008	-0.019	0.020	<0.001
TMX1	-0.117	0.648	0.193	-0.046	<0.001
TMX2	-0.059	0.702	-0.007	-0.133	<0.001
TMX3	-0.027	0.691	0.071	0.082	<0.001
TMX4	0.000	0.736	-0.003	-0.118	<0.001
TMX5	0.088	0.671	-0.016	-0.051	<0.001
TMX6	0.030	0.645	-0.113	0.000	<0.001
TMX7	0.062	0.695	-0.004	0.176	<0.001
TMX8	-0.097	0.714	-0.019	-0.077	<0.001
TMX9	0.140	0.693	-0.050	-0.047	<0.001
TMX10	-0.018	0.731	-0.043	0.208	<0.001
CWX1	0.004	-0.107	0.733	0.030	<0.001
CWX2	0.062	0.165	0.774	-0.253	<0.001
CWX3	0.042	-0.008	0.784	-0.136	<0.001
CWX4	0.010	-0.115	0.712	0.146	<0.001
CWX5	-0.214	-0.137	0.451	0.657	<0.001
CWX6	0.007	0.132	0.760	-0.158	<0.001
CCS1	-0.033	-0.334	0.075	0.752	<0.001
CCS2	-0.017	0.208	-0.017	0.831	<0.001
CCS3	0.006	-0.194	0.002	0.841	<0.001
CCS4	0.057	0.388	-0.088	0.780	<0.001
CCS5	-0.014	-0.075	0.030	0.815	<0.001

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language–direction-giving
PML-MM = Peer motivating language–meaning-making
PML-EM = Peer motivating language–empathetic
TMX = Team-member exchange
CWX = Coworker exchange
CCS = Coworker communication satisfaction

Furthermore, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the square roots of the average variance extracted (AVE) against the correlations among latent variables. Table 3.3 shows the latent variable correlations, with the square roots of the average variances extracted on the diagonal for the U.S. sample. Discriminant validity for a construct is given if the value on the

diagonal is greater than any of the values above or below them, in the same column (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kock, 2015; Kock & Lynn, 2012). Table 3.3 shows that this is the case for the PML construct for the U.S. sample. Hence, it can be concluded that the peer ML scale has acceptable discriminant validity. In other words, the survey respondents did not confuse the meaning of questions relating to PML with questions relating to other latent variables. The same holds true for the discriminant validity results of the peer ML construct for the Indian sample, which can be found in Table 3.4. Hence, acceptable levels of divergent validity for the PML scale are given, meaning that the peer ML construct is, in fact, distinct from the other three constructs.

Table III.3

Correlations among Latent Variables with Square Roots of AVEs for U.S. Sample

	PML	TMX	CWX	CCS
PML	0.894	0.463	0.460	0.487
TMX	0.463	0.666	0.543	0.613
CWX	0.460	0.543	0.756	0.528
CCS	0.487	0.613	0.528	0.807

Notes: Square roots of AVEs shown on the diagonal

PML = Peer motivating language

TMX = Team-member exchange

CWX = Coworker exchange

CCS = Coworker communication satisfaction

Table III.4

Correlations among Latent Variables with Square Roots of AVEs for Indian Sample

	PML	TMX	CWX	CCS
PML	0.935	0.223	0.664	0.254
TMX	0.223	0.693	0.336	0.836
CWX	0.664	0.336	0.712	0.352
CCS	0.254	0.836	0.352	0.805

Notes: Square roots of AVEs shown on the diagonal

PML = Peer motivating language

TMX = Team-member exchange

CWX = Coworker exchange
 CCS = Coworker communication satisfaction

Internal Validity: Reliability

Scale reliability was assessed by analyzing both the composite reliability and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. These indicators were examined and compared to the empirically recommended threshold of 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kock, 2014; Kock & Lynn, 2012; Nunnally, 1978; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For the U.S. sample, the composite reliability of the PML direction-giving scale equals 0.930 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient equals 0.916. For the PML meaning-making scale, the composite reliability equals 0.923 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient equals 0.904. The composite reliability for the PML empathetic scale equals 0.911 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient equals 0.881. These indicators were also examined for the TMX, CWX, and CCS scale and all met the 0.7 threshold as seen in Table 3.5.

Moreover, as for the Indian sample, the scales also demonstrated acceptable reliability with values exceeding a value of 0.7. The composite reliability score for the PML direction-giving scale is 0.924, similar to the value of the Cronbach's alpha at 0.909. For the PML meaning-making scale, the composite reliability equals 0.909 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient equals 0.885. The composite reliability for the PML empathetic scale equals 0.898 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient equals 0.864. As shown in Table 3.5, the values for the TMX, CWX, and CCS scale also far exceed the threshold. Therefore, it is concluded that all scales show acceptable reliability.

Table III.5

USA and India – Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha

	PML-DG	PML-MM	PML-EM	TMX	CWX	CCS
<i>USA</i> – Composite Reliability	0.930	0.923	0.911	0.889	0.888	0.903
<i>India</i> – Composite Reliability	0.924	0.909	0.898	0.902	0.857	0.902
<i>USA</i> – Cronbach's Alpha	0.916	0.904	0.881	0.861	0.849	0.865
<i>India</i> – Cronbach's Alpha	0.909	0.885	0.864	0.880	0.798	0.863

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language–direction-giving
PML-MM = Peer motivating language–meaning-making
PML-EM = Peer motivating language–empathetic
TMX = Team-member exchange
CWX = Coworker exchange
CCS = Coworker communication satisfaction

CHAPTER IV: PRINCIPAL STUDY – METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online crowdsourcing survey tool offered by Amazon, was used to collect data on the individual level of analysis. Online surveys were distributed to working individuals in the US and India to test the developed model. Previous research shows that Mechanical Turk respondents represent the general population and demographic characteristics of the respective society they live in fairly well and provide high-quality responses (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Peer et al., 2014; Ross et al., 2010). As the survey designer, I was able to choose certain inclusion criteria the respondents had to meet before starting the survey, i.e. being a full-time employee, who is working with other people, and being located in the United States or India. To ensure high response rates, the survey takers received a monetary incentive.

Combined Sample

Initially, 597 responses were received from the United States and 593 from India. From the U.S. sample, 25 respondents were not native-born U.S. citizens. For the Indian sample, this number was only 7. These respondents were removed due to concerns that their responses may skew results because they are from a different culture. Furthermore, responses were removed that failed attention check items that were included in the questionnaire to ensure response quality. For each scale used in the questionnaire, two additional items were added, which were worded as follows, “Please select the *Agree* option.” and “Please select the *Disagree* option.” I changed the answer options for a scale, depending on what possible answer options were available (e.g., “Very Little” and “A whole Lot” for the Peer ML scale; “Below Average” and “Excellent” for the Performance scale). Choosing two different options ensured that if a respondent was just

picking the same option for all answers, they would miss at least one of these items. If in total a respondent answered more than two attention check items wrong, I removed them from the sample to not skew the results. 27 responses were removed from the U.S. sample and 75 from the Indian sample.

The final total sample consisted of 1056 respondents from the two countries combined. Overall, the respondents' characteristics show a diverse sample. 59 percent (625) of the respondents are male and 41 percent (431) female, which leads to only a slight overrepresentation of men in the sample. The average respondent was 33 years old. Specifically, 47 percent (491) of the survey takers were between the ages of 18 and 30 years. 32 percent (336) were between the ages of 31 and 40 years, while 13 percent (141) of the respondents were between the ages of 41 and 50 years. Only a small amount of the respondents, i.e. 8 percent (88), was at least 51 years old.

The respondents had worked for their current employers 5.88 years on average, with 18 percent (187) of them having worked with their current employers for 10 years or more, 17 percent (178) for 6 to 9 years, 40 percent (425) for 3 to 5 years, and 25 percent (266) for less than 3 years. Most respondents (45 percent) worked in medium-sized firms (between 100 and 1,000 employees), followed by small firms (less than 100 employees) amounting to 31 percent, and large firms (more than 1,000 employees) amounting to 24 percent.

As for the workers' highest educational attainment, 9 percent had a high-school degree, 15 percent had an associate's degree, 48 percent had a four-year college degree, 25 percent had a master's degree, and 2 percent had a doctoral/MD/JD or another terminal degree. These indicators show that the sample generally is more educated which is reflected in their job type as well. 54 percent of the survey takers classified their job type as professional work (requires high

levels of training and/or specialized certification to perform), whereas 39 percent of them were performing skilled labor (requires moderate levels of training to perform). Lastly, only a small amount (7 percent) of respondents performed unskilled labor (requires little or no training to perform).

The respondents performed their labor in different sectors of the economy. 27 percent worked in IT, 13 percent in financial, and 11 percent in health care. The next three most represented sectors are education (9 percent), and industrials and retail accounting for 7 percent each.

U.S. Sample

The fact that this study was performed in both the United States and India merits analyzing each sample separately. This may reveal certain differences or similarities in the demographics of both samples.

The U.S. sample consisted of 545 respondents. Overall, the respondents' characteristics show a diverse sample. 54 percent (296) of the respondents are female and 46 percent (249) male. The average respondent was 37 years old. Specifically, 33 percent (180) of the survey takers were between the ages of 18 and 30 years. 34 percent (184) were between the ages of 31 and 40 years, while 19 percent (105) of the respondents were between the ages of 41 and 50 years. 14 percent (76) of the respondents were at least 51 years old.

The U.S. respondents had worked for their current employers 6.39 years on average, with 21 percent (117) of them having worked with their current employers for 10 years or more, 17 percent (94) for 6 to 9 years, 34 percent (187) for 3 to 5 years, and 27 percent (147) for less than 3 years. Most respondents (39 percent) worked in medium-sized firms (between 100 and 1,000

employees), followed by small firms (less than 100 employees) amounting to 31 percent, and large firms (more than 1,000 employees) amounting to 30 percent.

As for the U.S. workers' highest educational attainment, 16 percent had a high-school degree, 17 percent had an associate's degree, 46 percent had a four-year college degree, 17 percent had a master's degree, and 2 percent had a doctoral/MD/JD or another terminal degree. Hence, the sample is fairly well educated which is reflected in their job type as well. 56 percent of the survey takers classified their job type as professional work (requires high levels of training and/or specialized certification to perform), whereas 34 percent of them were performing skilled labor (requires moderate levels of training to perform). Lastly, only a small amount (10 percent) of respondents performed unskilled labor (requires little or no training to perform).

The respondents performed their labor in different sectors of the economy. 15 percent worked in IT, 13 percent in health care, and 12 percent in financial. The next three most represented sectors are education (11 percent), retail (10 percent), and industrials (6 percent).

Indian Sample

The Indian sample consisted of 511 workers. Generally, the respondents' characteristics show a diverse sample. However, the male to female ratio is stronger for the Indian sample as compared to the U.S. sample, with men almost accounting for three times the number of women in the sample. 74 percent (376) of the respondents are male and 26 percent (135) female. The average respondent was 31 years old. Specifically, 61 percent (311) of the survey takers were between the ages of 18 and 30 years. 30 percent (152) were between the ages of 31 and 40 years, while 7 percent (36) of the respondents were between the ages of 41 and 50 years. 2 percent (12) of the respondents were at least 51 years old. Therefore, the Indian sample was younger as compared to the U.S. sample.

The Indian respondents had worked for their current employers 5.28 years on average, with 14 percent (69) of them having worked with their current employers for 10 years or more, 16 percent (84) for 6 to 9 years, 47 percent (239) for 3 to 5 years, and 23 percent (119) for less than 3 years. Most respondents (52 percent) worked in medium-sized firms (between 100 and 1,000 employees), followed by small firms (less than 100 employees) amounting to 31 percent, and large firms (more than 1,000 employees) amounting to 17 percent.

As for the Indian respondents' highest educational attainment, 1 percent had a high-school degree, 13 percent had an associate's degree, 49 percent had a four-year college degree, 33 percent had a master's degree, and 2 percent had a doctoral/MD/JD or another terminal degree. Hence, the Indian sample is more educated than the U.S. sample which is reflected in the type of job they are doing. 53 percent of the survey takers classified their job type as professional work (requires high levels of training and/or specialized certification to perform), whereas 44 percent of them were performing skilled labor (requires moderate levels of training to perform). Lastly, only a small amount (3 percent) of respondents performed unskilled labor (requires little or no training to perform).

The respondents performed their labor in different sectors of the economy. 39 percent worked in IT, 14 percent in financial, and 9 percent in health care and industrials each. The next two most represented sectors are education (6 percent), and energy (5 percent). Table 4.1 summarizes the described characteristics of the respondents for both individual samples as well as for the combined sample.

Table IV.1
Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	USA	%	India	%	Combined	%
Total Respondents	545	52%	511	48%	1056	100%
Male	249	46%	376	74%	625	59%
Female	296	54%	135	26%	431	41%
Mean Age	37 years		31 years		33 years	
Tenure with Current Employer	6.39 years		5.28 years		5.88 years	
Firm Size – Small	166	31%	160	31%	326	31%
Firm Size – Medium	210	39%	263	52%	473	45%
Firm Size – Large	169	30%	88	17%	257	24%
Job Type – Unskilled	55	10%	17	3%	72	7%
Job Type – Skilled	185	34%	226	44%	411	39%
Job Type – Professional	305	56%	268	53%	573	54%
High School	88	16%	7	1%	95	9%
Associate's	95	17%	67	13%	162	15%
Bachelor's	250	46%	252	49%	502	48%
Master's	90	17%	169	33%	259	25%
Doctoral/MD/JD/Terminal	11	2%	12	2%	23	2%

Measures

The complete questionnaire was divided into questions pertaining to respondents' demographics as previously described, respondents' perceptions pertaining to the seven main constructs in the model, i.e. leader motivating language, peer motivating language, actual

absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance, as well as questions regarding whether the respondents' worked in a decentralized or centralized organizational structure.

Peer Motivating Language

I used the measure for the peer motivating language construct that I validated during the scale validation phase of this study. It measures all three ML dimensions, namely direction-giving language, meaning-making language, and empathetic language on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “very little” to “a whole lot.”

Next, existing reliable and proven scales were used to measure all other variables, i.e. leader motivating language, the five employee outcomes (actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance), and a control variable, i.e. a centralized versus decentralized organizational structure.

Leader Motivating Language

Based on previous research on motivating language theory, this study measured leader motivating language with 24 items that were developed by J. Mayfield and M. Mayfield (J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995). This scale has been proven reliable in several empirical investigations (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017). It measures all three ML dimensions, namely direction-giving language, meaning-making language, and empathetic language on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “very little” to “a whole lot.”

Actual Absenteeism

Actual absenteeism was measured by using eight items developed by M. Mayfield and J. Mayfield (personal communication, 2019) as an extension of the original scale by J. Mayfield &

Mayfield (2009). Sample questions include “In the past month, how many days have you been absent from work?” and “In the past month, what were the most days that you missed work in a row?”. These items were measured numerically.

Intent-to-Stay

The employee outcome intent-to-stay complements a worker’s intent-to-turnover. I used a modified version of the reliable 7-item scale by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2007). I modified the scale by removing reverse-coded items to reduce respondent confusion. The final scale had three items. Sample items include “I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now” and “I can’t see myself working for any other organization.” The 5-point Likert scale ranges from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Job Satisfaction

I measured job satisfaction by using four items developed by Thompson and Phua (2012). Sample items include “I find real enjoyment in my job” and “Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.” I used a 5-point Likert scale to rate the items. The scale ranges from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured by using a modified version of the 15 items developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). I modified the scale by removing reverse-coded items to reduce respondent confusion. The final scale had nine items. Sample items include “I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful” and “I really care about the fate of this organization.” The

items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale with anchors ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Performance

I measured a worker’s performance through self-reports using a scale with nine items that was adapted by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2006) using Mott (1972). Sample items include “How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues’ output?” and “How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?”. It is a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “below average” to “excellent.”

Centralized Organizational Structure

I included one control variable, centralized versus decentralized organizational structure, to capture possible effects on employee outcomes that may be caused by the way an organization is structured (centralized or decentralized). To measure whether the firm the respondent worked for is characterized by a centralized or decentralized organizational structure, I used a 5-item scale developed by Lee and Choi (2003). Respondents were asked to reply using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” to the following sample items: “In my company I can take action without a supervisor.” and “In my company I do not need to refer to someone else.” A summary of all measures used, including their sources, can be found in Table 4.2.

Table IV.2
Summary of Measures and their Sources

Variable	Items	Source	Scale
Peer Motivating Language	24	validated in this study (an adaptation of J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995)	5-point Likert 1 – very little 5 – a whole lot
Leader Motivating Language	24	J. Mayfield (1993); J. Mayfield et al. (1995)	5-point Likert 1 – very little 5 – a whole lot
Actual Absenteeism	8	extension of J. Mayfield & Mayfield (2009) as developed by M. Mayfield and Mayfield (personal communication, 2019)	numerically measured
Intent-to-Stay	3	modification of J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2007)	5-point Likert 1 – strongly disagree 5 – strongly agree
Job Satisfaction	4	Thompson and Phua (2012)	5-point Likert 1 – strongly disagree 5 – strongly agree
Organizational Commitment	9	modification of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979)	7-point Likert 1 – strongly disagree 7 – strongly agree
Performance	9	adapted by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2006) using Mott (1972)	5-point Likert 1 – below average 5 – excellent
Centralized Organizational Structure	5	Lee and Choi (2003)	7-point Likert 1 – strongly disagree 7 – strongly agree

Cultural Manipulation Check

As this study is of cross-cultural nature, consisting of samples from two distinct countries, it is essential to test whether the two samples represent their respective country, i.e. the USA and India. Therefore, a cultural manipulation check was conducted using several cultural dimensions. For this study, three cultural dimensions, namely, collectivism/ individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance, were used. First, under Hofstede's framework of

national cultural dimensions, The United States is ranked as being a very individualistic culture with a score of 91, whereas India is ranked as more collectivistic in nature with a score of 48. Second, as for the degree of power distance, the USA has a score of 40 as compared to India with a score of 77. Hence, India is characterized by a much higher degree of power distance than the USA. Third, both the United States and India rank similar on uncertainty avoidance, with a score of 46 and 40, respectively.

Overall, the score differences show in which cultural dimensions I can expect differences and similarities between the two samples. For collectivism/ individualism, the score difference is 43, which is fairly large. The same holds true for power distance, with a score difference of 37. On the other hand, uncertainty avoidance shows a score difference of only 6, which is very small. Hence, both cultures are very similar under this dimension. Table 4.3 and Figure 4.1 show each individual score for each dimension and country as well as score differences between them.

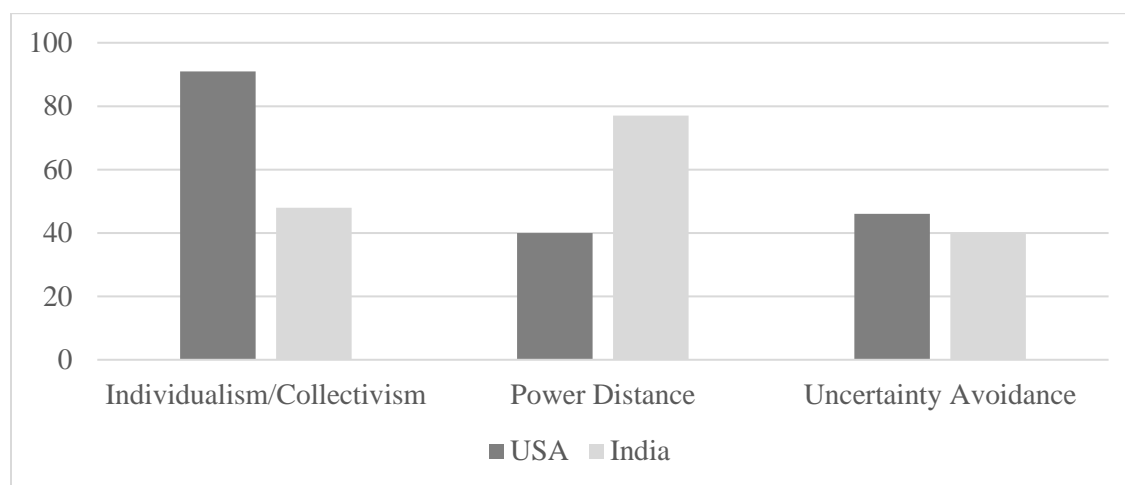
Table IV.3

Differences in Cultural Dimensions

Country	Individualism/ Collectivism	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance
USA	91	40	46
India	48	77	40
Score Difference	43	37	6

Figure IV.1

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions for the USA and India



To conduct the cultural manipulation test, all three cultural dimensions were conceptualized at the individual level as several studies show that Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions vary significantly among people within a specific society (Clugston et al., 2000; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; W. Wang et al., 2012). Also, both peer and leader motivating language as well as the five employee outcomes are individual-level constructs. Therefore, this study uses a 6-item collectivism/ individualism scale developed by Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz (2011), as well as a 5-item power distance and 5-item uncertainty avoidance scale developed by the same authors. Sample items of the collectivism/ individualism scale include “Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group” and “Group success is more important than individual success.” Sample items for the power distance scale include “People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions” and “People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.” Lastly, sample items for the uncertainty avoidance scale include “It is important to closely follow

instructions and procedures” and “Standardized work procedures are helpful.” All items will be rated on a 5-point Likert scale with anchors of “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.”

Next, a dummy variable indicating the nationality of each respondent was created. Participants from the USA were assigned the value 1, and respondents from India were assigned the value 0. This dummy variable was then used to run three individual regressions with the dummy variable being the independent variable and each cultural dimension being the dependent latent variable that consists of the aforementioned indicators. WarpPLS 7.0 was used to run these regressions.

Based on the score differences analyzed in the first step, one would expect statistically significant differences for the individualism/ collectivism and power distance dimensions between the two countries as the score differences were very large (43 and 37). Hence, significant beta coefficients would indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in cultural dimension variability between the USA and India for these two dimensions, meaning both samples are in fact representative of their respective countries. However, one would not expect statistically significant differences for the uncertainty avoidance dimension as the difference was fairly small, namely 6. Therefore, not significant beta coefficients would indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in cultural dimension variability between the USA and India for this dimension, meaning both samples are in fact representative of their respective countries.

The results of the manipulation check are summarized in table 4.4. As expected, statistically significant differences between the country dummy variable and the collectivism/ individualism and power distance latent variables were found. The beta coefficient for the link between the country dummy variable and the collectivism/ individualism latent variable is -0.30

and it is statistically significant with a p-value of less than 0.01. The beta coefficient for the link between the country dummy variable and the power distance latent variable is statistically significant as well (p-value <0.01) with a value of -0.47. Lastly, when analyzing the relationship between the country dummy variable and the uncertainty avoidance latent variable, at first glance, a statistically significant link was found (p<0.01) with a value of 0.16. However, when further analyzing the link's effect size of 0.026 it was concluded that this link is not of practical significance. This is because the effect size only slightly meets the minimum threshold of 0.02 to be considered a small effect size (Cohen, 1988; Kock, 2014). Therefore, Kock (2014) suggests that such small values show “effects that are too weak to be considered relevant from a practical point of view, even when the corresponding P values are statistically significant; a situation that may occur with large sample sizes” (Kock, 2014, p. 2-3). Hence, the beta coefficient for the link between the country dummy variable and the uncertainty avoidance latent variable is considered to be zero. Therefore, all results corroborate that the two samples are representative of their respective cultures.

Table IV.4

Cultural Manipulation Check between the USA and India

Cultural Dimension	Beta Coefficient	p-value
Collectivism/ Individualism	-0.30	p<0.01
Power Distance	-0.47	p<0.01
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.16 ^{EB}	p<0.01 ^{EB}

Note: EB = effect size below threshold

Statistical Technique

To test the model's hypotheses, WarpPLS 7.0 (Kock, 2017), a versatile multivariate analysis software based on structural equation modeling (SEM) using the partial least squares

(PLS) methods, was utilized. As for the outer model analysis algorithm, PLS regression was used; for the inner model analysis algorithm, Warp3 was used. This decision was made based on an analysis by leading ML researchers stating that “we propose that ML facet use is non-linear” [when discussing its influence on worker outcomes] (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017, p. 67).

PLS-based SEM is a second generation data analysis technique. Data analysis techniques can be divided into first and second generation statistical tools (Gefen et al., 2000). According to Gefen et al. (2000), “Contrary to first generation statistical tools such as regression, SEM enables researchers to answer a set of interrelated research questions in a single, systematic, and comprehensive analysis by modeling the relationships among multiple independent and dependent constructs simultaneously (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988)” (p. 3). This capability is not given when using first generation techniques such as linear regression, LOGIT, ANOVA, or MANOVA.

SEM is able to analyze models consisting of latent variables. Gefen et al. (2000) emphasize that “unlike first generation regression tools, SEM not only assesses the structural model – the assumed causation among a set of dependent and independent constructs – but, in the same analysis, also evaluates the measurement model – loadings of observed items (measurements) on their expected latent variables (constructs)” (p. 5).

These advantages as compared to second generation statistical tools may result in “a more rigorous analysis of the proposed research model and, very often, a better methodological assessment tool” (Bollen, 1989; Bullock et al., 1994; Gefen et al., 2000; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). Therefore, it seems plausible to use SEM as the data analysis technique for this study.

Moreover, SEM can be performed using two distinct primary methods of analysis – covariance-based SEM and variance-based or partial-least-squares-based SEM. While sharing

the same roots (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989), each has distinct methodological characteristics. The detailed differences of both first generation (i.e. linear regression) and second generation (covariance-based SEM, LISREL; variance-based SEM, PLS) statistical tools can be seen in Table 4.5 and Table 4.6. Overall, since my model is very complex involving latent variables with multiple linkages, moderating variables, as well as formative variables, PLS-based SEM seems to be the most suitable and effective statistical method to employ.

Table IV.5

Comparative Analysis between Techniques

Issue	LISREL (<i>covariance-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	PLS (<i>variance-based / PLS-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	Linear Regression 1st Generation
Objective of Overall Analysis	Show that the null hypothesis of the entire proposed model is plausible, while rejecting path-specific null hypotheses of no effect.	Reject a set of path-specific null hypotheses of no effect.	Reject a set of path-specific null hypotheses of no effect.
Objective of Variance Analysis	Overall model fit, such as insignificant χ^2 or high AGFI.	Variance explanation (high R-square)	Variance explanation (high R-square)
Required Theory Base	Requires sound theory base. Supports confirmatory research.	Does not necessarily require sound theory base. Supports both exploratory and confirmatory research.	Does not necessarily require sound theory base. Supports both exploratory and confirmatory research.
Assumed Distribution	Multivariate normal, if estimation is through ML. Deviations from multivariate normal are supported with other estimation techniques.	Relatively robust to deviations from a multivariate distribution.	Relatively robust to deviations from a multivariate distribution, with established methods of handling nonmultivariate distributions.

(Continued)

Table IV.5 Continued

Issue	LISREL (<i>covariance-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	PLS (<i>variance-based / PLS-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	Linear Regression 1st Generation
Required Minimal Sample Size	At least 100-150 cases.	At least 10 times the number of items in the most complex construct.	Supports smaller sample sizes, although a sample of at least 30 is required.

Source: Gefen et al. (2000)

Table IV.6

Capabilities by Research Approach

Capabilities	LISREL (<i>covariance-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	PLS (<i>variance-based / PLS-based SEM</i>) 2nd Generation	Linear Regression 1st Generation
Maps paths to many dependent (latent or observed) variables in the same research model and analyze all the paths simultaneously rather than one at a time.	Supported	Supported	Not supported
Maps specific and error variance of the observed variables into the research model.	Supported	Not supported	Not supported
Maps reflective observed variables	Supported	Supported	Supported
Maps formative observed variables	Not supported	Supported	Not supported

(Continued)

Table IV.6 Continued

Capabilities	LISREL <i>(covariance-based SEM)</i> 2nd Generation	PLS <i>(variance-based / PLS-based SEM)</i> 2nd Generation	Linear Regression 1st Generation
Allows setting of non-common variance of an observed variable to a given value in the research model.	Supported	Not Supported	Supported by adjusting the correlation matrix.
Analyzes all the paths, both measurement and structural, in one analysis.	Supported	Supported	Not supported
Can perform a confirmatory factor analysis	Supported	Supported	Not supported
Provides a statistic to compare alternative confirmatory factor analyses models	Supported	Not supported	Not supported

Source: Gefen et al. (2000)

CHAPTER V: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The means and standard deviations for each latent variable for each sample (USA and India) as well as the combined sample are reported in Table 5.1. For the U.S. sample, peer motivating language had a mean of 2.97 (S.D. = 1.19); and for the Indian sample, it had a mean of 3.16 (S.D. = 1.07). Leader motivating language had a mean of 3.03 (S.D. = 1.23) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 3.22 (S.D. = 1.08) for the Indian sample.

Actual absenteeism had a mean of 0.77 (S.D. = 1.78) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 1.78 (S.D. = 2.19) for the Indian sample. Intent-to-stay had a mean of 3.09 (S.D. = 1.32) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 3.08 (S.D. = 1.15) for the Indian sample. Job satisfaction had a mean of 3.55 (S.D. = 1.04) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 3.65 (S.D. = 0.99) for the Indian sample. Organizational commitment had a mean of 4.64 (S.D. = 1.75) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 4.87 (S.D. = 1.62) for the Indian sample. Lastly, performance had a mean of 3.38 (S.D. = 1.02) for the U.S. sample and a mean of 3.32 (S.D. = 1.02) for the Indian sample.

Table V.1

Latent Variable Means and Standard Deviations

	USA		India		Combined	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Peer Motivating Language	2.97	1.19	3.16	1.07	3.06	1.14
Leader Motivating Language	3.03	1.23	3.22	1.08	3.12	1.16
Actual Absenteeism	0.77	1.78	1.78	2.19	1.26	2.05

(Continued)

Table V.1 Continued

	USA		India		Combined	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Intent-to-Stay	3.09	1.32	3.08	1.15	3.09	1.24
Job Satisfaction	3.55	1.04	3.65	0.99	3.60	1.02
Organizational Commitment	4.64	1.75	4.87	1.62	4.75	1.65
Performance	3.38	1.02	3.32	1.02	3.35	1.02
Centralized Organizational Structure	4.56	1.74	4.12	1.73	4.35	1.75

Furthermore, the correlations between the latent variables of each sample as well as of the combined sample are reported in Tables 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4.

Table V.2**Correlations among Latent Variables for U.S. Sample**

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.889							
LML	0.779	0.893						
AA	0.090	<i>0.063</i>	0.860					
INS	0.309	0.416	<i>-0.005</i>	0.796				
JS	0.502	0.578	<i>-0.007</i>	0.650	0.912			
OC	0.534	0.618	<i>0.015</i>	0.700	0.819	0.945		
PER	0.365	0.402	<i>-0.003</i>	0.259	0.407	0.389	0.931	
CEN	0.196	0.269	<i>0.026</i>	0.256	0.314	0.320	0.303	0.919

Notes: Cronbach's alpha values shown on the diagonal

Values in italics are not statistically significant (p-value greater than 0.05)

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.3

Correlations among Latent Variables for Indian Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.899							
LML	0.808	0.923						
AA	-0.168	-0.170	0.873					
INS	0.468	0.415	<i>-0.041</i>	0.625				
JS	0.575	0.563	-0.280	0.525	0.844			
OC	0.622	0.623	-0.243	0.595	0.786	0.925		
PER	0.535	0.461	-0.241	0.242	0.500	0.522	0.890	
CEN	0.209	0.188	0.208	0.324	0.114	0.161	<i>0.016</i>	0.864

Notes: Cronbach's alpha values shown on the diagonal

Values in italics are not statistically significant (p-value greater than 0.05)

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.4

Correlations among Latent Variables for Combined Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.892							
LML	0.793	0.897						

(Continued)

Table V.4 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
AA	0.014	-0.001	0.884					
INS	0.367	0.412	-0.034	0.726				
JS	0.535	0.574	-0.107	0.601	0.883			
OC	0.571	0.622	-0.081	0.662	0.806	0.936		
PER	0.427	0.418	-0.124	0.253	0.443	0.442	0.913	
CEN	0.186	0.221	0.070	0.281	0.220	0.245	0.181	0.896

Notes: Cronbach's alpha values shown on the diagonal

Values in italics are not statistically significant (p-value greater than 0.05)

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Measurement Model

Structural equation modeling employs a two-stage process to produce acceptable results.

First, the validity and reliability of the measurement model need to be checked. This was done through a confirmatory factor analysis (Jöreskog, 1993).

Validity

A valid construct is one that is actually measuring what it is supposed to be measuring, also referred to as construct validity. Convergent and discriminant validity are both considered subcategories or subtypes of construct validity. Convergent validity measures whether variables that are supposed to be related, are in fact, related. On the other hand, discriminant validity measures whether variables that are not supposed to be related, are in fact, not related.

First, convergent validity was assessed by examining the factor loadings of each latent variable. According to Kock (2020), “two criteria are recommended as the basis for concluding that a measurement model has acceptable convergent validity: that the P values associated with the loadings be equal to or lower than 0.05; and that the loadings be equal to or greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 1987, 2009; Kock, 2014)” (p. 87). However, this threshold only applies to reflective latent variables. While most constructs in this study are indeed reflective, peer motivating language and leader motivating language are formative constructs. Therefore, it is acceptable for these two formative variables to have factor loadings below the 0.5 threshold (Kock, 2020). Moreover, to assess convergent validity of peer motivating language and leader motivating language, the p-values of the indicator weights were examined, which all had values of less than 0.05 for both samples (Kock, 2014). Re-confirming the validity of the new peer ML concept is of special importance and confirms the findings of the initial scale validation phase of this study

Table 5.5 shows the factor loadings of each latent variable for the U.S. sample. All p-values associated with the loadings are statistically significant, i.e. they are equal to or lower than 0.05 (less than 0.001, in fact). Furthermore, all loadings have values greater than or equal to the threshold of 0.5. Hence, it can be concluded that the model has acceptable convergent validity. In other words, the survey respondents understood the questions relating to each variable in the same way as I intended them to be understood.

Table V.5

Factor Loadings and Cross-Loadings for U.S. Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN	p-value
PML-DG	0.922	-0.066	-0.067	0.075	-0.042	-0.044	-0.018	-0.038	<0.001
PML-EM	0.906	0.022	0.014	-0.008	0.095	0.030	0.035	0.063	<0.001
PML-MM	0.886	0.046	0.056	-0.070	-0.053	0.015	-0.017	-0.025	<0.001
LML-DG	-0.065	0.932	-0.026	0.016	0.031	-0.021	-0.016	-0.033	<0.001

(Continued)

Table V.5 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN	p-value
LML-EM	-0.134	0.924	-0.033	0.033	-0.002	0.097	0.022	0.030	<0.001
LML-MM	0.213	0.867	0.063	-0.051	-0.031	-0.081	-0.007	0.004	<0.001
AA1	-0.079	-0.055	0.877	-0.031	-0.036	0.141	0.000	-0.006	<0.001
AA2	-0.055	-0.072	0.901	0.015	-0.058	0.140	0.040	-0.002	<0.001
AA3	-0.206	0.223	0.768	-0.156	0.102	0.079	-0.118	0.003	<0.001
AA4	-0.188	0.204	0.778	-0.173	0.109	0.096	-0.071	-0.005	<0.001
AA5	0.049	-0.023	0.804	-0.048	0.196	-0.165	0.043	-0.007	<0.001
AA6	0.367	-0.238	0.495	0.040	0.313	-0.422	-0.024	0.002	<0.001
AA7	0.204	-0.103	0.506	0.293	-0.378	-0.052	0.095	0.010	<0.001
AA8	0.191	-0.058	0.516	0.269	-0.387	-0.033	0.075	0.017	<0.001
INS1	-0.156	0.153	-0.041	0.782	0.076	-0.076	0.102	-0.043	<0.001
INS4	0.016	-0.027	0.015	0.891	0.032	0.010	-0.083	0.029	<0.001
INS6	0.125	-0.113	0.023	0.853	-0.103	0.059	-0.007	0.009	<0.001
JS1	-0.037	0.015	0.007	-0.052	0.904	0.108	0.011	0.020	<0.001
JS2	0.058	-0.064	0.062	0.029	0.873	-0.012	-0.020	0.013	<0.001
JS3	-0.007	-0.013	-0.054	-0.059	0.887	-0.064	0.065	-0.023	<0.001
JS4	-0.013	0.061	-0.014	0.082	0.893	-0.034	-0.056	-0.010	<0.001
OC1	-0.065	-0.098	-0.055	-0.188	0.366	0.691	0.230	-0.081	<0.001
OC2	0.030	-0.043	0.028	-0.103	0.033	0.874	0.027	0.000	<0.001
OC4	0.214	-0.087	0.065	0.120	-0.059	0.734	-0.075	-0.029	<0.001
OC5	-0.029	0.002	-0.003	-0.044	-0.187	0.854	-0.021	0.000	<0.001
OC6	-0.028	-0.073	0.010	-0.055	-0.116	0.873	-0.035	0.000	<0.001
OC8	0.004	0.027	-0.020	-0.036	0.156	0.900	0.002	0.029	<0.001
OC10	-0.117	0.103	-0.005	0.075	-0.064	0.855	0.011	0.058	<0.001
OC13	-0.057	0.039	-0.027	-0.010	0.027	0.835	-0.016	-0.013	<0.001
OC14	0.062	0.098	0.005	0.222	-0.099	0.874	-0.088	0.015	<0.001
PER1	-0.156	0.126	-0.022	0.033	0.114	-0.026	0.647	0.060	<0.001
PER2	0.033	-0.046	0.007	-0.026	0.128	-0.097	0.855	0.010	<0.001
PER3	0.055	-0.019	0.019	0.030	-0.033	-0.044	0.856	0.066	<0.001
PER4	-0.049	0.067	-0.006	0.012	0.021	-0.104	0.826	0.034	<0.001
PER5	-0.113	0.116	0.014	-0.010	0.066	-0.039	0.783	-0.030	<0.001
PER6	0.065	-0.007	-0.048	0.007	-0.087	0.053	0.847	-0.051	<0.001
PER7	0.039	-0.027	-0.025	-0.017	-0.028	0.071	0.832	-0.035	<0.001
PER8	0.088	-0.065	0.029	-0.046	-0.102	0.118	0.805	-0.027	<0.001
PER9	-0.004	-0.117	0.030	0.024	-0.057	0.072	0.779	-0.018	<0.001
CEN1	0.026	-0.080	-0.006	-0.079	-0.064	0.118	0.029	0.850	<0.001
CEN2	-0.086	0.148	0.021	-0.127	0.138	0.147	0.036	0.810	<0.001
CEN3	-0.021	0.022	0.007	0.077	0.014	-0.114	-0.019	0.870	<0.001
CEN4	0.066	-0.064	-0.011	0.070	-0.033	-0.079	-0.054	0.906	<0.001
CEN5	0.007	-0.014	-0.008	0.043	-0.044	-0.054	0.014	0.909	<0.001

Notes: Factor loadings in bold
 PML = Peer motivating language
 LML = Leader motivating language
 AA = Actual absenteeism
 INS = Intent-to-stay
 JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

The same holds true for the convergent validity results from the Indian and the combined sample, which can be found in Table 5.6 and Table 5.7, respectively.

Table V.6

Factor Loadings and Cross-Loadings for Indian Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN	p-value
PML-DG	0.929	0.000	0.009	0.083	-0.002	-0.002	-0.067	-0.048	<0.001
PML-EM	0.909	-0.111	0.007	-0.085	-0.013	0.195	0.036	-0.012	<0.001
PML-MM	0.900	0.111	-0.016	0.001	0.015	-0.195	0.033	0.062	<0.001
LML-DG	0.045	0.944	-0.019	-0.022	-0.030	0.114	-0.007	0.000	<0.001
LML-EM	-0.032	0.927	0.000	-0.025	0.070	-0.008	-0.038	-0.040	<0.001
LML-MM	-0.013	0.920	0.020	0.048	-0.040	-0.108	0.046	0.040	<0.001
AA1	-0.053	0.116	0.524	-0.152	0.008	0.115	-0.009	0.021	<0.001
AA2	-0.060	-0.030	0.753	-0.204	0.012	0.161	0.080	0.022	<0.001
AA3	0.143	-0.050	0.750	0.042	-0.061	-0.030	-0.090	-0.040	<0.001
AA4	0.242	-0.222	0.762	-0.030	-0.110	0.064	-0.079	0.044	<0.001
AA5	-0.289	0.264	0.726	0.017	0.073	-0.089	0.086	-0.026	<0.001
AA6	-0.334	0.304	0.708	0.003	0.169	-0.145	0.108	-0.036	<0.001
AA7	0.184	-0.205	0.787	0.098	0.034	-0.039	-0.021	0.043	<0.001
AA8	0.104	-0.096	0.800	0.167	-0.103	-0.012	-0.063	-0.025	<0.001
INS1	0.243	-0.219	-0.131	0.582	0.271	0.307	-0.155	-0.092	<0.001
INS4	0.058	-0.029	0.019	0.843	-0.087	-0.067	0.043	0.048	<0.001
INS6	-0.230	0.183	0.073	0.828	-0.102	-0.148	0.065	0.016	<0.001
JS1	-0.034	0.043	-0.031	0.097	0.851	-0.028	-0.019	-0.010	<0.001
JS2	-0.126	0.117	0.027	-0.095	0.808	-0.062	0.027	0.043	<0.001
JS3	0.004	-0.023	-0.025	-0.055	0.814	0.139	0.042	-0.032	<0.001
JS4	0.154	-0.136	0.030	0.046	0.828	-0.047	-0.048	0.000	<0.001
OC1	-0.119	-0.045	-0.095	-0.169	0.384	0.771	0.213	0.004	<0.001

(Continued)

Table V.6 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN	p-value
OC2	-0.046	0.019	-0.013	-0.111	0.081	0.858	0.008	0.076	<0.001
OC4	-0.016	0.175	0.043	0.172	-0.102	0.752	-0.077	0.002	<0.001
OC5	0.081	0.001	-0.047	0.090	-0.035	0.816	-0.073	-0.035	<0.001
OC6	0.019	-0.018	-0.042	-0.130	0.053	0.828	-0.021	-0.008	<0.001
OC8	0.029	-0.018	0.044	-0.039	-0.114	0.840	-0.042	-0.017	<0.001
OC10	0.057	-0.076	-0.008	-0.046	-0.050	0.785	-0.023	0.000	<0.001
OC13	0.008	-0.112	-0.004	-0.025	-0.047	0.735	0.072	0.028	<0.001
OC14	-0.019	0.077	0.131	0.294	-0.184	0.738	-0.048	-0.055	<0.001
PE1	-0.072	0.168	-0.097	-0.033	0.017	0.106	0.696	-0.012	<0.001
PE2	0.033	-0.010	0.014	-0.076	0.008	0.091	0.708	0.040	<0.001
PE3	-0.076	0.033	-0.072	-0.044	0.037	-0.018	0.761	-0.006	<0.001
PE4	-0.136	0.012	-0.038	0.101	0.000	-0.017	0.740	-0.013	<0.001
PE5	0.070	-0.114	0.100	0.061	-0.063	-0.064	0.762	0.019	<0.001
PE6	0.119	-0.096	0.134	0.008	0.045	-0.094	0.713	0.053	<0.001
PE7	0.151	-0.098	0.024	-0.045	-0.007	0.017	0.736	-0.043	<0.001
PE8	-0.142	0.078	-0.050	-0.037	0.102	-0.035	0.756	0.020	<0.001
PE9	0.063	0.035	-0.017	0.065	-0.148	0.026	0.686	-0.061	<0.001
CEN1	-0.034	-0.058	0.027	0.005	0.056	-0.057	0.055	0.816	<0.001
CEN2	-0.026	0.125	0.059	-0.164	0.088	0.176	-0.032	0.734	<0.001
CEN3	-0.013	-0.015	-0.023	0.000	-0.031	0.073	-0.024	0.817	<0.001
CEN4	-0.009	0.030	0.000	0.095	-0.013	-0.147	0.014	0.818	<0.001
CEN5	0.077	-0.068	-0.055	0.046	-0.089	-0.026	-0.015	0.841	<0.001

Notes: Factor loadings in bold

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.7

Factor Loadings and Cross-Loadings for Combined Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PE	CEN	p-value
PML-DG	0.924	-0.049	-0.050	0.082	-0.035	-0.037	-0.037	-0.031	<0.001
PML-EM	0.907	-0.014	-0.017	-0.040	0.042	0.111	0.050	0.043	<0.001
PML-MM	0.889	0.065	0.069	-0.045	-0.007	-0.075	-0.012	-0.012	<0.001

(Continued)

Table V.7 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PE	CEN	p-value
LML-DG	-0.032	0.934	-0.062	0.017	-0.010	0.033	-0.004	-0.006	<0.001
LML-EM	-0.136	0.924	-0.048	0.021	0.020	0.051	0.008	0.020	<0.001
LML-MM	0.177	0.875	0.117	-0.041	-0.010	-0.089	-0.003	-0.015	<0.001
AA1	-0.062	0.007	0.700	-0.096	0.013	0.138	0.009	-0.015	<0.001
AA2	-0.057	-0.076	0.832	-0.090	-0.001	0.165	0.065	-0.012	<0.001
AA3	-0.032	0.097	0.758	-0.048	0.008	0.033	-0.081	-0.010	<0.001
AA4	0.004	0.037	0.777	-0.057	-0.016	0.058	-0.051	0.018	<0.001
AA5	-0.066	0.097	0.782	-0.036	0.119	-0.106	0.053	-0.033	<0.001
AA6	-0.024	0.071	0.674	-0.003	0.190	-0.224	0.008	-0.028	<0.001
AA7	0.148	-0.150	0.704	0.172	-0.119	-0.066	0.011	0.048	<0.001
AA8	0.106	-0.088	0.714	0.184	-0.196	-0.033	-0.020	0.034	<0.001
INS1	-0.100	0.046	-0.164	0.703	0.159	0.076	0.051	-0.059	<0.001
INS4	0.044	-0.026	0.035	0.870	-0.020	-0.027	-0.040	0.037	<0.001
INS6	0.038	-0.012	0.102	0.835	-0.113	-0.036	0.000	0.011	<0.001
JS1	-0.028	0.019	-0.011	0.012	0.881	0.049	-0.001	0.019	<0.001
JS2	-0.004	0.007	0.064	-0.040	0.844	-0.022	-0.010	0.004	<0.001
JS3	-0.007	-0.009	-0.029	-0.059	0.855	0.017	0.056	-0.028	<0.001
JS4	0.040	-0.017	-0.023	0.085	0.861	-0.045	-0.045	0.004	<0.001
OC1	-0.066	-0.093	-0.103	-0.173	0.359	0.721	0.221	-0.046	<0.001
OC2	0.013	-0.027	0.020	-0.117	0.060	0.867	0.010	0.027	<0.001
OC4	0.149	0.026	0.125	0.115	-0.052	0.734	-0.090	-0.040	<0.001
OC5	0.017	0.002	-0.047	0.020	-0.126	0.835	-0.036	-0.001	<0.001
OC6	-0.020	-0.056	-0.048	-0.093	-0.042	0.850	-0.023	-0.004	<0.001
OC8	0.004	0.014	0.022	-0.033	0.039	0.876	-0.011	0.021	<0.001
OC10	-0.091	0.043	-0.049	0.029	-0.056	0.820	0.015	0.044	<0.001
OC13	-0.038	-0.015	-0.020	0.008	-0.021	0.795	0.013	0.003	<0.001
OC14	0.039	0.100	0.101	0.248	-0.127	0.819	-0.079	-0.015	<0.001
PE1	-0.139	0.145	-0.124	-0.010	0.059	0.061	0.665	0.030	<0.001
PE2	0.029	-0.036	0.029	-0.055	0.089	-0.017	0.785	0.026	<0.001
PE3	0.000	0.004	-0.015	-0.040	0.015	-0.008	0.809	0.014	<0.001
PE4	-0.063	0.021	-0.026	0.025	0.013	-0.052	0.785	0.020	<0.001
PE5	-0.033	0.031	0.059	0.059	-0.015	-0.058	0.773	-0.012	<0.001
PE6	0.093	-0.052	0.044	0.043	-0.051	-0.031	0.786	0.008	<0.001
PE7	0.067	-0.046	0.006	-0.012	-0.012	0.028	0.786	-0.033	<0.001
PE8	0.018	-0.013	0.004	-0.066	0.003	0.052	0.781	-0.021	<0.001
PE9	0.007	-0.034	0.004	0.059	-0.098	0.036	0.738	-0.030	<0.001
CEN1	0.022	-0.085	0.006	-0.026	-0.028	0.036	0.026	0.832	<0.001
CEN2	-0.099	0.159	0.028	-0.133	0.109	0.159	0.009	0.778	<0.001
CEN3	-0.026	0.016	0.000	0.034	0.008	-0.036	-0.009	0.847	<0.001

(Continued)

Table V.7 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PE	CEN	p-value
CEN4	0.058	-0.038	0.005	0.059	-0.016	-0.094	-0.030	0.867	<0.001
CEN5	0.034	-0.038	-0.035	0.052	-0.062	-0.048	0.006	0.878	<0.001

Notes: Factor loadings in bold

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Second, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the square roots of the average variance extracted (AVE) against the correlations among latent variables. Table 5.8 shows the latent variable correlations, with the square roots of the average variances extracted on the diagonal for the U.S. sample. Discriminant validity is given if all values on the diagonal are greater than any of the values above or below them, in the same column (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kock, 2015; Kock & Lynn, 2012). Table 5.8 shows that this is the case for the U.S. sample. Hence, it can be concluded that the model has acceptable discriminant validity. In other words, the survey respondents did not confuse the meaning of questions relating to each latent variable with questions relating to other latent variables.

Table V.8**Correlations among Latent Variables with Square Roots of AVEs for U.S. Sample**

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.905	0.779	0.090	0.309	0.502	0.534	0.365	0.196
LML	0.779	0.908	0.063	0.416	0.578	0.618	0.402	0.269
AA	0.090	0.063	0.724	-0.005	-0.007	0.015	-0.003	0.026
INS	0.309	0.416	-0.005	0.844	0.650	0.700	0.259	0.256
JS	0.502	0.578	-0.007	0.650	0.889	0.819	0.407	0.314
OC	0.534	0.618	0.015	0.700	0.819	0.835	0.389	0.320

(Continued)

Table V.8 Continued

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PER	0.365	0.402	-0.003	0.259	0.407	0.389	0.805	0.303
CEN	0.196	0.269	0.026	0.256	0.314	0.320	0.303	0.870

Notes: Square roots of AVEs shown on the diagonal

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

The same holds true for the discriminant validity results from the Indian and the combined sample, which can be found in Table 5.9 and Table 5.10, respectively.

Table V.9**Correlations among Latent Variables with Square Roots of AVEs for Indian Sample**

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.913	0.808	-0.168	0.468	0.575	0.622	0.535	0.209
LML	0.808	0.931	-0.170	0.415	0.563	0.623	0.461	0.188
AA	-0.168	-0.170	0.731	-0.041	-0.280	-0.243	-0.241	0.208
INS	0.468	0.415	-0.041	0.761	0.525	0.595	0.242	0.324
JS	0.575	0.563	-0.280	0.525	0.825	0.786	0.500	0.114
OC	0.622	0.623	-0.243	0.595	0.786	0.793	0.522	0.161
PER	0.535	0.461	-0.241	0.242	0.500	0.522	0.729	0.016
CEN	0.209	0.188	0.208	0.324	0.114	0.161	0.016	0.806

Notes: Square roots of AVEs shown on the diagonal

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.10

Correlations among Latent Variables with Square Roots of AVEs for Combined Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
PML	0.907	0.793	0.014	0.367	0.535	0.571	0.427	0.186
LML	0.793	0.911	-0.001	0.412	0.574	0.622	0.418	0.221
AA	0.014	-0.001	0.744	-0.034	-0.107	-0.081	-0.124	0.070
INS	0.367	0.412	-0.034	0.806	0.601	0.662	0.253	0.281
JS	0.535	0.574	-0.107	0.601	0.860	0.806	0.443	0.220
OC	0.571	0.622	-0.081	0.662	0.806	0.815	0.442	0.245
PER	0.427	0.418	-0.124	0.253	0.443	0.442	0.769	0.181
CEN	0.186	0.221	0.070	0.281	0.220	0.245	0.181	0.841

Notes: Square roots of AVEs shown on the diagonal

PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

AA = Actual absenteeism

INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction

OC = Organizational commitment

PER = Performance

CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Reliability

It is essential to evaluate each scale's reliability in order to ensure the overall quality of the measurements or scales used. To do so two coefficients of reliability were used: the composite reliability and the Cronbach's alpha. Both measures were examined and compared to the empirically proven threshold of 0.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kock, 2014; Kock & Lynn, 2012; Nunnally, 1978; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Table 5.11 shows that, for the U.S. sample, each measure meets this threshold. Hence, it can be concluded that all scales have acceptable reliability.

As for the Indian sample, all measures meet the threshold except for the Cronbach's alpha for the Intent-to-Stay scale, which is 0.625. However, while it does not meet the 0.7 threshold, the composite reliability factor of 0.801 does, which suffices to establish acceptable

scale reliability (Kock & Lynn, 2012). Kock (2020) states, “the more relaxed version of this criterion, which is widely used, is that one of the two coefficients should be equal to or greater than 0.7 (Kock & Lynn, 2012). This typically applies to the composite reliability coefficient, which is usually the higher of the two (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kock & Lynn, 2012). An even more relaxed version sets this threshold at 0.6 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Kock & Lynn, 2012)” (p. 94). The reliability results for the Indian sample can be found in Table 5.12. Lastly, all scales for the combined sample show acceptable reliability as shown in Table 5.13. Re-confirming the reliability of the peer ML scale is of special importance and confirms the findings of the initial scale validation phase of this study.

Table V.11

Composite Reliability and Cronbach’s Alpha for U.S. Sample

	PML-DG	PML-MM	PML-EM	LML-DG	LML-MM	LML-EM	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Composite Reliability	0.955	0.930	0.922	0.952	0.947	0.935	0.893	0.881	0.938	0.954	0.943	0.939
Cronbach's Alpha	0.948	0.913	0.898	0.944	0.935	0.914	0.860	0.796	0.912	0.945	0.931	0.919

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language- direction-giving
 PML-MM = Peer motivating language- meaning-making
 PML-EM = Peer motivating language- empathetic
 LML-DG = Leader motivating language- direction-giving
 LML-MM = Leader motivating language- meaning-making
 LML-EM = Leader motivating language- empathetic
 AA = Actual absenteeism
 INS = Intent-to-stay
 JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.12**Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha for Indian Sample**

	PML-DG	PML-MM	PML-EM	LML-DG	LML-MM	LML-EM	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Composite Reliability	0.921	0.893	0.881	0.917	0.906	0.893	0.901	0.801	0.895	0.938	0.911	0.902
Cronbach's Alpha	0.904	0.863	0.838	0.899	0.881	0.856	0.873	0.625	0.844	0.925	0.890	0.864

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language- direction-giving
PML-MM = Peer motivating language- meaning-making
PML-EM = Peer motivating language- empathetic
LML-DG = Leader motivating language- direction-giving
LML-MM = Leader motivating language- meaning-making
LML-EM = Leader motivating language- empathetic
AA = Actual absenteeism
INS = Intent-to-stay
JS = Job satisfaction
OC = Organizational commitment
PER = Performance
CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.13**Composite Reliability and Cronbach's Alpha for Combined Sample**

	PML-DG	PML-MM	PML-EM	LML-DG	LML-MM	LML-EM	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Composite Reliability	0.941	0.918	0.903	0.938	0.936	0.916	0.908	0.846	0.919	0.946	0.928	0.923
Cronbach's Alpha	0.931	0.897	0.871	0.926	0.921	0.889	0.884	0.726	0.883	0.936	0.913	0.896

Notes: PML-DG = Peer motivating language- direction-giving
PML-MM = Peer motivating language- meaning-making
PML-EM = Peer motivating language- empathetic
LML-DG = Leader motivating language- direction-giving
LML-MM = Leader motivating language- meaning-making
LML-EM = Leader motivating language- empathetic
AA = Actual absenteeism
INS = Intent-to-stay

JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Common Method Bias

Due to the research design of the current study (i.e. single informant), common method bias may be a potential risk factor. Common method bias is defined as, “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879). Studies in social science research often face this issue. This study uses data that were collected from a single source, i.e. all questions pertaining to each construct were answered by the same person. Moreover, the study uses self-reported data, which may lead to issues such as survey takers making connections between items and start answering questions based on previous questions. This may introduce social desirability bias – a respondent’s tendency to answer questions in a way that will be viewed favorably by others (Fisher, 1993).

To control for common method bias, two ex-ante techniques and one ex-post analysis were used. First, when designing the survey, questions related to employee outcomes were placed before questions relating to the use of peer motivating language and leader motivating language to reduce social desirability bias. The second ex-ante technique involved providing a brief cover statement in front of each set of questions relating to a construct, to provide a psychological separation between each construct (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Hence, possible contextual cues from previous questions were avoided.

Lastly, an ex-post analysis was conducted to determine whether common method bias is present in the study, namely a full collinearity variance inflation factors (VIF) test, which calculates the VIFs of each variable in the model (Kock, 2015). Table 5.14 presents the correlations among VIFs and latent variable error terms for the U.S. sample. VIF values lower

than 3.3, or a more conservative measure of less than 5, indicate that there is no common method bias present (Hair et al., 1987, 2009; Kline, 1998; Kock, 2014, 2015; Kock & Lynn, 2012).

All values shown in Table 5.14 meet these thresholds. The same holds true for the results of the Indian and the combined sample shown in Table 5.15 and Table 5.16, respectively. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the data do not suffer from common method bias.

Table V.14

Full Collinearity Variance Inflation Factors for U.S. Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Full Collin. VIF	2.666	3.066	1.015	2.082	3.341	4.004	1.361	1.178

Notes: PML = Peer motivating language
 LML = Leader motivating language
 AA = Actual absenteeism
 INS = Intent-to-stay
 JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.15

Full Collinearity Variance Inflation Factors for Indian Sample

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Full Collin. VIF	3.427	3.207	1.198	1.852	2.849	3.477	1.641	1.277

Notes: PML = Peer motivating language
 LML = Leader motivating language
 AA = Actual absenteeism
 INS = Intent-to-stay
 JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Table V.16**Full Collinearity Variance Inflation Factors for Combined Sample**

	PML	LML	AA	INS	JS	OC	PER	CEN
Full Collin. VIF	2.84	3.106	1.045	1.9	3.101	3.757	1.414	1.138

Notes: PML = Peer motivating language
 LML = Leader motivating language
 AA = Actual absenteeism
 INS = Intent-to-stay
 JS = Job satisfaction
 OC = Organizational commitment
 PER = Performance
 CEN = Centralized organizational structure

Multicollinearity

The data were further tested for multicollinearity issues, a situation that occurs when independent latent variables are highly correlated. Full collinearity variance inflation factors (VIFs) were used as a measure of multicollinearity among variables. This test measures both vertical (predictor-predictor) and lateral (predictor-criterion) collinearity, which makes it very comprehensive. The test calculates the VIFs of each latent variable, which are then used to determine the presence of multicollinearity. VIF values lower than 3.3, or a more conservative measure of less than 5, indicate the existence of no multicollinearity (Hair et al., 1987, 2009; Kline, 1998; Kock, 2014, 2015; Kock & Lynn, 2012). All values shown in Table 5.14 for the U.S. sample meet these thresholds. The same holds true for the results of the Indian and the combined sample shown in Table 5.15 and Table 5.16, respectively. Hence, based on these findings, it can be concluded that the data do not suffer from multicollinearity.

Structural Model

The second stage of the SEM analysis involves the structural analysis. To test the

proposed structural model an assessment of the model fit, and model quality needs to be conducted first in order to have a robust basis for subsequent hypotheses testing.

Model Fit

To determine the model's fit with the original data (i.e. the model's ability to reproduce data) several model fit indices were examined. These indices included the following: average path coefficient (APC), average R-squared (ARS), average adjusted R-squared (AARS), average block VIF (AVIF), average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF), and Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF). In order to have a good model fit, the p-values for APC, ARS, and AARS should be equal to or less than 0.05 (Kock, 2011). Next, the values for AVIF and AFVIF should have a value equal to or less than 5, ideally, equal to or less than 3.3 (Kock, 2020). Lastly, the Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit measures a model's explanatory power. It is small if equal to or greater than 0.1, medium if equal to or greater than 0.25, and large if equal to or greater than 0.36 (Wetzels et al., 2009).

The values for all indices meet the given thresholds, which means that all three models, i.e. the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model, have a good fit with the data. Specifically, APC, ARS, and AARS values had a p-value of less than 0.001 for each model. Next, the values for both AVIF and AFVIF were lower than 3.3 for all the three models. As for the Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit, the explanatory power was large with values exceeding the threshold of 0.36. The values for all model fit indices for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are shown in Table 5.17, Table 5.18, and Table 5.19, respectively.

Table V.17**Model Fit Indices for U.S. Model**

Model Fit Indices	Value	Recommendation
Average Path Coefficient (APC)	0.187 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average R-Squared (ARS)	0.317 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Adjusted R-Squared (AARS)	0.313 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Block VIF (AVIF)	1.823	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Average Full Collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	2.196	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF)	0.489	small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36

Table V.18**Model Fit Indices for Indian Model**

Model Fit Indices	Value	Recommendation
Average Path Coefficient (APC)	0.236 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average R-Squared (ARS)	0.349 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Adjusted R-Squared (AARS)	0.345 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Block VIF (AVIF)	2.045	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Average Full Collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	2.234	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF)	0.495	small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36

Table V.19**Model Fit Indices for Combined Model**

Model Fit Indices	Value	Recommendation
Average Path Coefficient (APC)	0.201 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average R-Squared (ARS)	0.332 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Adjusted R-Squared (AARS)	0.330 (p<0.001)	p<0.05
Average Block VIF (AVIF)	1.864	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Average Full Collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	2.153	acceptable if ≤ 5 , ideally ≤ 3.3
Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF)	0.492	small ≥ 0.1 , medium ≥ 0.25 , large ≥ 0.36

Model Quality

Besides analyzing the model's fit, it is essential to analyze its quality. Several indices

were used to conduct this assessment, namely Simpson's Paradox ratio (SPR), R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR), statistical suppression ratio (SSR), and nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR). The SPR is "a measure of the extent to which a model is free from Simpson's paradox instances ... Simpson's paradox occurs when a path coefficient and a correlation associated with a pair of linked variables have different signs" (Kock, 2020, p. 80). The SPR value is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.7, "meaning that at least 70 percent of the paths in a model are free from Simpson's paradox" (Kock, 2020, p. 80). Ideally, the value should equal 1; hence, there would be no instances of Simpson's paradox in the model. The SPR values for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are 0.952, 0.857, 0.952, respectively. Hence, the occurrence of Simpson's paradox in the models is very low. Next, the RSCR index is "a measure of the extent to which a model is free from negative R-squared contributions, which occur together with Simpson's paradox instances" (Kock, 2020, p. 80). The RSCR value is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.9, "meaning that the sum of positive R-squared contributions in a model makes up at least 90 percent of the total sum of the absolute R-squared contributions in the model" (Kock, 2020, p. 80). Ideally, the value should equal 1, hence, there would be no negative R-squared contributions in the model. The RSCR values for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are 0.995, 0.932, 1.000, respectively. Therefore, there are almost no negative R-squared contributions in the models; in fact, there are none in the combined model. Moreover, the SSR is "a measure of the extent to which a model is free from statistical suppression instances ... An instance of statistical suppression occurs when a path coefficient is greater, in absolute terms, than the corresponding correlation associated with a pair of linked variables" (Kock, 2020, p. 80). The SSR value is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.7, "meaning that at least 70 percent of the paths in a model are free from statistical suppression"

(Kock, 2020, p. 80).

The SSR values for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are 0.952, 1.000, 0.952, respectively. Hence, the models are almost free from statistical suppression, in fact, the Indian model is completely free from it. Lastly, NLBCDR is “a measure of the extent to which bivariate nonlinear coefficients of association provide support for the hypothesized directions of the causal links in a model” (Kock, 2020, p. 81). The NLBCDR value is acceptable if it is equal to or greater than 0.7, “meaning that in at least 70 percent of path-related instances in a model the support for the reversed hypothesized direction of causality is weak or less” (Kock, 2020, p. 81). The NLBCDR values for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are 0.714, 0.786, 0.690, respectively. Hence, the U.S. and Indian models meet this threshold. The threshold is just closely met for the combined model. Overall, based on the previous analysis, all three models have good quality. The values for all model quality indices for the U.S., the Indian, and the combined model are shown in Table 5.20, Table 5.21, and Table 5.22, respectively.

Table V.20

Model Quality Indices for U.S. Model

Model Quality Indices	Value	Recommendation
Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)	0.952	acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1
R-Squared Contribution Ratio (RSCR)	0.995	acceptable if ≥ 0.9 , ideally = 1
Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)	0.952	acceptable if ≥ 0.7
Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)	0.714	acceptable if ≥ 0.7

Table V.21

Model Quality Indices for Indian Model

Model Quality Indices	Value	Recommendation
Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)	0.857	acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1
R-Squared Contribution Ratio (RSCR)	0.932	acceptable if ≥ 0.9 , ideally = 1

(Continued)

Table V.21 Continued

Model Quality Indices	Value	Recommendation
Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)	1.000	acceptable if ≥ 0.7
Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)	0.786	acceptable if ≥ 0.7

Table V.22**Model Quality Indices for Combined Model**

Model Quality Indices	Value	Recommendation
Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)	0.952	acceptable if ≥ 0.7 , ideally = 1
R-Squared Contribution Ratio (RSCR)	1.000	acceptable if ≥ 0.9 , ideally = 1
Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)	0.952	acceptable if ≥ 0.7
Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)	0.690	acceptable if ≥ 0.7

Hypotheses Testing**Country Comparison**

As the first step in my hypotheses testing, I analyzed whether the two samples statistically differ from each other. I ran a multi-group analysis to conduct a path coefficient comparison using the constrained latent growth method. The path coefficients for the U.S. model and for the Indian model (complete models that include all variables) can be seen in Table 5.23. While differences in path coefficients for both samples become clear, it is important to check whether these differences are statistically significant.

Using the constrained latent growth method allowed me to examine this. The results are also presented in Table 5.23 and show that there are in fact statistically significant differences in several path coefficients between the U.S. and Indian model as seen in the statistically significant p-values marked in bold. Almost all p-values for the links between peer motivating language and the employee outcomes show statistically significant differences between both samples (the p-

value for the link between peer ML and organizational commitment would be statistically significant at a p-value of less than 0.1). The opposite is true for the p-values for the links between leader motivating language and the employee outcomes, which show no statistically significant differences between both samples, except for the link between leader ML and actual absenteeism. Lastly, only one p-value for the moderating effects of peer ML on the relationships between leader ML and the employee outcomes shows a statistically significant difference between both samples, i.e. for the effect of peer ML on the relationship between leader ML and actual absenteeism. Based on this country comparison, it can be concluded that hypothesis 4, which stated that there will be a difference in the models between the two national settings, is supported. Therefore, it is essential to further examine the discussed differences in relationships among the variables by looking at each sample individually. This will result in rich findings. Hence, the next sections will focus on the U.S. sample and the Indian sample separately.

Table V.23

Path Coefficient Comparison using Constrained Latent Growth Method

	United States	India	Constrained Latent Growth Method
	Path Coefficient	Path Coefficient	p-value
Leader Motivating Language			
Actual Absenteeism	-0.09	-0.10	<0.001***
Intent-to-Stay	0.37	0.11	0.399 ^{NS}
Job Satisfaction	0.40	0.25	0.347 ^{NS}
Organizational Commitment	0.45	0.33	0.364 ^{NS}
Performance	0.23	0.08	0.071 ^{NS}
Peer Motivating Language	0.78	0.81	0.269 ^{NS}
Peer Motivating Language			
Actual Absenteeism	0.05	-0.09	<0.001***
Intent-to-Stay	0.01	0.22	0.011*
Job Satisfaction	0.16	0.24	0.043*
Organizational Commitment	0.16	0.25	0.055 ^{NS}
Performance	0.17	0.39	<0.001***

(Continued)

Table V.23 Continued

	United States	India	Constrained Latent Growth Method
	Path Coefficient	Path Coefficient	p-value
PML*LML			
Actual Absenteeism	0.01	0.13	0.016*
Intent-to-Stay	-0.06	-0.23	0.473 ^{NS}
Job Satisfaction	-0.08	-0.24	0.189 ^{NS}
Organizational Commitment	-0.08	-0.20	0.151 ^{NS}
Performance	0.04	0.18	0.286 ^{NS}
Control Variable:			
Centralized Organizational Structure			
Actual Absenteeism	0.00	0.31	0.001**
Intent-to-Stay	0.18	0.30	0.364 ^{NS}
Job Satisfaction	0.21	-0.20	<0.001***
Organizational Commitment	0.17	0.12	0.002**
Performance	0.23	-0.18	<0.001***

Notes: PML = Peer motivating language

LML = Leader motivating language

* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; NS = not statistically significant

LML and Employee Outcomes

As a second step, I ran a model with only leader ML included as an independent variable as well as the five employee outcomes as dependent variables, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. For reasons of parsimony, the control variable is not shown in any of the forthcoming models; however, its path coefficients for the complete models can be found in Table 5.23. This analysis serves as a validity check to see whether the relationships between leader ML and the employee outcomes for this study mirror results from previous empirical studies. The results show that this is the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample. All links are statistically significant and similar to previous findings. Specifically, for both samples, a leader's use of ML positively correlates with a follower's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance.

Moreover, for the Indian sample, leader ML negatively correlates with a follower's actual absenteeism. However, this link has no practical significance for the U.S. sample due to its low effect size of 0.013, which is below the recommended threshold of 0.02. Hence, it is assumed to be zero.

The effect size is “a measure of the magnitude of an effect that is independent of the size of the sample analyzed” (Kock, 2020, p. 130). Certain thresholds exist that show whether the effects indicated by path coefficients are small, medium, or large. Recommended values are 0.02 for a small effect, 0.15 for a medium effect, and 0.35 for a large effect. “Values below 0.02 suggest effects that are too weak to be considered relevant from a practical point of view, even when the corresponding P values are statistically significant; a situation that may occur with large sample sizes ” (Kock, 2020, p. 130). The effect sizes for all other path coefficients meet the 0.02 threshold as shown in Table 5.24. The results for both the U.S. and the Indian sample can be seen in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, respectively.

Table V.24

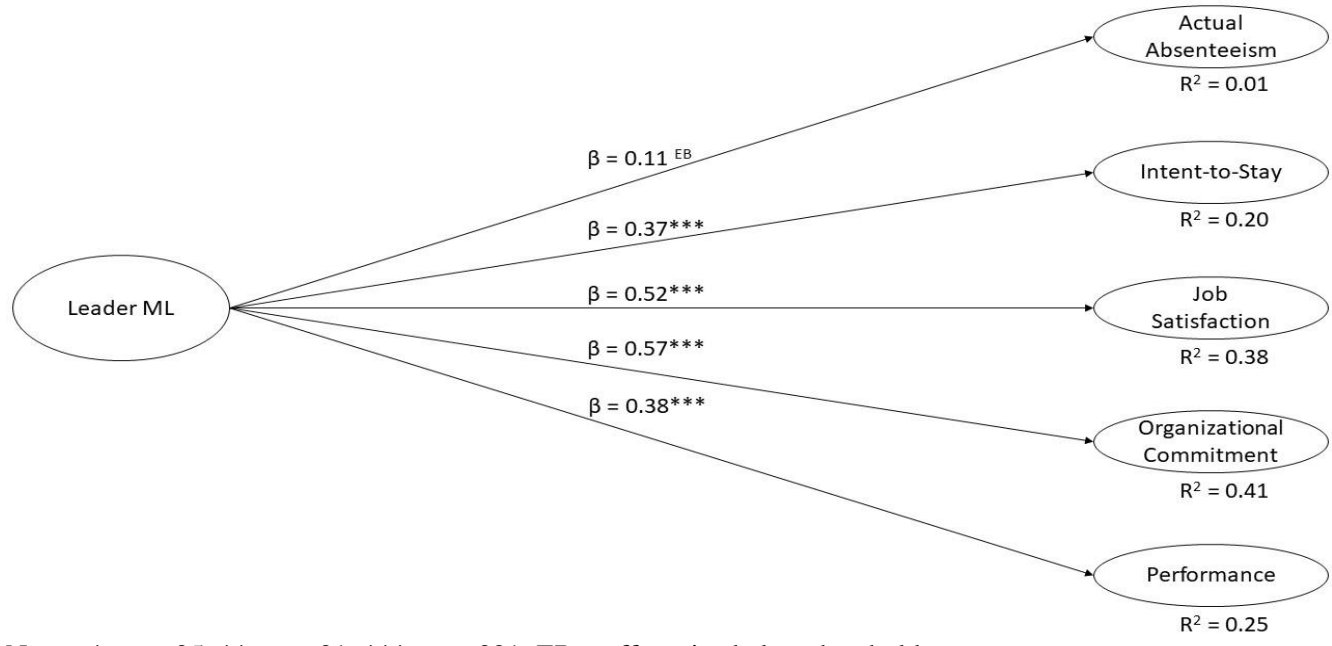
Path Coefficients and Effect Sizes for LML and Employee Outcomes

	United States		India	
	Path Coefficient	Effect Size	Path Coefficient	Effect Size
Peer Motivating Language				
Actual Absenteeism	0.11 ^{EB}	0.013	-0.25***	0.057
Intent-to-Stay	0.37***	0.155	0.40 ***	0.175
Job Satisfaction	0.52***	0.303	0.54***	0.303
Organizational Commitment	0.57***	0.352	0.61***	0.381
Performance	0.38***	0.172	0.45***	0.215

Notes: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; EB = effect size below threshold

Figure V.1

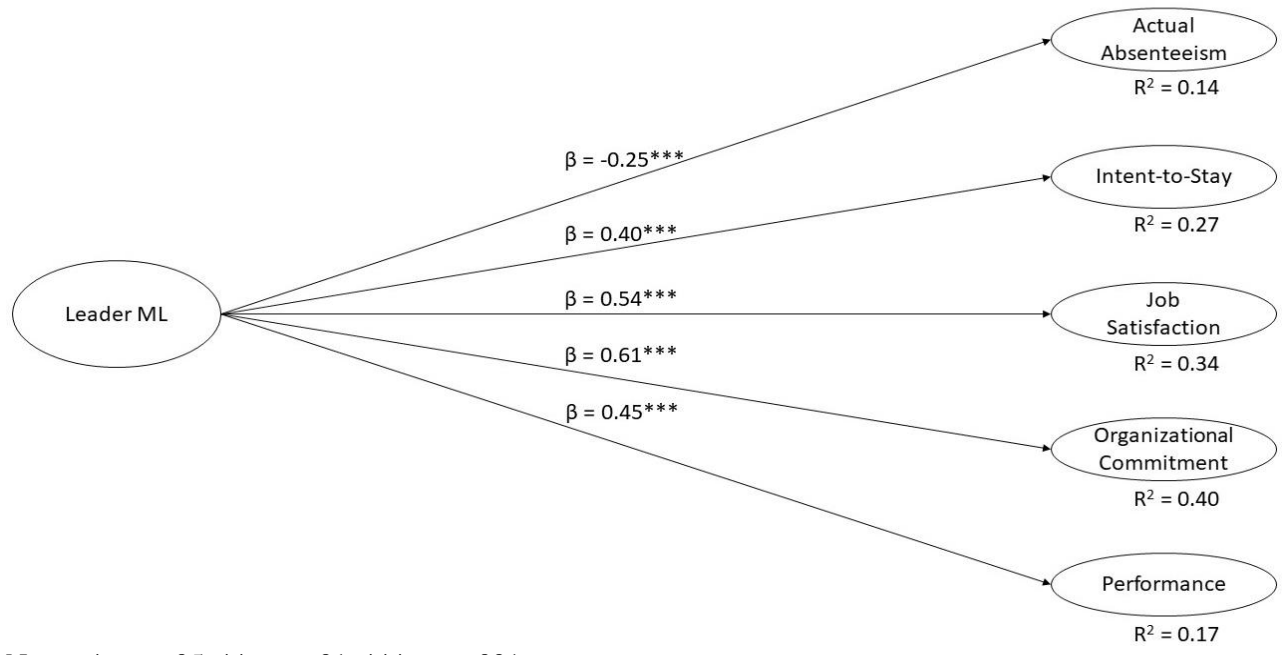
LML and Employee Outcomes for U.S. Sample



Notes: * = p<.05; ** = p<.01; *** = p<.001; EB = effect size below threshold

Figure V.2

LML and Employee Outcomes for Indian Sample



Notes: * = p<.05; ** = p<.01; *** = p<.001

PML and Employee Outcomes

As a third step, I ran a model with only peer ML included as an independent variable as well as the five employee outcomes as dependent variables, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. This was done to examine the effects of peer motivating language on the employee outcomes not taking anything else into consideration. Results show that there is, in fact, a correlation between peer ML and the outcomes, which further provides support for the importance of the peer ML construct itself. This is the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample, as can be seen in Figure 5.3 and Figure 5.4, respectively. All links are statistically significant and similar to findings related to the use of leader ML. Specifically, for both samples, a peers' use of ML positively correlates with a worker's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Moreover, for the Indian sample, peer ML negatively correlates with a worker's actual absenteeism. However, this link has no practical significance for the U.S. sample due to its low effect size of 0.008, which is below the recommended threshold of 0.02. Hence, it is assumed to be zero. The effect sizes for all other path coefficients meet the 0.02 threshold and are shown in Table 5.25.

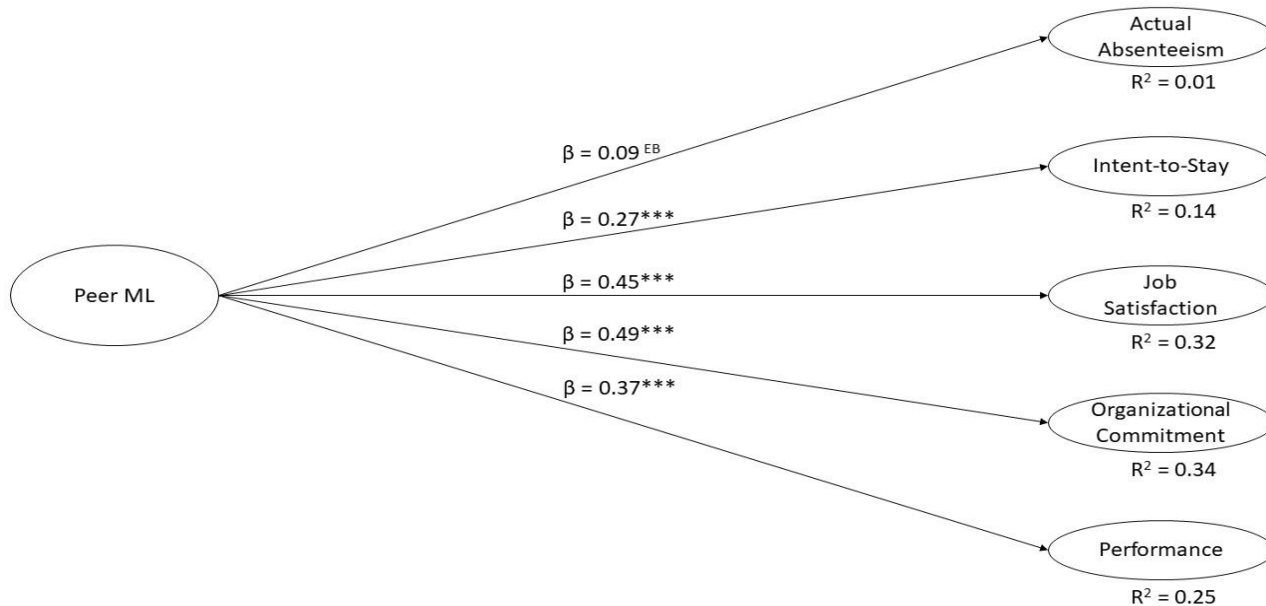
Table V.25

Path Coefficients and Effect Sizes for PML and Employee Outcomes

	United States		India	
	Path Coefficient	Effect Size	Path Coefficient	Effect Size
Peer Motivating Language				
Actual Absenteeism	0.09 ^{EB}	0.008	-0.25***	0.053
Intent-to-Stay	0.27***	0.082	0.44***	0.211
Job Satisfaction	0.45***	0.228	0.56***	0.325
Organizational Commitment	0.49***	0.261	0.61***	0.384
Performance	0.37***	0.157	0.54***	0.308

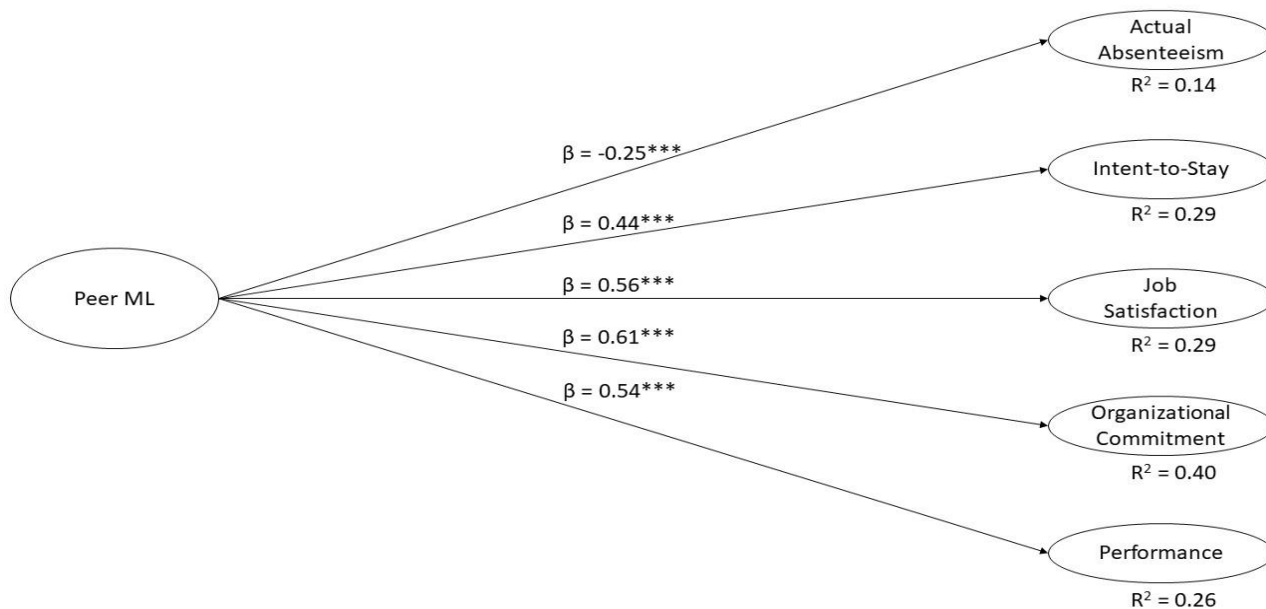
Notes: * = p<.05; ** = p<.01; *** = p<.001; EB = effect size below threshold

Figure V.3
PML and Employee Outcomes for U.S. Sample



Notes: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; EB = effect size below threshold

Figure V.4
PML and Employee Outcomes for Indian Sample



Notes: * = $P < .05$; ** = $P < .01$; *** = $P < .001$

Complete Model

As a fourth step, I ran the complete model with both peer ML and leader ML included as independent variables as well as the five employee outcomes as dependent variables, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance, as hypothesized in this study. Additionally, the exploratory link between leader ML and peer ML was included in the model to examine research question 3.

The first set of hypotheses, i.e. hypotheses 1a-1e proposed links between a leader's use of ML and the five employee outcomes. Hypothesis 1a proposed that leader ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism. For the U.S. sample, the beta coefficient (-0.09) for this link has an effect size of 0.01, which translates into no practical significance. Hence, it is assumed to be zero. Furthermore, it presents a case of Simpson's paradox, as its correlation is positive, yet its beta coefficient has a negative value. Therefore, for the U.S. sample, hypothesis 1a is not supported. However, for the Indian sample, hypothesis 1a is supported ($\beta = -0.10$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that higher use of a leader's motivating language negatively relates to a follower's actual absenteeism at work.

Next, hypothesis 1b proposed that leader ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay. The SEM analysis shows that this link has a statistically significant beta coefficient of 0.37 ($p < 0.001$) for the U.S. sample. Therefore, hypothesis 1b is supported for the U.S. sample. It is also supported for the Indian sample ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 1c proposed that greater levels of a leader's use of ML are associated with greater levels of a worker's job satisfaction. Results show this to be the case for both the U.S.

and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.40 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.25 ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Hence, hypothesis 1c is supported for both samples.

Hypothesis 1d proposed that leader ML would be positively related to a worker's organizational commitment. This hypothesis is supported for both the U.S. sample and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.45 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.33 ($p < 0.01$), respectively.

Moreover, Hypothesis 1e proposed that greater levels of a leader's use of ML are associated with greater levels of a worker's performance. Results show this to be the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.23 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.08 ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Hence, hypothesis 1e is supported for both samples.

The second set of hypotheses, i.e. hypotheses 2a-2e proposed links between peers' use of ML and the five employee outcomes. Hypothesis 2a proposed that peer ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism. For the U.S. sample, the beta coefficient (0.05) for this link is not statistically significant and it has an effect size of 0.004, which further translates into no practical significance. Therefore, for the U.S. sample, hypothesis 2a is not supported. However, for the Indian sample, hypothesis 2a is supported ($\beta = -0.09$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that higher use of peer motivating language negatively relates to a worker's actual absenteeism at work.

Next, hypothesis 2b proposed that peer ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay. The SEM analysis shows that this link has a statistically significant beta coefficient of 0.22 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 2b is supported for the Indian sample. However, it is not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta coefficient (0.01) for this link is not statistically significant and it has an effect size of 0.002, which further translates into no practical significance.

Hypothesis 2c proposed that greater levels of peers' use of ML are associated with greater levels of a worker's job satisfaction. Results show this to be the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.16 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.24 ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Hence, hypothesis 2c is supported for both samples.

Hypothesis 2d proposed that peer ML would be positively related to a worker's organizational commitment. This hypothesis is supported for both the U.S. sample and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.16 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.25 ($p < 0.01$), respectively.

Furthermore, Hypothesis 2e proposed that greater levels of a peers' use of ML are associated with greater levels of a worker's performance. Results show this to be the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample with a beta coefficient of 0.17 ($p < 0.001$) and 0.39 ($p < 0.01$), respectively. Hence, hypothesis 2e is supported for both samples.

The third set of hypotheses, i.e. hypotheses 3a-3e proposed moderating links between peer ML and the links between leader ML and the five employee outcomes. Hypothesis 3a proposed that peer ML positively moderates the relationship between leader ML and a worker's actual absenteeism. The SEM analysis shows that this link has a statistically significant beta coefficient of 0.13 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 3a is supported for the Indian sample. However, it is not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta coefficient (0.01) for this link is not statistically significant and it has an effect size of 0.000, which further translates into no practical significance.

Hypothesis 3b proposed that peers' use of ML negatively moderates the relationship between leader ML and a worker's intent-to-stay. Results show that this link has a statistically significant beta coefficient of -0.23 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 3b is supported for the Indian sample. However, it is not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta

coefficient (-0.06) for this link is not statistically significant and it has an effect size of 0.005, which further translates into no practical significance.

Next, hypothesis 3c proposed that peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between leader ML and a worker's job satisfaction. Results show that this link has a statistically significant beta coefficient of -0.24 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 3c is supported for the Indian sample. However, it is not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta coefficient (-0.08) for this link has an effect size of 0.005, which translates into no practical significance.

Moreover, hypothesis 3d proposed that peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between leader ML and a worker's organizational commitment. The findings show that this relationship has a statistically significant beta coefficient of -0.20 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 3d is supported for the Indian sample. However, it is not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta coefficient (-0.08) for this link has an effect size of 0.008, which translates into no practical significance.

Hypothesis 3e proposed that peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between leader ML and a worker's performance. Results show that this link has a positive statistically significant beta coefficient of 0.18 ($p < 0.01$) for the Indian sample. Therefore, hypothesis 3c is not supported for the Indian sample. It is also not supported for the U.S. sample since the beta coefficient (0.04) for this link is not statistically significant and it has an effect size of 0.005, which translates into no practical significance.

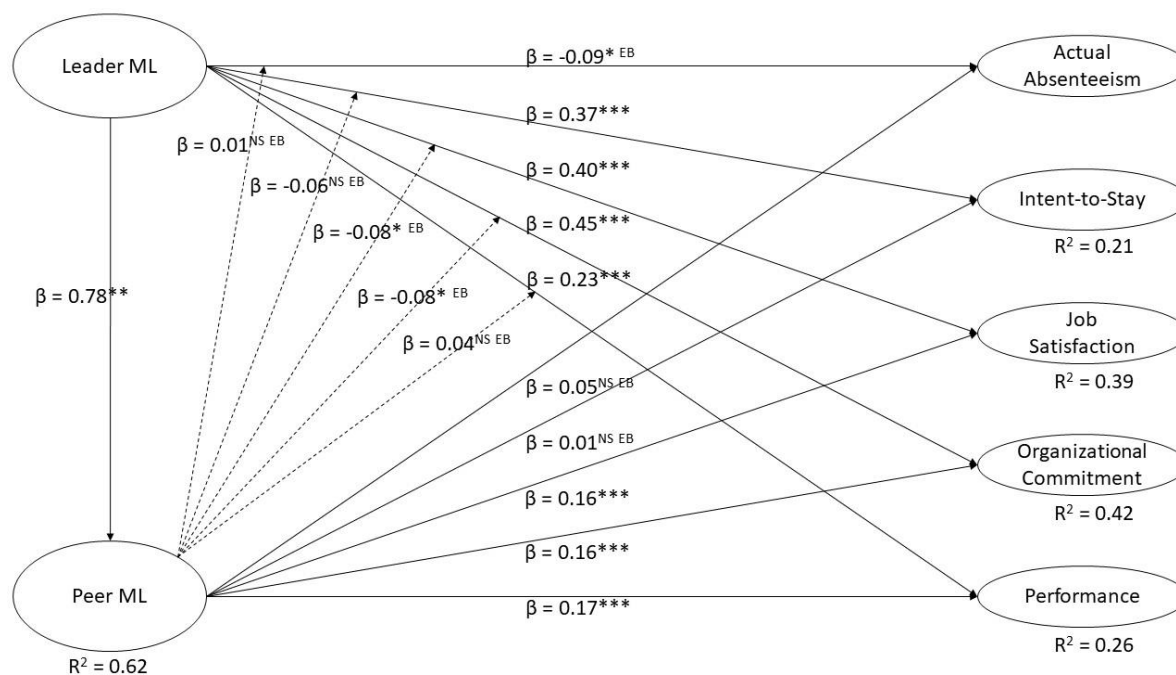
Lastly, research question 3 asked whether there a statistically significant relationship between leader motivating language and peer motivating language. Results for both samples show that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between a leader's use of ML

and peers' use of ML with a beta coefficient of 0.78 ($p < 0.01$) and 0.81 ($p < 0.01$) for the U.S. and Indian sample, respectively. Furthermore, to test whether this relationship is linear or non-linear, I first modeled a possible non-linear and linear relationship. Viewing and plotting the relationship in WarpPLS showed me that for the U.S. sample this relationship is quasi-linear, and for the Indian sample it is linear.

Results for the U.S. sample are shown in Figure 5.5 and Figure 5.6, which presents a cleaned version of the model only showing significant links. Figure 5.7 shows the results for the Indian sample.

Figure V.5

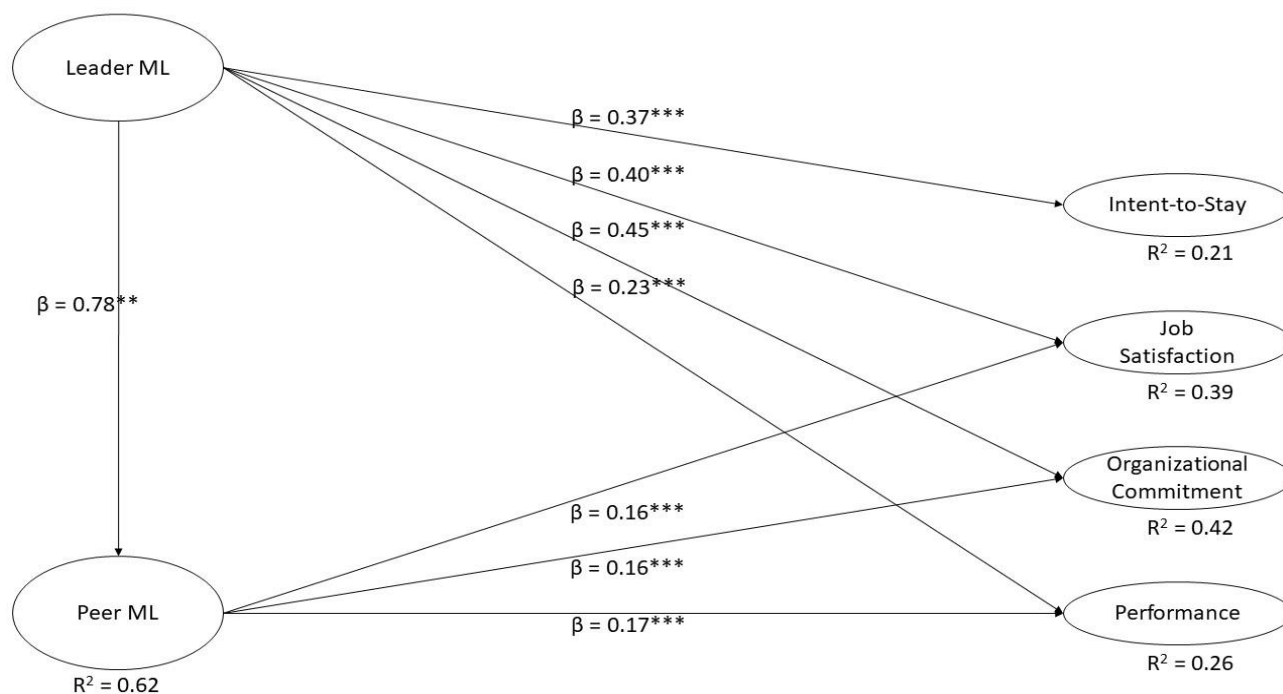
Complete Model for U.S. Sample



Notes: * = $p < 0.05$; ** = $p < 0.01$; *** = $p < 0.001$; NS = not statistically significant; EB = effect size below threshold

Figure V.6

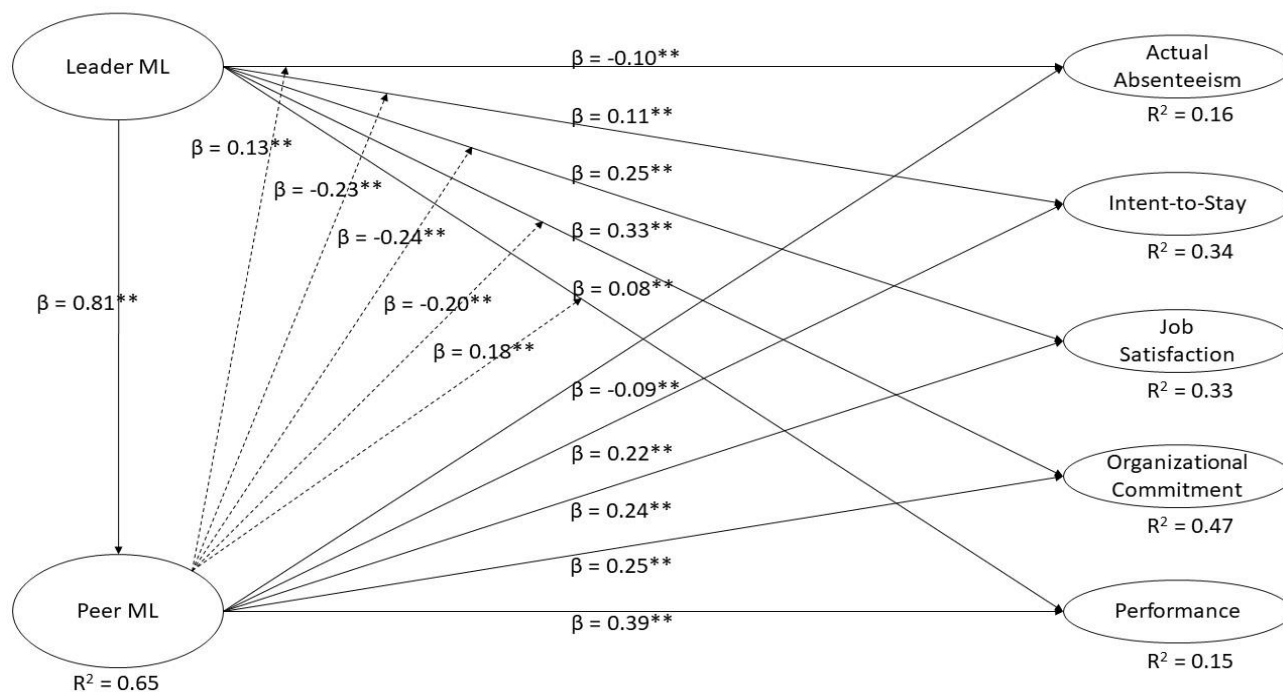
Complete Model for U.S. Sample (Only Significant Links Shown)



Notes: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Figure V.7

Complete Model for Indian Sample



Notes: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$

Path coefficients and effect sizes for all links for both samples can be found in Table 5.26.

Table V.26
Path Coefficients and Effect Sizes for Complete Model

	United States		India	
	Path Coefficient	Effect Size	Path Coefficient	Effect Size
Leader Motivating Language				
Actual Absenteeism	-0.09*	0.010 ^{EB}	-0.10**	0.023
Intent-to-Stay	0.37***	0.156	0.11**	0.050
Job Satisfaction	0.40***	0.230	0.25**	0.142
Organizational Commitment	0.45***	0.279	0.33**	0.207
Performance	0.23***	0.105	0.08**	0.040
Peer Motivating Language	0.78***	0.616	0.81**	0.653
Peer Motivating Language				
Actual Absenteeism	0.05 ^{NS}	0.004 ^{EB}	-0.09**	0.019
Intent-to-Stay	0.01 ^{NS}	0.002 ^{EB}	0.22**	0.104
Job Satisfaction	0.16***	0.082	0.24**	0.140
Organizational Commitment	0.16***	0.085	0.25**	0.155
Performance	0.17***	0.071	0.39**	0.224
PML*LML				
Actual Absenteeism	0.01 ^{NS}	0.000 ^{EB}	0.13**	0.030
Intent-to-Stay	-0.06 ^{NS}	0.005 ^{EB}	-0.23**	0.083
Job Satisfaction	-0.08*	0.005 ^{EB}	-0.24**	0.099
Organizational Commitment	-0.08*	0.005 ^{EB}	-0.20**	0.083
Performance	0.04 ^{NS}	0.008 ^{EB}	0.18**	0.070
Control Variable:				
Centralized Organizational Structure				
Actual Absenteeism	0.00 ^{NS}	0.000 ^{EB}	0.31***	0.085
Intent-to-Stay	0.18***	0.049	0.30***	0.099
Job Satisfaction	0.21***	0.075	-0.20***	0.049
Organizational Commitment	0.17***	0.055	0.12**	0.025
Performance	0.23***	0.079	-0.18***	0.045

Notes: PML = Peer motivating language
LML = Leader motivating language

* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; NS = not statistically significant; EB = effect size below threshold

Power Test

To further substantiate my results, a power analysis was conducted. Statistical power is the “probability that a significant relationship will be found if it actually exists” (Hair et al., 2009, p. 155). Hence, it is “a statistical test’s probability of avoiding type II errors, or false negatives” (Kock, 2020, p. 133). It is generally recommended to have a power level of 80 percent.

Hence, the goal of the power test was to determine the minimum sample size required for the power level to be equal to or higher than 80 percent (Kock & Hadaya, 2018). As the sample size increases, generally, so does the power level.

For the U.S. sample, using the smallest significant path coefficient in the model (0.16) at a significance level of $p < 0.05$, the power test results (using the Gamma-exponential method) show that a minimum required sample size of 228 respondents is needed for a power level of 80 percent. The sample in this study (545) far exceeds this requirement.

For the Indian sample, using the smallest significant path coefficient in the model (0.08) at a significance level of $p < 0.05$, the power test results (using the Gamma-exponential method) show that a minimum required sample size of 953 respondents is needed for a power level of 80 percent for this link (link between leader ML and performance). However, the sample in this study (511 respondents) does not meet this requirement. Hence, the link between leader ML and a worker’s performance has a power of only 57 percent. Next, the second smallest significant beta coefficient has a value of 0.09 for the link between peer ML and actual absenteeism. It requires a sample size of 750 for a power of 80 percent. Hence, this link only has a power of 65 percent. Lastly, the third smallest significant beta coefficient has a value of 0.10 for the link between leader ML and actual absenteeism. It requires a sample size of 750 for a power of 80 percent. Hence, this link only has a power of 73 percent. All other links in the model have a power of at least 80 percent.

An overview of all hypotheses results can be found in Table 5.27.

Table V.27

Hypotheses Overview Results by Country

		USA	INDIA
H1a	<i>Leader ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.</i>	not supported (n.s.)	supported
H1b	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.</i>	supported	supported
H1c	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.</i>	supported	supported
H1d	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.</i>	supported	supported
H1e	<i>Leader ML is positively related to a worker's performance.</i>	supported	supported
H2a	<i>Peer ML is negatively related to a worker's actual absenteeism.</i>	n.s.	supported
H2b	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's intent-to-stay.</i>	n.s.	supported
H2c	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's job satisfaction.</i>	supported	supported
H2d	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's organizational commitment.</i>	supported	supported
H2e	<i>Peer ML is positively related to a worker's performance.</i>	supported	supported
H3a	<i>Peer ML positively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's actual absenteeism, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>	n.s.	supported
H3b	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's intent-to-stay, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>	n.s.	supported
H3c	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's job satisfaction, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>	n.s.	supported
H3d	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's organizational commitment, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>	n.s.	supported
H3e	<i>Peer ML negatively moderates the relationship between Leader ML and a worker's performance, such that a high level of Peer ML weakens the relationship and a low level of Peer ML strengthens it.</i>	n.s.	n.s.
H4	<i>There will be a difference in the models between the two national settings.</i>	supported	

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Overview

Motivated by recent calls for research on peer-to-peer motivating language (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2017), as well as calls for the theorizing of further substitutes for leadership (e.g. Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997), the goal of this study was to develop a new construct named “Peer Motivating Language”, including validating its measure and exploring its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors.

I proposed this new construct as a newly developed substitute variable (i.e. full substitute and/or neutralizer). Based on the substitutes for leadership perspective, I argued that motivating language use by an employee’s peers (i.e. peer motivating language) may serve as a substitute and/or neutralizer for motivating language coming from an employee’s supervisor, and therefore may have the ability to affect employee outcomes (i.e. employee’s actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance). Hence, I proposed peer motivating language as a substitute and/or neutralizer for leadership motivating language, and validated a measure for this construct by adapting the original leader motivating language scale (J. Mayfield, 1993; J. Mayfield et al., 1995), and empirically tested my model.

Moreover, this study was of cross-national nature. The developed theoretical model was tested using a sample from the United States and India, two culturally different countries. This cross-national comparison of the model results extended its generalizability and gave greater insights in ML and substitutes for leadership processes in different countries as a whole.

Overall, the purpose of this study was three-fold. I first proposed, validated a scale for, and empirically tested a new construct called peer motivating language. Second, I developed and empirically tested a model that highlights the comprehensive nature of both leader and peer

motivating language and employee outcomes, incorporating peer motivating language as a possible new substitute for leadership variable. Therefore, I studied motivating language theory from a follower perspective to shed light on the often too narrowly focused leader-centric approaches to leadership and leadership communication. Third, I examined the generalizability of my presented model by testing it in two different countries. This showed whether my hypotheses hold in different countries and national settings.

Findings

The results of this research show the validity of the newly developed peer motivating language construct. First, during the scale validation phase of this study, the convergent and discriminant validity, as well as the reliability of the peer ML scale were established. Second, the results of the principal study further substantiated the excellent validity and reliability of the peer ML scale.

Moreover, the findings of the principal study resulted in several conclusions. As a first step, a country comparison between the U.S. and the Indian sample was conducted, which showed that there was a significant difference in the models between the two national settings. Therefore, research question 4 was addressed and it showed that the results of this study were different in both countries, and therefore needed to be analyzed separately, which was done in the next steps.

First, a model with only leader ML included as an independent variable as well as the five employee outcomes as dependent variables, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance was run as a validity check to see whether the relationships between leader ML and the employee outcomes for this study mirror results from previous empirical studies. The results showed that this was the case for both the

U.S. and the Indian sample, i.e. a leader's use of ML positively correlates with a follower's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Moreover, for the Indian sample, leader ML negatively correlates with a follower's actual absenteeism. However, this link was not significant for the U.S. sample.

Second, a model with only peer ML included as an independent variable as well as the five employee outcomes was run to examine the effects of peer motivating language on the employee outcomes not taking anything else into consideration. The results showed that there is, in fact, a correlation between peer ML and the outcomes, which further provides support for the importance of the peer ML construct itself (as do the following findings for the complete model). This is the case for both the U.S. and the Indian sample. Specifically, for both samples, a peers' use of ML positively correlates with a worker's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Moreover, for the Indian sample, peer ML negatively correlates with a worker's actual absenteeism. However, this link was not significant for the U.S. sample.

Lastly, the complete theoretical model with both peer ML and leader ML included as independent variables as well as the five employee outcomes as dependent variables, namely actual absenteeism, intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance was examined, including the exploratory link between leader ML and peer ML. For the U.S. sample, the results were not fully aligned with what was expected. Leader ML was positively related with a worker's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance; but had no correlation with a worker's actual absenteeism. Peer ML was only positively related with a worker's job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance; but had no correlation with a worker's actual absenteeism and intent-to-stay. Moreover, peer ML did not moderate any of the relationships between leader motivating language and the five

employee outcomes, meaning it did neither neutralize nor substitute the impact of leader motivating language on employee outcomes.

The opposite is true for the results of the Indian sample. The results for the Indian sample were almost completely aligned with what was expected. Leader ML was negatively related with a worker's actual absenteeism and was positively related with a worker's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance. Peer ML was also negatively related with a worker's actual absenteeism and was positively related with a worker's intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance.

Moreover, for the Indian sample, peer ML did, in fact, moderate the relationships between leader motivating language and all five employee outcomes. First, peer ML positively moderated the relationship between leader ML and a worker's actual absenteeism, such that a high level of peer ML weakened the relationship and a low level of peer ML strengthened it. Therefore, since peer ML did not only neutralize (i.e. weaken) the impact of leader ML on a worker's actual absenteeism, but also had a direct impact on actual absenteeism of its own, it can be concluded that peer ML fully substituted the impact of leader ML on a worker's actual absenteeism. Hence, it served as a substitute for leader ML.

Second, peer ML negatively moderated the relationship between leader ML and a worker's intent-to-stay, such that a high level of peer ML weakened the relationship and a low level of peer ML strengthened it. Therefore, since peer ML did not only neutralize (i.e. weaken) the impact of leader ML on a worker's intent-to-stay, but also had a direct impact on intent-to-stay of its own, it can be concluded that peer ML fully substituted the impact of leader ML on a worker's intent-to-stay. Hence, it served as a substitute for leader ML.

Third, peer ML negatively moderated the relationship between leader ML and a worker's job satisfaction, such that a high level of peer ML weakened the relationship and a low level of peer ML strengthened it. Therefore, since peer ML did not only neutralize (i.e. weaken) the impact of leader ML on a worker's job satisfaction, but also had a direct impact on job satisfaction of its own, it can be concluded that peer ML fully substituted the impact of leader ML on a worker's job satisfaction. Hence, it served as a substitute for leader ML.

Fourth, peer ML negatively moderated the relationship between leader ML and a worker's organizational commitment, such that a high level of peer ML weakened the relationship and a low level of peer ML strengthened it. Therefore, since peer ML did not only neutralize (i.e. weaken) the impact of leader ML on a worker's organizational commitment, but also had a direct impact on organizational commitment of its own, it can be concluded that peer ML fully substituted the impact of leader ML on a worker's organizational commitment. Hence, it served as a substitute for leader ML.

Fifth, it was expected that peer ML would negatively moderate the relationship between leader ML and a worker's performance, such that a high level of peer ML weakened the relationship and a low level of peer ML strengthened it. However, the opposite was the case. Peer ML positively moderated the relationship between leader ML and a worker's performance, such that a high level of peer ML strengthened the relationship and a low level of peer ML weakened it. Therefore, peer ML neither neutralized (i.e. weakened) nor substituted the impact of leader ML on a worker's performance. On the contrary, it acted as an *augmenter*, i.e. peer ML did not only strengthen the impact of leader ML on a worker's performance (which would make it an *enhancer*), but it also had a direct impact on performance of its own.

These differences in the models between the countries could be explained as follows. The strong moderating effect of peer motivating language for the Indian sample may be due to the collectivistic nature of the Indian culture that relates to peer ML characteristics. Employees in collectivistic cultures such as India put great emphasis on interpersonal relations at work and harmonious relationships as compared to employees in individualistic cultures such as the United States. They do so through deep conversations with peers and sharing time with them. Thus, employees in collectivistic cultures might be more receptive and might put greater emphasis and importance on motivating language coming from their peers versus their superior than employees in individualistic cultures.

Lastly, research question 3 asked whether there a significant relationship between a leader's use of motivating language and peers' use of motivating language, and if so, whether it is linear or non-linear. Results for both samples showed that there is a positive statistically significant relationship between a leader's use of ML and peers' use of ML and that for the U.S. sample this relationship is quasi-linear and for the Indian sample it is linear. Therefore, oral communication practices such as the effective use of ML may be diffused from a leader to followers. Leaders can model competent oral communication practices for followers through a contagion effect, i.e. followers replicate the ML speech practices of their leader.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study provide several theoretical implications. This investigation adds progress in the field of organizational communication. It contributes to the motivating language literature by providing a better understanding of the context within which motivating language may occur. Doing so it addressed J. Mayfield and Mayfield's (2017) call for future research on peer-to-peer motivating language. It also put greater emphasis on followers and their importance

in business communication addressing the romance of leadership issue (Meindl, 1995; Meindl et al., 1985). By developing a new construct, peer motivating language, and validating its measurement scale, this research sheds light on the role of employees and their use of motivating language to improve employee attitudes and behaviors by linguistic means. No study had yet discussed motivating language among peers, nor conceptualized and measured this construct to then validate a scale accordingly.

Moreover, developing and examining the concept of peer motivating language moved motivating language beyond being a vertical dyadic (leader-follower) communication model to having the capability of being a horizontal non-dyadic (worker-peers) communication tool. Therefore, this study advanced motivating language by looking at group-level characteristics. Most motivating language research had been collected solely at the individual level of analysis; this research used a mixed level approach by exploring both the individual and group level of analysis.

Furthermore, by developing the construct of peer motivating language as a substitute for leader ML I addressed researchers' calls to create further substitutes for leadership (Dionne et al., 2005; Jermier & Kerr, 1997; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). This may be relevant to researchers attempting to understand the strategic leadership communication process in organizations. Results show that certain leadership oral practices are not necessary for every situation since they can be substituted by peers within an organization. Hence, leaders may spend their time focusing on other relevant tasks in the organization instead. On the other hand, the development of peer ML as an augments for the relationship between leader ML and employee performance also shows an area of the strategic leadership communication process that needs more investigation.

Further theoretical implications to the motivating language and strategic leadership communication literature lie in the cross-national nature of this study. By studying the proposed model in both the USA and India I addressed researchers' call to study substitutes for leadership as well as motivating language use in different national settings (Avolio et al., 2009; Dionne et al., 2005; Howell et al., 2007; Madlock & Hildebrand Clubbs, 2019). My findings expand academics' understanding of what variables may affect leadership effectiveness in both the USA and India. They provide a clearer understanding of the influence of the U.S. as compared to the Indian culture on the vertical and horizontal communication interactions in organizations in these distinct countries.

Lastly, the significant relationship between a leader's use of ML and peers' use of ML that was found in both samples adds to the ML literature on how effective leadership communication practices may spread throughout an organization.

Managerial Implications

From a practical perspective, the results of this study have several implications. The findings of this study can help organizations and supervisors decide whether to invest in leader ML or peer ML; they can also help to better understand if an employee's time is best spent developing a vertical relationship between her/him and the supervisor (leader ML) or developing horizontal relationships among peers (peer ML).

For the U.S. sample, the tested model implicates that motivating language coming from a supervisor is more important than peer ML, meaning that a leader should spend his or her time focusing on its development. This could increase overall leadership efficiency and effectiveness. Hence, organizations may be better off investing in the development of effective leader ML practices through training interventions, rewards for high ML use, etc. Moreover, it may be

recommended for employees in the U.S. to invest in vertical relationships between them and their supervisors.

However, the opposite is true in the Indian context. For the Indian sample, the tested model implicates that motivating language coming from a supervisor is less important than peer ML, even unnecessary, meaning that a leader may spend his or her time focusing on other relevant tasks in the organization instead. This could increase overall leadership efficiency and effectiveness. Hence, organizations are better off focusing on investing in the development of effective peer ML practices at work. The results of this study can show managers how exactly the development of such appropriate communication practices may look like. The results also show that an employee's time is best spent developing horizontal relationships among peers (peer ML). As such, the findings of this study may also help empowered and knowledge workers collaborate better as a greater emphasis on peer communication through motivating language was found as compared to an emphasis on vertical dyads.

Furthermore, this study provides a better understanding of the importance of peer motivating language in producing outcomes that are helpful for the organization (i.e. decreased actual absenteeism, increased intent-to-stay, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance). This importance of peer ML warrants its advancement through training, workshops, rewards, etc. in organizations.

Also, the results of this study give managers better insights in "how to foster high-ML use (and thus be enriched by its benefits) within an organizational culture" (J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2019, p. 369). A leader's use of ML highly correlates with peers' use of ML for both the U.S. and the Indian sample. Therefore, this shows more evidence for greater emphasis on the

development of motivating language practices in organizations through training interventions, reward programs for its usage, workshops, etc.

Lastly, the findings of this research provide practitioners with a better understanding of what variables may affect leadership effectiveness in different cultural contexts, which is especially important for international businesses.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

In spite of its numerous contributions to both theory and practice, this study faces several limitations. First, this study is cross-sectional in nature. Therefore, it is not possible to establish causality for the investigated relationships. Hence, future studies should use longitudinal or vignette studies to establish causality.

Second, this study uses quantitative data. Future research should include a qualitative component, which will enable researchers to tap into underlying influence mechanisms of leader and peer motivating language use in organizations. Hence, a mixed-method study may yield richer results.

Third, despite different ex-ante and ex-post measures that were taken to minimize the possible risk of common method bias, the risk still remains since the data were collected from a single source. Therefore, future research should focus on collecting data from at least two or more different sources.

Fourth, the results of the power test for the Indian sample showed that the recommended power level of 80 percent was not given for certain links. Specifically, the power test results for the link between leader ML and performance, the link between peer ML and actual absenteeism, and the link between leader ML and actual absenteeism were only 57 percent, 65 percent, and 73

percent, respectively. Hence, future studies need to ensure that a large enough sample size is given to reach a power level of at least 80 percent.

Lastly, while this study is cross-national in nature and its findings apply to the U.S. and the Indian context, it is limited to these two countries only and cannot be generalized to other countries. Therefore, future research should examine this study's model in other national settings.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study, despite its drawbacks, shows that peers' use of motivating language in organizations has the potential to positively influence employee attitudes and behaviors, and serves as a substitute for such communication style coming from a leader. The cross-national investigation of this study presents that these relationships may differ depending on the national setting.

Overall, this study serves as a basis for more investigations on peer motivating language and its effects in organizations to come. The use and development of motivating language in organizations may help change the way effective business communication is conducted in firms. The journey of uncovering the underlying processes and effects of peer motivating language begins with this study as its first step.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Peer Motivating Language

(an adaptation of J. Mayfield (1993) and J. Mayfield et al.(1995))

The examples below show different ways that your coworkers might talk to you. Please use the following selections to choose the answer that best matches your perceptions, and then click on the appropriate response.

DIRECTION GIVING/UNCERTAINTY REDUCING LANGUAGE

1. On average, my coworkers give me useful explanations of what needs to be done in my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

2. On average, my coworkers offer me helpful directions on how to do my job.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

3. On average, my coworkers provide me with easily understandable instructions about my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

4. On average, my coworkers offer me helpful advice on how to improve my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. On average, my coworkers give me good definitions of what I must do in order to receive rewards.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “A Little” option.

6. On average, my coworkers give me clear instructions about solving job related problems.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

7. On average, my coworkers offer me specific information on how I am evaluated.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

8. On average, my coworkers provide me with helpful information about forthcoming changes affecting my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

9. On average, my coworkers provide me with helpful information about past changes affecting my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

10. On average, my coworkers share news with me about organizational achievements and financial status.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

EMPATHETIC LANGUAGE

11. On average, my coworkers give me praise for my good work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “A Lot” option.

12. On average, my coworkers show me encouragement for my work efforts.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

13. On average, my coworkers show concern about my job satisfaction.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

14. On average, my coworkers express their support for my professional development.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

15. On average, my coworkers ask me about my professional well-being.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

16. On average, my coworkers show trust in me.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

MEANING MAKING LANGUAGE

17. On average, my coworkers tell me stories about key events in the organization's past.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

18. On average, my coworkers give me useful information that I couldn't get through official channels.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

19. On average, my coworkers tell me stories about people who are admired in my organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

20. On average, my coworkers tell me stories about people who have worked hard in this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

21. On average, my coworkers offer me advice about how to behave at the organization's social gatherings.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

22. On average, my coworkers offer me advice about how to "fit in" with other members of this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

23. On average, my coworkers tell me stories about people who have been rewarded by this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

24. On average, my coworkers tell me stories about people who have left this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Note: Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

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Leader Motivating Language

(J. Mayfield, 1993); (J. Mayfield et al., 1995)

The examples below show different ways that your boss might talk to you. Please use the following selections to choose the answer that best matches your perceptions, and then click on the appropriate response.

DIRECTION GIVING/UNCERTAINTY REDUCING LANGUAGE

1. Gives me useful explanations of what needs to be done in my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

2. Offers me helpful directions on how to do my job.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

3. Provides me with easily understandable instructions about my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “A Little” option.

4. Offers me helpful advice on how to improve my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. Gives me good definitions of what I must do in order to receive rewards.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

6. Gives me clear instructions about solving job related problems.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

7. Offers me specific information on how I am evaluated.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

8. Provides me with helpful information about forthcoming changes affecting my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

9. Provides me with helpful information about past changes affecting my work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

10. Shares news with me about organizational achievements and financial status.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

EMPATHETIC LANGUAGE

11. Gives me praise for my good work.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

12. Shows me encouragement for my work efforts.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

13. Shows concern about my job satisfaction.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

14. Expresses her/his support for my professional development.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

15. Asks me about my professional well-being.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

16. Shows trust in me.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

MEANING MAKING LANGUAGE

17. Tells me stories about key events in the organization's past.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

18. Gives me useful information that I couldn't get through official channels.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

19. Tells me stories about people who are admired in my organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

20. Tells me stories about people who have worked hard in this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

21. Offers me advice about how to behave at the organization's social gatherings.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

22. Offers me advice about how to "fit in" with other members of this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

23. Tells me stories about people who have been rewarded by this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

24. Tells me stories about people who have left this organization.

Very	A		A	A
Little	Little	Some	Lot	Whole Lot
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “A Lot” option.

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Employee Outcomes

Actual Absenteeism

(extension of J. Mayfield & Mayfield (2009) as developed by M. Mayfield and Mayfield (personal communication, 2019))

From time-to-time, everyone has to miss a day where they were scheduled to work. For the following questions, think about these days when you were absent and answer as honestly as you can. If your workplace does not require scheduled workdays, please skip these questions.

1. In the past month, how many days have you been absent from work?
2. In the past month, what were the most days that you missed work in a row?
3. In the past month, how many days did you miss due to illness?
4. In the past month, what were the most days that you missed work in a row due to illness?
5. In the past month, how many days did you miss work because you had to take care of personal issues?
6. In the past month, what were the most days that you missed work in a row because you had to take care of personal issues?
7. In the past month, how many days did you miss because you needed a break from your job?
8. In the past month, what were the most days that you missed work in a row because you needed a break from your job?

Attention Check Item: Please enter 0.

Attention Check Item: Please enter 3.

Note: Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

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Intent-to-Stay

(J. Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007)

For each statement, please select which response best describes your feelings about your current work situation.

1. I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now.

Strongly Disagree []	Disagree []	Neutral []	Agree []	Strongly Agree []
-----------------------------	-----------------	----------------	--------------	--------------------------

4. I would like to work for my current employer until I retire.

Strongly Disagree []	Disagree []	Neutral []	Agree []	Strongly Agree []
-----------------------------	-----------------	----------------	--------------	--------------------------

Attention Check Item: Please select the “Agree” option.

6. I can't see myself working for any other organization.

Strongly Disagree []	Disagree []	Neutral []	Agree []	Strongly Agree []
-----------------------------	-----------------	----------------	--------------	--------------------------

Attention Check Item: Please select the “Disagree” option.

Note: Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

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Job Satisfaction

(Thompson & Phua, 2012)

For each statement, please select which response best describes your feelings about your current job.

1. I find real enjoyment in my job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

2. I like my job better than the average person.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “Agree” option.

3. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

4. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “Disagree” option.

Note: Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

Organizational Commitment

(Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979)

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working (company name) please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
Attention Check Item: Please select the “Strongly Disagree” option.
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
5. I find that my values and the organization’s values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
Attention Check Item: Please select the “Strongly Agree” option.
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
13. I really care about the fate of this organization.
14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Note: Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale with scale point anchors labeled: (1) strongly disagree; (2) moderately disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neither disagree nor agree; (5) slightly agree; (6) moderately agree; (7) strongly agree.
Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

Performance

(adapted by J. Mayfield and Mayfield (2006) using Mott (1972))

Every worker produces something in his or her work. It may be a "product" or a "service." Please think carefully of the things that you produce in your work and how your performance compares to others in your workgroup. Please select the response that best describes your work compared to your colleagues' work.

(Supervisor's Rating)

1. Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Production: Quantity)

2. How does your level of production quantity compare to that of your colleagues' productivity levels?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Production: Quality)

3. How does the quality of your products or services compare to your colleagues' output?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Production: Efficiency)

4. How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the "Below Average" option.

(Adaption: Anticipating Problems and Solving Them Satisfactorily)

5. Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Adaption: Awareness of Potential Solutions)

6. Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could

affect the way you work?

Below		Above	Far Above	
Average	Average	Average	Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Adaption: Promptness of Adjustment)

7. How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?

Below		Above	Far Above	
Average	Average	Average	Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Attention Check Item: Please select the “Excellent” option.

(Adaption: Prevalence of Adjustment)

8. How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?

Below		Above	Far Above	
Average	Average	Average	Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

(Flexibility)

9. How well do you handle workplace emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resource allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?

Below		Above	Far Above	
Average	Average	Average	Average	Excellent
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Note: Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

Cultural Dimensions

(Yoo et al., 2011)

For each statement, please select the response you feel is most appropriate.

Power Distance

1. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.
Attention Check Item: Please select the “2” option.
2. People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.
3. People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.
Attention Check Item: Please select the “4” option.
4. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions.
5. People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.

Collectivism/ Individualism

6. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group.
7. Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.
8. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
9. Group success is more important than individual success.
10. Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.
11. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.

Uncertainty Avoidance

12. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I’m expected to do.
13. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.
14. Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.
15. Standardized work procedures are helpful.
16. Instructions for operations are important.

Note: All items use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*.

Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

Team-Member Exchange

(Seers, 1995)

1. I often make suggestions about better work methods to other team members.
2. Other group members usually let me know when I have done something that makes their job easier (or harder).
3. I often let other team members know when they have done something that makes my job easier (or harder).
4. Other group members clearly recognize my potential.
5. Other group members clearly understand my job-related problems and needs.
6. I am flexible about switching job responsibilities to make things easier for team members.
7. In busy situations, other group members often volunteer to help me out.
8. When other group members are busy, I often volunteer to help them out.
9. I am willing to finish work that has been given to other group members.
10. Other group members are willing to finish work that was assigned to me.

Note: All items use a 5-point scale with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* and 5 = *strongly agree*.

Coworker Exchange

(Sherony & Green, 2002)

When answering the next set of questions, please describe a coworker with the most recent birthday that you know of.

1. Do you know where you stand with your coworker . . . [and] do you usually know how satisfied your coworker is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

2. How well does your coworker understand your job problems and needs?

Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

3. Regardless of how much formal authority your coworker has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your coworker would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

4. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your coworker has, what are the chances that he or she would “bail you out” at his or her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

5. I have enough confidence in my coworker that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

6. How would you characterize your working relationship with your coworker?

Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Extremely effective
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Coworker Communication Satisfaction

(Downs & Hazen, 1977)

How satisfied are you with the following:

1. Extent to which the grapevine is active in your organization
2. Extent to which horizontal communication with other employees is accurate and free flowing
3. Extent to which communication practices are adaptable to emergencies
4. Extent to which my workgroup is compatible
5. Extent to which informal communication is active and accurate

Note: All items use a 7-point scale with anchors of 1 = very dissatisfied and 7 = very satisfied.

Control Variable

Centralization

(Lee & Choi, 2003)

For each statement, please select which response best describes your feelings about your company.

1. In my company I can take action without a supervisor (R).
Attention Check Item: Please select the “2” option.
2. In my company I am encouraged to make my own decisions (R).
3. In my company I do not need to refer to someone else (R).
4. In my company I do not need to ask my supervisor before action (R).
5. In my company I can make decisions without approval (R).
Attention Check Item: Please select the “6” option.

Note: All items use a 7-point scale with anchors of 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

Attention Check Items have been added to the scale to ensure response quality.

Demographic Characteristics

Listed below you will find a few demographic questions. These questions are only so that we can better understand the workplace context of your previous answers.

My gender is: Male Female

My marital status is: Single Long-term relationship Married Divorced
 Widow/Widower

Were you born in the USA (India)? Yes No

If no, in what country were you born? _____

Approximately how many years have you lived in the USA (India)? _____

How would you categorize your racial/ethnic group?

White (non-Hispanic)

Black or African-American

Hispanic or Latino

Asian or Asian-American

Middle Eastern

Native American

Mixed Race

Other _____

My age is: _____

My coworkers are mostly: Female Male Evenly split

My boss is: Female Male

What is your highest educational attainment?

Some High School

High School

Associates Degree

Four Year College Degree

Masters

Doctorate/MD/JD/other terminal degree

Other _____

Approximately how many years have you worked for your current employer? _____

Approximately how many years have you worked in your current job position? _____

Approximately how many years have you worked for your current boss? _____

Which sector best describes the organization where you currently work?

- Energy
- Materials extraction (such as mining, oil drilling, or logging)
- Industrials (production of goods used in construction and manufacturing)
- Consumer good production – discretionary
- Consumer good production – staples
- Health care
- Financial
- Information technology
- Telecommunication services
- Utilities
- Real estate
- Education
- Military
- Government (non-military)
- Other _____

How would you classify your organization's size?

- _____ Small (less than 100 employees)
- _____ Medium (100 to 1,000 employees)
- _____ Large (more than 1,000 employees)

I am currently working:

- _____ Part Time
- _____ Full Time
- _____ Not Working

My job is best described as:

- _____ Unskilled Labor (requires little or no training to perform)
- _____ Skilled Labor (requires moderate levels of training to perform)
- _____ Professional Work (requires high levels of training and/or specialized certification to perform)

Which category best describes your occupation?

- _____ Management
- _____ Independent contractor
- _____ Business owner
- _____ Owner-operator
- _____ Office and administrative support
- _____ Healthcare support
- _____ Protective services
- _____ Food preparation and services
- _____ Personal care
- _____ Installation, maintenance, and repair
- _____ Grounds cleaning and maintenance
- _____ Other service

- Trade worker or laborer
 Professional, scientific, or technical
 Educator
 Other _____

How often do you work/ interact with other people?

Never	Very few of my work	Some	Most of my work	All of my work
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

How often do you work in teams?

Never	Very few of my work	Some	Most of my work	All of my work
[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

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