



UNIVERSIDADE
CATÓLICA
PORTUGUESA

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP
COMMUNICATION STYLE INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE SELF-
PERCEPTION OF FLOURISHING?

Dissertation presented to Universidade Católica
Portuguesa to acquire the degree in Communication
Studies – Strategic Communication and Leadership

By

Mariana Malta

Faculty of Human Sciences

September, 2024



UNIVERSIDADE
CATÓLICA
PORTUGUESA

TO WHAT EXTENT DOES TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP
COMMUNICATION STYLE INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE SELF-
PERCEPTION OF FLOURISHING?

Dissertation presented to Universidade Católica
Portuguesa to acquire the degree in Communication
Studies – Strategic Communication and Leadership

By

Mariana Malta

Faculty of Human Sciences

Under Guidance of Professora Patrícia Tavares

September 2024

Abstract

This dissertation addresses the leaders' communication style on employees flourishing and self-perception of flourishing. The defined variables for the research analysis comprise leadership and communication, the evolution of flourishing, and organizational commitment as a powerful organizational outcome.

Communication is the main conductor of human life, so if effectively implemented, leadership through effective and competent communication can benefit both the employee and the organization. A leader's communication that motivates, creates a culture of shared value, and is seen as a resource for help, can foster employees' growth, leading to a flourishing workforce. Flourishing is a process toward complete well-being and is seen as a continuous process rather than a goal to be accomplished. It's measured through emotional, physical, and psychological well-being. Several have proposed defined components to measure flourishing, and even though there isn't a consensus, dimensions such as positive emotions, close relationships, motivation, purpose, and sense of belonging, are common components in flourishing measurement frameworks. An employee who is flourishing is one who feels good and positive, is happy with his work and personal life, and most importantly, with him/herself. Hence, this dissertation argues that flourishing employees have a higher sense of commitment towards the organization, as it's where they feel confident, rewarded, and have a sense of career growth.

The study design aims to understand the extent of a transformational communication leadership approach in employee's self-perception of flourishing, by resorting to a cross-sectional design, with an inquiry per questionnaire strategy and a convenience snowball sampling that gathered 168 valid responses. The study also aims at understanding the employee's perception of leaders' communication competence, linking it to transformational communication leadership and employee self-perceptions of flourishing. Lastly, due to the organizational context of the analysis, the study assesses the linkage between employee self-perception of flourishing under transformational communication leadership and levels of employee commitment.

Key words: leadership communication; transformational leadership; flourishing; organizational commitment.

Resumo

Esta dissertação tem como foco os estilos de liderança e comunicação e o impacto deles no nível de florescimento dos colaboradores, tanto real como autopercepção. As variáveis em questão são liderança através de comunicação, florescimento, e compromisso organizacional como consequência de uma liderança e comunicação eficaz e de um bom nível de bem-estar (florescimento).

Comunicação é a ferramenta principal da vida humana, estando presente em vários momentos do dia a dia, em diversos contextos. Uma liderança alicerçada por uma comunicação competente e eficaz, traz benefícios tanto a nível pessoal e profissional para os colaboradores, como para a organização como um todo. Um líder que use comunicação como uma ferramenta para atingir motivação e para criar uma cultura de partilha de conhecimentos e de interajuda, tem a capacidade de promover o crescimento constante dos colaboradores, levando a uma equipa de trabalho em florescimento. Florescimento é um termo académico utilizado para descrever um estado de bem-estar completo, sendo visto como um processo contínuo ao invés de um objetivo único a atingir. É medido através do bem-estar emocional, físico e psicológico. Variáveis como emoções positivas, relações chegadas, motivação, propósito, e um sentimento de pertença, são regularmente associadas a florescimento. Um indivíduo que está em processo de florescimento, é alguém que se sente bem e feliz, tanto na sua vida pessoal como profissional. Neste sentido, esta dissertação sugere que colaboradores em florescimento têm um nível mais alto de compromisso para com a sua organização.

O estudo feito tem como objetivo perceber de que forma é que uma liderança e comunicação transformacional impacta a autopercepção dos colaboradores em relação ao seu nível de bem-estar, através de um design transversal, onde cada secção pretende aferir as dimensões definidas, através de uma amostra de conveniência de 168 respostas válidas. Também é aferida a competência de comunicação dos seus líderes, sendo este o “condutor” da discussão desta dissertação. Com o objetivo de contriuir para o contexto organizacional, esta dissertação também aborda compromisso organizacional como consequência de uma comunicação competente e um elevado nível de bem estar.

Palavras-chave: liderança e comunicação; liderança transformacional; florescimento; compromisso organizacional.

Acknowledgments

When I first started this master's, I was already working as a real estate agent, so the balance between the two hasn't been easy. It was a good but very difficult challenge, - I usually say that I was made to work and not to study, as I like interacting and having very dynamic days, and so, studying is a tool to get me to where I want to be, professionally. Hence, I would like to express my gratitude to those who have supported me throughout this process and have been able to motivate me to finish this challenge, when all I wanted to do was give up. However, after two years of thesis, changes of topics, and work format, I couldn't be more satisfied to have overcome this challenge. The following are all the contributors to this achievement, as up to a certain time, all of them believed in me more than I did.

First, I would like to thank my parents, who have given me this opportunity by making the effort to sustain two daughters taking their master's at the same time. I like to achieve things by myself, and even though I am a team player, I often forget to ask for help from those closer – So a special thank you to my dad who is also a University Professor and acted as a co-advisor, helping me taking important steps throughout the study, always making sure that I would confirm it with Professor Patrícia Tavares first.

Secondly, my sister, who gave up her computer for three entire months so that I could finish my thesis. One afternoon I was packing my things, and my computer fell and broke, without any prospect of fixing it. I couldn't afford a computer at the time, so I thank you Margarida for lending me yours.

My psychologist, with whom I didn't have a lot of sessions, made me realize the importance of taking a step back, breathing, and seeing past the obstacle. I was very skeptical about the thesis and was set on the idea that I couldn't do it. She made me understand that I was already doing so much from the next phase of my adult life, that I needed to take a step back and finish the challenges of student Mariana.

To my friends, to whom I would vent, talk, and get irritated, with whom I said thousands of times that I wanted to give up, with whom I canceled millions of plans, or showed up in a negative mood – Thank you! I also found out with my psychologist that my core energy is powered through social interaction with those that I care for. Without all the coffee breaks, the study/work sessions, and the talks about what was taboo for me, I

wouldn't have made it! Margarida Graça deserves special thanks, as she was my statistics tutor, guiding me and explaining all the steps to make the data analysis possible!

I would like to thank my thesis advisor, Professor Patrícia Tavares, who has been there for me since the beginning. I didn't know Professor Patrícia before the time that I had to choose my advisor – I read the information provided by the university, and since my first intention was to develop a communication project, my choice was made. The professor has been supporting my steps, and most importantly, motivating me to finish it, generating ideas and leading me to find solutions to my problems. Above all she was a present advisor, always open to help.

To my colleagues at Remax – I changed to Remax in September on my first thesis year, and I have had two team leaders. Firstly, to Nelson Galhofo that was always pushing for me to complete this chapter of my life, by showing me how much I could achieve in the next one. And later, I stayed under the leadership of Sofia Mendes Dias that has been a very appreciated asset as well. Sofia gave me all the space and guidance she could offer, also focusing on my well-being. She's always pushing me to work hard though, as she believes in my capabilities to work and study at the same time.

I wanted to start by thanking myself, but I realized that without any of the parties above, I wouldn't be closing this chapter of my life. Nonetheless, since I have all of them, and I'm now writing this, I thank myself for pushing and hearing others to not give up. I can safely say today that I've become a more resilient and patient person, ready for the challenges ahead! So, Thank you, Mariana!

Glossary

List of Figures	10
List of Tables	12
Abstract	3
Resumo	4
Acknowledgments	5
I - Introduction	13
II - Literature Review	16
1. Leadership Communication	16
1.1 Definition and styles of leadership	16
1.1.1 Leadership Levels of Analysis	21
1.1.1.1 Leadership and Power	22
1.1.1.2 Coercion and Morality	24
1.1.2 Leader's Classifications, Styles, and Personalities	25
1.1.2.1 Leader's Classifications	25
1.1.2.3.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership	26
1.1.2.3.2 Laissez-Faire Leadership	30
1.1.2.3.3 Autocratic Leadership	30
1.1.2.3.4 Servant Leadership	31
1.1.2.3.5 Situational Leadership	33
1.1.2.3.6 Pacesetting Leadership	33
1.1.2.3.7 Democratic Leadership	34
1.2 Leadership and Communication	34
1.2.1 Leadership Communication: Human and Task-Oriented	37
1.2.2 Leader-Follower Organizational Leadership Communication	40
1.2.3 Key Concepts and Models/Frameworks	42
1.2.3.1 Communication Power	42
1.2.3.2 Communication Symbols	42
1.2.3.3 Dean Barnlund's Defining Aspects of Human Communication.	43
1.2.3.4 Communication as a Transmission Process	45

2. Flourishing and Leadership	46
2.1 Flourishing: A Well-Being State	46
2.1.1 Concept Evolution	47
2.1.2 Eudaimonia Leads to Flourishing	49
2.1.2.1 Dimensions/Influencing Factors on Flourishing	52
2.1.2.2 Flourishing: An Act of Change	54
2.1.2.3 Different Conceptions of Flourishing	56
2.1.2.4 Concluding Thoughts	58
2.1.2.5 Flourishing Academic Obstacles	61
2.2 Flourishing Scales	62
2.2.1 PERMA Model	63
2.3 Flourishing and Leadership	64
2.3.1 Employee Engagement and Flourishing Work Components	65
2.3.2 Positive Leadership	67
3. Leader Communication and Flourishing Employee Perception	70
3.1 Employee Perception of Leader Communication	70
3.1.2 Scientific Models and Frameworks	71
3.1.2.1 The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)	71
3.1.3.2 The Communication Competence Model	74
3.2 Employee Self-perception of Flourishing	76
3.2.1 Subjective Evaluation	77
3.2.2 Workplace PERMA-Profile	78
3.3 Employee self-perception of flourishing and leader communication	79
4. Organizational Outcomes	83
4.1 Organizational Commitment	84
4.2 Allen and Meyer's Three Component Scale	85
4.3 How Does Commitment Connect?	87
III – Methods	90
5. Methodological Design	90
5.1 Research Propositions	90
5.2 Research Design	90
5.3 Conceptual Framework	92
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	92

PERMA Model	93
Communication Competence Model (CCM)	93
Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)	93
Open-End Question	94
5.4 Data Procedures	94
5.5 Population and Sampling	95
5.6 Data Analysis	98
5.6.1 Quantitative Analysis	98
6. Discussion and Conclusion	112
7. Limitations	124
8. References	126
9. Appendix	161

List of Figures

Figure 1. Rautenbach’s Flourishing Work Components (2015, P.6).....	66
Figure 2. Rautenbach’s Flourishing Work Components (2015, P.6).....	67
Figure 3. Dimensions of the MLQ adapted from Bass and Avolio (1999) (Retrieved from Mora and Ticiu, 2012, P.85)	73
Figure 4. The Communication Competence Model (Spitzberg, 2013, P.130)	76
Figure 5. Example of the PERMA Profile Results (Butler and Kern, 2016, P.21).....	79
Figure 6. Popular Measures of Organizational Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P8).....	85
Figure 7. Components of Affective Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P11).....	86
Figure 8 Components of Continuance Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P12).....	87
Figure 9.Components of Normative Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P12).....	87
Figure 10. Transformational Leadership Towards Organizational Commitment Model (Iqbal et. al. 2019, P.264).....	89
Figure 11. PERMA Profile Sample Visual Results	103
Figure 12. Component Question	113
Figure 13. Component Question	113
Figure 14. Component Question	113
Figure 15. Component Question	114
Figure 16. Component Question	114
Figure 17. Component Question	114
Figure 18. Component Question	115
Figure 19. Component Question	115
Figure 20. Component Question	116
Figure 21. Component Question	116
Figure 22. Component Question	117
Figure 23. Component Question	117
Figure 24. Component Question	119
Figure 25. Component Question	120

Figure 26. Component Question.....	120
Figure 27. Component Question.....	121
Figure 28. Component Question.....	121
Figure 29. Component Question.....	122
Figure 30. Component Question.....	122
Figure 31. Component Question.....	122

List of Tables

Table 1. Age Gap by Generation and Years of Experience	95
Table 2. Country of Birth and Country of Residence	96
Table 3. Professional Fields Identified	97
Table 4. MLQ Results by Question	99
Table 5. MLQ Results by Component	100
Table 6. MLQ Results by Participant	101
Table 7. PERMA Results by Question	102
Table 8. PERMA Results by Component	103
Table 9. PERMA Profile by Participants.....	104
Table 10. CCM Results by Question	105
Table 11. CCM by Component.....	105
Table 12. CCM Results by Participants.....	106
Table 13. OCS Results by Question	107
Table 14. OCS Results by Component	108
Table 15. OCS Results by Participants.....	108
Table 16. Positive Identified Connotations on Participants' Answers	110
Table 17. Negative Identified Connotations on Participants' Answers.....	111

I - Introduction

This dissertation aims to contribute to the academic world of human sciences, focusing on the communication dimension, being the final work to complete the master's degree in communication studies – in the specialization of Strategic Communication and Leadership. The present study departs from the research question of “To what extent do leaders’ communication styles influence employees’ flourishing and self-perceptions of flourishing?” evolving to “Is it possible that the transformation promoted by transformational leaders to be the same as the change needed to enter a flourishing path?” which resulted in the two propositions that were deducted from the conducted analysis.

In the current fast-paced, dynamic, and competitive professional environment, organizations’ logistics have become increasingly complex – Leadership arises as a necessary tool to achieve engagement, increase employee performance, and to achieve organizational success (Northouse, 2021). The organizational viewpoint of profit-driven organizations has shifted towards a human-oriented approach through addressing concepts like employee's well-being, effective leadership, purpose, meaning, organizational culture, motivation and sense of belonging (Bass, 2008; Yammarino, 2021; Northouse, 2021).

The academic world offers several orientations of leaders, anyhow, for the purpose of this dissertation, human-oriented leadership communication approaches are discussed in more length due to their contributions to well-being components (Seligman, 2011). Employee well-being arises as a powerful tool for organizations to strategize with – One can argue that an employee who feels good about his/her professional role, and his/her work environment, has close relationships with team members, feels a sense of purpose and mission, and feels confident and autonomous in his/her work, is an employee whose well-being level is high (Fredrickson and Losada, 2005). Communication is a key tool for achieving effective leadership, as it's the means to achieve the ends – communication acts as a conductor, through verbal and non-verbal communication, for most of the leadership objectives. It’s what allows leaders and followers to understand, motivate, engage, and form relationships with each other. Communication is present in every act an individual performs throughout the day. Nonetheless, this discussion addresses communication from a leadership perspective

and its impact on leadership towards flourishing, understanding its role in the relationship between leader and member.

In the academic world, well-being is the main conductor of flourishing – a concept that is often associated with eudaimonia. Several definitions and flourishing scales were developed over the years, some related to eudaimonia approaches, others to hedonic views (Seligman, 2011; Diener and Seligman, 2002). Nevertheless, the evidence suggests that employees who flourish show higher satisfaction and performance levels, but they also enable higher organizational performance and a more inclusive and adaptive organizational culture. Flourishing regards a high well-being, but it connects to a higher sense of well-being – one must feel a complete state of well-being (Seligman, 2011), comprising three levels – the emotional, the physical, and the psychological well-being (Northouse, 2021; Fredrickson and Losada, 2005). It's a continuous process marked by change, and not an objective to achieve (Bass, 2008).

From the various leadership styles, transformational leadership arises as a leader's approach to foster change within the team members and the organization, by allowing for growth and development through transformation. The remaining question is whether the transformation fostered under a transformational leader is the required change to enter a flourishing process. Evidence suggests that transformational leadership communication has been an often-used tool to promote flourishing – this leader's personality motivates, inspires, and supports his/her team members through positive and motivating communication, by implementing a mission and vision that translates into both personal and professional development and growth (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2021).

This dissertation aims to understand the relationship between leadership and flourishing, focusing on transformational leadership and eudaimonic theories of flourishing. Hence, the first chapter offers an analysis of several aspects of leadership and communication, with support of empirical and academic evidence – definitions, leaders' personalities, leadership communication orientation, leadership styles, and lastly, leadership as a form of communication. The second chapter presents an overview of the flourishing concept, laying out its' origin, different academic definitions, and the main frameworks used to measure flourishing. Due to the relationships and linkages found between the three variables – leadership, leaders' communication, and flourishing – the third chapter of this discussion enhances these relationships by offering empirical evidence connecting them, while also assessing the employee

perspective on leaders' communication influence in their flourishing (self-perception of both group and individual). Due to the several organizational outcomes that arise from the perspective taken – Transformational leadership that through effective and competent communication, based on emotions, can enact change (flourish) - the fourth chapter is dedicated to organizational outcomes for organizations that benefit from an engaged and motivated workforce. This chapter focuses on one specific outcome – Organizational commitment. Throughout the discussion, several outcomes for the organization were mentioned. However, one in specific is a constant consequence of high well-being levels – If one feels good about one's job, one's leader, one's relationships, feels motivated, rewarded, and aligned with the organization's culture and vision, and feels a sense of belonging and support, the intention of leaving the organization is low or none at all. This chapter offers specifically an overview of organizational commitment, offering definitions and different points of view on academic contributions, and framework propositions. It also highlights the connection between having a sense of commitment, transformational leadership communication, and flourishing processes.

This dissertation makes propositions linking the studied constructs. The analysis consisted of an online questionnaire, where data was retrieved to conduct a descriptive analysis to support the propositions made. Relevant academic frameworks were used to build the questionnaire – the MLQ by Bass and Avolio (1999: 94-96) as quoted in Mora and Ticiu (2012), the PERMA Model by Seligman (2011) and later by Butler and Kern (2013), the Communication Competence Model (CCM) by Spitzberg (2013), and the Organizational Commitment Three Component Scale by Allen and Meyer (1991). The last section consisted of an open question, requesting participants to share an experience, moment, feeling or the extent to which they felt that their leaders' communication impacted their growth and development. The analysis of the results, presentation of limitations and the final discussion with a general conclusion, are the remaining chapters of this dissertation.

II - Literature Review

1. Leadership Communication

1.1 Definition and styles of leadership

Leadership is a very broad concept, researched by several authors, leading to having no consensual definition (Stogdill, 1974). Mentioned in Silva, (2016), at the beginning, being a leader, was about personal traits, like serving others as their primary purpose (Confucius, circa 475 BC/1998); being wise (Plato/Takala, 1998); being positively virtuous and smart, and therefore, being supported by others (Machiavelli, 1513/1992); and finally, by being the “great man”, such as heroes or people with extraordinary capacities (Carlyle, 2011). And so, being a leader meant being the smartest, the most powerful, the hero, and believing that people would follow and support. Heroes were what in the past people referred to as our leaders. Several support this view - leaders and “archetypal heroes” (Yammarino, 2013, p.1) share the same personality traits and captivating characteristics, throughout history in several cultures, having people (followers) sharing the same vision as them. At this time, no attention was paid to lower-level leaders; only to those who were “world class leaders” (Yammarino, 2013, p.1). However, leadership is part of day-to-day living, so, leadership occurs on several levels of human interaction.

Lawrence (2010) visualized leadership by dividing it into four drivers - to acquire; to defend; to bond; and to comprehend. When all these variables are fulfilled by leaders to the followers, long-term, it will result in the optimal leadership state (Lawrence, 2010). Stogdill (1950) addressed the term from a different perspective: defining it as a process where one influences the actions of a group to reach a set of goals. So now, being a leader is not a given based on one’s personal capabilities, but a process of influencing others. From Johns and Moser (1989), Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) defined it as reaching goals/objectives using interpersonal influence throughout the communication process. Influence is then a key variable in the leadership process, through which leaders use to direct the thoughts and actions of others (Zaleznik, 1997). One can then argue that leadership is dependent on the process of influencing followers, and therefore, is an interaction between two or more people, where both parties contribute and influence towards a goal (Bass, 1990, retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009). Handy (1992) adds that

a leader should define and share a vision with his followers, giving them a purpose. Some agreed, affirming that leadership is the creation of powerful visions to convert it into reality (Bennis and Townsend, 1995).

Rost (1991) examined materials regarding leadership studies, from 1900 to 1990, encountering more than 200 definitions of leadership, and offered an overview over that period, as follows.

As stated in Northouse (2021), firstly, from 1900 to 1929, leadership was perceived as domination, coming from a position of centralized control – “the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and [to] induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation” (Moore, 1927, p.124). Later, in the 1930s, leadership was perceived as a trait, shifting the approach from domination to influencing. Also, the influence was not from leader to follower only, but both ways – co-exchange of influence (Northouse, 2021). During the following decade, Hemphill (1949) defined leadership as the forefront of group approaches – while directing group actions, the attention is to the behavior of the person that is directing. Behaviors and drivers can be positive or negative, and so, persuasion was differentiated from drivership/leadership coercion (Copeland, 1942). (retrieved from Northouse, 2021).

Following, in 1950, three main themes arise - firstly, flow of the group theory, suggesting that leadership is the actions of the leaders within a group; secondly, leadership as an interaction that promotes shared goals, suggesting that leadership is directly linked to the leaders’ behavior; and thirdly, effectiveness, suggesting that leadership is the potential to influence the members of the group in an effective way.(Northouse, 2021). In the 1960s’ there was a slight consensus, with an almost universal definition by Seeman (1960, p.53) - leadership is “acts by persons which influence other persons in a shared direction”. (retrieved from Northouse, 2021, n.d.). The following decade was marked by the rise of the organizational culture, and by the group approach shift to managing groups within an organization and reaching the overall intended goals through effective leadership (Rost, 1991). Burns’s (1978) also added a definition, being considered one of the biggest contributions - “Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources, in a context of competitions and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers” (p.425).

In 1980, again, an era of a lot of researchers and scholars that addressed the topic, where the prevailed definitions were around the same themes - “Do as the leader wishes; Influence; Traits; and Transformation” (G. Northouse, 2021, p. nd). Correspondently, the definitions were perceived as leadership representing a group of people that do what the leader wants to do; influence within leadership was analyzed from several perspectives, classifying it as noncoercive; A leader is someone with a specific set of traits; lastly, Burns (1978) defined leadership as a transformational process, saying it happens when one or a group of individuals interacts with each other, leading to both the leader and the followers to mutually elevate each other on motivation and morality. (retrieved from Northouse, 2021)

During the 1990s’, the argument on whether leadership and management were different processes, the focus on leadership emphasized the followers, analyzing their role throughout the leadership process. The three main approaches were: the servant leadership, where the leader assumes the “servant” role using emotional principles based on the followers wants and needs, to help them evolve (Gardner, 1990); the followership, putting the focus on followers and their role throughout the process (Hollander, 1992); and the adaptive leadership, where the follower is empowered by the leader to adapt by facing problems and finding solutions (Rost, 1991). Mentioned in Bass and Bass, (2009) Bass (1990), similarly argued that leadership happens when one of the member’s inputs restructures the group’s dynamics, adding that all members can show some leadership. Other authors defended a leadership process that was “follower-centric”, where their roles as followers are emphasized by their involvement and actions. Lastly, Rost (1993) also offered a glimpse of the 21st-century expectations and suggested that here is where moral approaches started to arise, where authentic and ethical leadership were the lead research topic of scholars – the 21st century marked the era of a world without borders, where the main approaches are: Authentic Leadership; Ethical Leadership; Spiritual Leadership; Discursive Leadership; Humble Leadership; and Inclusive Leadership. All based on a moral approach, but with strategies from different angles (Northouse, 2021).

Moreover, Rost (1993) stated that “Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.” (p.10), and followed with Drucker’s (1996) contribution, who argued that leadership might have several definitions, however, the main aspect of a leader is someone with followers. Kellerman has defined leadership by dividing it into three different variables, all equally

important: leader, follower and context (Volckmann, 2012). The leader is an obvious fraction of the concept, and as Bass (1990) and others suggested, followers are a key part of the leadership process, as without them, the leader is influencing only himself. Yet, Kellerman speaks of context: for her, context plays a very important role, as leadership styles that work better in Europe, might be hard to be implemented in China for example. (Volckmann, 2012). Kotter (1988) for instance, argues that leadership is influencing a group with a purpose, through non-coercive ways. Nevertheless, even in a leadership style based on authority and fear, it's possible to exist voluntary followership (Volckmann, 2012).

Yammarino (2013) defines leadership as “a multi-level (person, dyad, group, collective) leader-follower interaction process that occurs in a particular situation (context) where a leader (e.g., superior, supervisor) and followers (e.g., subordinates, direct reports) share a purpose (vision, mission) and jointly accomplish things (e.g., objectives, tasks) willingly (e.g., without coercion).” (p.150). As some of the previous definitions, Yammarino (2013) agrees with Kellerman, arguing that leadership involves the leader, the followers, and the context of the present moment – looking at the concept through a Venn diagram of three circles that intersect with each other, Leader, Followers and Situation. Each intersection represents an important variable of what leadership is – leaders and situation reflect that the leader is a function of the situation itself, knowledge, abilities, and skills; followers and situation also suggests that the followers are their knowledge, skills, abilities and the situation itself; and lastly, leader and followers is the representation of the leadership process happening, by the interaction between both parties. Therefore, the intersection of the three circles is leadership. (Yammarino, 2013).

Silva (2016) proposes a new definition of leadership - “Leadership is the process of interactive influence that occurs when, in a given context, some people accept someone as their leader to achieve common goals.” (p.3). One can then deduce that leadership isn't a personal trait, but as argumentated in Yammarino (2013) process of influencing others based on the environment and intended goal (Stogdil, 1950; Kotter, 1988). The influence happens not only from leader to followers, but through the interaction between both parties (Bass, 1990) - However the trifecta of leadership: Leader; Follower; and Context (Kellermann, 2014) play a significant role here: depending on the final goal, the followers turn to whom they perceive as fittest to reach the overall goal, where different contexts can lead to different choices of leadership. Avolio (2007) and Yammarino (2013) support this

idea by emphasizing that the context can be decisive on which type of leader followers look for. Leadership is then an interactive process, where the whole accepts an individual as their leader to achieve a general goal, inserted in the present context (Silva, 2016).

Peter G. Northouse (2021) wrote “Theory and Practice”, where he defined Leadership as “ (...) a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.” (p. nd)). Notice how he refers to it as a process and not a set of traits, implying some type of transaction between the leader and the followers. The process suggests that the leader both affects and is affected, meaning that it’s not a “linear, one-way event, but rather an interactive event” (p. nd)). The need for the ability to influence, as without it, there is no leadership – It shows the extent to which the leader affects the followers (Northouse, 2021). Lastly, leadership requires a group common goal – the group context, where one individual is influencing the collective to reach a common goal or task. Leadership is made of leaders and followers, that need each other mutually (Burns, 1978; Heller & Van Til, 1983; Hollander, 1992; Jago, 1982).

It can be assumed that, even though leadership is a hard concept to define, there are key specifications that are accepted by many: “(a) Leadership is a process, (b) leadership involves influence, (c) leadership occurs in groups, and (d) leadership involves common goals.” (Northouse, 2021, p. nd)). There were around 65 classification systems for defining leadership that were developed in the past 60 years (Fleishman et al., 1991). Amongst, Bass (2008, p.11) proposed the following system: part of the definitions focus on group processes, where the leader is the epicenter of group change and actions while embodying the wants and needs of the group. Another group of definitions, classified leaders as a certain set of traits, focusing on personality. These traits are how the leader influences the group to reach their goals and finish their tasks. Other perspectives focus on the way a leader acts or behaves, meaning, their actions create change within the group. Another approach centralizes on the power relationships between followers and leaders, where leaders use their power to create change. Whereas other definitions consider leadership to be a transformational process, where followers accomplish certain goals that were beyond expectations. Lastly, leadership is a skill set, viewing it as knowledge and skills that result in effective leadership.

1.1.1 Leadership Levels of Analysis

To better understand leadership, several levels of analysis on the present time can be considered (Yammarino, 2005). Before 1970, leadership was based on the “leader” as an individual, the group of people that follow, and the group’s effectiveness (Bass, 2008). Leaders had the same attitude/leadership approach with everyone from a certain group, but their style was different when interacting with a different group, shifting it to individual preferences and differences of the group and not of each person. Hence, the research on the matter was focused on the different styles of each leader, his common style towards his group, and the effectiveness according to the leaders' common different styles. It can be denominated as the “Average Leadership Style” approach (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010). Later, the shift of research on leadership studies happened, and the focus was no longer on leaders’ attitudes towards groups, but towards each person (Northouse, 2021). Meaning that now, the leadership style used in the dyad leader-follower (note that each follower represents a dyad with the leader), was personalized depending on the preferences and on the relationship that the leader had with everyone. Leadership was then viewed as the dyadic relationships, the disparate treatment of each follower, and the capacity of the leader to manage these relationships within the group - It can be called the “Vertical Dyad Linkage” approach, where both in-groups and out-groups were noticed (Yammarino, 2005).

From 1980s to 2000s, new levels of analysis arose (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Yammarino et al., 2005) - Firstly, it was suggested that leadership could be replaced, improved, or demeaned by other variables, such as, “knowledge, skills, and abilities of individual subordinates or those attributes operating within a team; rules, standard operating procedures, and structures at the organizational level.” (Yammarino, 2013, p 150); Secondly, the leader-follower relationship as independent dyads of the work environment, representing interpersonal relationships. This can be referred to as the “pure” dyad leadership perspective (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011). In this instance, the focus was on the fact that leaders were not in control of the relationships of the various dyads, but in a shared control where both the leader and the follower contribute to the continuing of the relationship. Lastly, the phenomenon of collective leadership, concerning several levels, such as a multi-team system, which is teams within teams; several forms of networks, both individual and collective, as well as, formal and informal; resulting in shared arrangements

on several degrees. These three levels resulted in various collectivistic leadership styles (Yammarino, 2013; Bass and Bass, 2009; Northouse, 2021).

Leadership offers a variety of variables that together form the various types of leadership; however, some of them offer different perspectives, which begs the question, why? It's one concept, so there should be a consensus. Peter G. Northouse (2021) offers a variety of comparisons that help to better understand the existence of several definitions – they come from different contexts, stimuli, and views – Trait versus Process Leadership; Assigned versus Emergent Leadership; Leadership versus Power; Coercion versus Morality; and Leadership versus Management (Northouse, 2021; Jago, 1982; Zaleznik, 1977; Bass and Bass, 2009; Smith and Foti, 1998; Hoffman, 2004; Watson and Hoofman, 2004; Hoog, 2001; Chiu et. al., 2017; Tepper, 2007). For the intended discussion, only leadership versus power, and coercion versus morality will be addressed.

1.1.1.1 Leadership and Power

To influence is to lead, either positively or negatively. However, how is the influence measured and put into action? If analyzed correctly, the action of influencing is almost like using a power position over someone/something, therefore, to influence is to use power (Northouse, 2021). This power that Peter Northouse (2021) refers to, is the extent to which people with power can affect change in others, by influencing beliefs, actions, and behaviors. A good example can be a schoolteacher, or a university professor – on different levels of power, they can have an influence on their students by using the resources and status that their positions offer. Even though it's already established that a leader someone on lower levels, as well as on higher levels of power, usually, those that are admired or remembered, are usually the instrument of social perception, hence power and wield over people, and case studies for leadership scholars. To understand how to use power in the leadership process is key, especially if the interaction is toxic due to the leader using it to influence according to his/her wants and needs (Krasikova, Green and LeBreton, 2013). Yet, with this last statement, it's possible to conclude that power is not only on the leaders' side, but on the followers' side as well. Kellerman (2014) wrote “The End of Leadership”, where she argues that the leadership concept is shifting when it comes to positions of power. The leader until then, was the one that held the higher ground, per se., and now,

with the development of technologies, and globalization, the followers are the ones that make demands, forcing leaders to be more transparent even.

The following, were information mentioned from Northouse (2021). Posner (2015) analyzed a few nonprofit organizations, looking at two groups: the volunteers (non-paid) and the board members (paid). He concluded that the volunteers demonstrated leadership by influencing, while having no real authority to effect change. French and Raven (1959) developed a power framework based on the dyadic relation between the leader and the follower, identifying five different bases of power. Later, Raven (1965) added a sixth base of power, concluding the framework with six bases for the leader to increase his/her range of influence. The bases are: Referent Power, that derives from followers identifying and liking the leader; Expert power, which suggests that the followers believe the leader to be very competent and knowledgeable; Legitimate power, which is related to professional higher roles, like a judge; Rewards power, that derives from being in a position of power where one can and has the capacity to reward others, like complementing an employees' work; Coercive power, suggesting that the one exerting it has the capability to punish and penalize others; And lastly, information power, which happens when there's a possession of certain information that is of others' interest.

Mentioned in Kotter and Cohen (2014), J. P. Kotter (1990) defines two different degrees of power organizational power. Firstly, the power position, which includes the legitimate, rewards, coercive and information levels, is a leader position that derives from professional ranks and higher social status. The latest implies that a leader in positions of power usually have an informal network that gives them higher social status (Chiu et al. 2017). Secondly, personal power, which includes the referent and expert levels. These leaders hold this role because their followers believe in their capacity and knowledge and find them likeable. Personal power is when one person is perceived in their relationship with others. Mentioned by Northouse (2021) Burns (1978) sees power from a relationship perspective – Power happens in relationships, used by both leaders and followers to set and reach collective goals.

1.1.1.2 Coercion and Morality

Coercion indicates the use of force to create change, even if sometimes, this “force” is not obvious (Northouse, 2021). Further, the author adds that coerce is a means of influence used by leaders to make followers do something for the leaders’ personal goals, and it is usual to involve negative rewards schedules, punishment, and threats. There are some cases where coercion intertwines with other bullying behaviors, which can be addressed as abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007). Overall, even though coercion is seen as a means of leadership, it’s also possible to argue that if leadership is a dyadic relationship between a group, with collective goals, then leadership through coercion is not a form of leadership, as the goals that are reached are from the individual leading alone.

Another dimension of leadership is its morality levels (Northouse, 2021). Some believe that leadership is neutral and therefore there are no ethics guidelines behind it. However, others believe that leadership is a relationship between people and the definition of common goals, which implies mutual respect. (Northouse, 2021). Can one conclude that they are just different forms of leadership, or are moral parameters an essential part of leadership? On one hand, leadership as a neutral process results from those who see it as a morality free concept, being able to use it for good and bad. There are several examples of good intentioned leaders, and several examples of badly intentioned leaders, however, whatever the outcome, the focus is that someone influenced others into achieving something. Some scholars that studied leadership say that leaders shouldn’t focus on decision making, but on the end game and consequences of their leadership, nor on the means to reach their goals (Nederman, 2019). Most definitions look at leadership from a neutral perspective.

On the other hand, several scholars also argue that leadership has a moral dimension, arguing that leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve a common good, by creating change. Therefore, leaders that use coercive means are not working towards a common good, therefore, they can’t be considered good and effective leaders (Northouse, 2021).

1.1.2 Leader's Classifications, Styles, and Personalities

1.1.2.1 Leader's Classifications

It's already established that leadership doesn't only happen to people in high-power positions but also in the day-to-day interactions between two or more people. Therefore, several leaders' approaches to power at different levels that affect different industries and scenarios have been studied throughout the years.

Several scholars have defined different leader's classifications, possible to better understand through Bass and Stogdill (1990), Northouse (2021), and Bass (2008), where several contributions from other academics are included to better explain. Further, several theories were developed, as to the origin of leadership – Cognitive Theories, Biological Genetic Theories, Trait Theories, Situational Theories, Person-Situation Theories – consult Bass and Bass (2009), Northouse (2021), and Bass (2008) for a detailed explanation of each theory.

On a concluding thought in regards to the leadership theories, Bass (2008) argues that there shouldn't be a discussion between trait leadership and situational leadership, for example, but an understanding that leadership can come from both individually but also in a combination of both. Quoted in Bass and Bass (2009, p. n.d.) Gerth and Mills (1952, p. 405) state that “to understand leadership, attention must be paid to (1) the traits and motives of the leader as a man, (2) images that selected publics hold of him and their motives for following him, (3) the features of the role that he plays as a leader, and (4) the institutional context in which he and his followers may be involved”. Leadership is then an interrelation and interactional process within the group formation. The “leader-environment-follower interaction theory” (Bass, 2008, p. nd) sees the leader as the one who identifies the needs of the group and takes action to answer them (Wofford, 1981). Used in Bass (2008) works, Bennis (1961) states that to be able to identify how a leader emerges in an organization, it's important to pay attention to “(1) the impersonal bureaucracy, (2) the informal organization and interpersonal relations, (3) the benevolent autocracy that structures the relationship between superiors and subordinates, (4) the job design that permits individual self-actualization, and (5) the integration of individual and organizational goals” (p. nd).

Overall, a full interpretation and explanation of leadership demands a multi-level approach, that includes leaders – whether and how they differ, dyad relationships – the differences between the various relations of the leader with each follower, groups – the

extent of which each follower differ from another, and organizations – whether and how leadership differences are affected by the organization (Yammarino, 1991). These theories are the basis of the leadership styles used throughout the years, until today.

1.1.2.3 Leadership Styles and Leader Personalities

1.1.2.3.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Pioneered by Downton (1973), and fully analyzed by Burns (1978), transformational leadership represented a different view, with different methods, that led to different interpretations (Kuhn, 1964) (Retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009). Buckley (1979) argued that “the successful political leader is one who “crystallizes” what people desire, “illuminates” the rightness of that desire, and coordinates its achievement.” (Bass and Bass, 2009, p.89). Mentioned in Northouse (2021), since Burn’s (1978) contributions, the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership has become of the most importance (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bryman, 1992).

-The Transactional Leader

Retrieved from Bass and Bass (2009), the transactional leader acts within a framework to satisfy his/her own needs (Bass, 2008) and is also addressed as the “eventful man” (Hook, 1943). He further mentions that, according to Burns (1978), this leadership approach is based on exchanging favors to get to the intended goal, which may result in some uncertainties within one’s network. Transactional leadership is focused on the exchange of interactions between the leader and the followers (Northouse, 2018). This leadership style is characterized by rewards when the leader is trying to motivate someone that is performing well, and punishments when there is a poor performance of the follower. Bass and Riggo (2006) and Kouzes and Posner (2017) state that there are some specific traits and features associated with this leadership style: (1) Accurate definition of expectations, making sure that it’s understood by the whole; (2) Defined metric of rewards and punishments based on performance levels; (3) Primarily driver is the exchange within the dyad relationships; (4) throughout monitoring of teams performances and actions, to be able to intervene when one is going out of the collective goal; (5) it’s goal oriented, as the whole leadership process is focused on the achievement of goals.

Under this leadership profile, the leader defines specific target goals and levels of performance, which facilitates the management of time and expectations of followers (Northouse, 2018), creating efficient defined procedures which lead to higher productivity (Judge et al., 2004). Further, because its principals focus on established procedures and goals, they are characterized by fast decision-making skills (Bass et.al, 2003), following a meritocracy method almost, as it's based on goal achievement (Podsakoff et.al, 2000). On the other hand, establishing specific goals can limit the creative process and space for innovation (Yulk, 2013), which can lead to a motivation loss. Those who are born to be leaders, or who went through one or more life changing events that caused changed, are potential candidates for emerging as leaders (Zaleznik, 1977; Bass, 2008). However, how can someone with this profile be able to grow and challenge themselves, if there is no space for innovation, but only set goals? On the short term, this follower profile will do their best while growing and learning, however, on the long run he will have to change to keep learning or force a change within the team. Therefore, the transactional leadership approach lacks sustained motivation in the long run, as their focus is on short-term targets, making them an unstable choice of leadership to fast-changing and unexpected conditions (Judge et.al, 2004). Noted by Podsakoff et.al (2000), transactional leaders fit under environments that function towards achieving of results and goals, and that require clear task definition and established processes.

-The Transformational Leader

Bass (2008) and Bass and Bass (2009) offer the following discussion regarding transformational leaders. The transformational leader acts within the framework to create change, also called the “event-making man” (Hook, 1943). It's an approach of a mutual satisfaction of needs between the leader and the follower (Burns, 1978, p. 3), resulting in a full engagement in relationship building with the follower (Maslow, 1954). Burns (1978) states that there may be a transformation of the e followers into leaders and a development of the leaders into moral actors. The “eventful man” and the “event-making man” (Hook, 1943) differ in the longevity of their actions. While one acts in the moment, causing good or bad consequences, the other makes decisions and takes the lead for actions that may be marked for history. The even-making man, the transformational leader, preaches for consciousness and raises inspirational and motivational levels, resulting in the achievement of the goals set.

According to a study using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, conducted by Avolio, Bass, and Dong (1999), “transformational leaders are inspirational, intellectually stimulating and/or individually considerate” (retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009, p. nd), whereas the transactional leader acts with contingent rewards and dismissive feedback. According to Collins (2014) transformational leadership is based on motivational and inspirational leadership, where the leader acts as the necessary help for followers to achieve their goals, by developing vision, defining high target levels and by self-challenging (the followers). Bass and Riggo (2006) identified several key characteristics of the transformational leader – Possess a concrete vision of what they aim to achieve; Communicate effectively and respectfully; Direct their followers through positive motivation and inspiration; Their core task is to foster change, to grow and transform; Show high levels of empathy and are understandable towards followers; And lastly, an active encouragement for creative and innovative thinking.

This leader personality, overall, will boost their commitment and motivation towards the organization, increasing the organizations’ results as well, creating a warm and inclusive workplace, and most importantly, they will affect change – They focus on inspiring, promoting innovation, creating change, and creating a positive environment fostering positive collaboration and sense of purpose (Bass and Rigo, 2006; Kouzes and Posner, 2017; Northouse, 2018; Collins, 2014). On the other side, the transformational leader may set the expectations too high, where some followers may fail causing stress (Bass and Riggo, 2006) and others may be less open to change and may react differently than most (Kouzes and Posner, 2017). Overall, this type of leadership suits environments that require change and innovation to effectively function and grow (Bass and Riggo, 2006).

-Transformational Leadership vs. Transactional Leadership

Models concerning several factors of both styles were presented by Bass (1985a), and House and Aditya (1997) considered transformational leadership to be connected to charismatic leadership. Bass (1985a) concluded that, amongst a big variety of factors that are included in leadership definition, charisma was the largest component of influence. In contrast, transactional leadership “didn’t involve pure rewarding, advocates for individuality, and represents a laissez-faire leadership” (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1999). Overall, the main differences between the two are the kind of motivation, goal-set criteria,

and future vision (short- or long-term). While transactional leadership is almost a self-centered approach, a transformational leader finds common ground with the masses to gain followers and then motivates them to think further ahead, think of the collective rather than the individual, and define specific important goals (Downton, 1973; Burns, 1978). Bennis (1984) interviewed ninety transformational leaders, who showed the capacity to manage meaning, be rational regarding the goals, and empower their leadership influence range. Retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009.

While Burns conceptualized leadership as one of the two (transactional and transformational), Bass (1985a) evolved and modified it, by stating that one is an extension of the other. In other words, transformational leadership elevates transactional leadership regarding its efforts, effectiveness and satisfaction of followers - Several leaders are both the transactional and the transformational leader. Retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) argued for a hybrid leadership style, stating it's not only focused on charisma but "a behavioral process capable of being learned and managed. It's a leadership process that is systematic, consisting of purposeful and organized search for changes, systematic analysis, and the capacity to move resources from areas of lesser to greater productivity... [to bring about] a strategic transformation" (p. nd). Based on Kegan's (1982) theory about self-evolution, a four-stage model was proposed to explain the development of the transformational leaders – Charismatic Leadership; Intellectual Leadership; Inspirational Leadership; and Individualized Considerations (Bass, 2008; Kuhnert and Russel, 1989; Bass, 1985a; Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999). Others didn't see the need for four dimensions, such as House (1977) and Conger (1999), who believed that everything was included under charismatic leadership (House and Shamir, 1993). In conclusion, transformational leadership is similar to the prototype created by the ILTs and is a better strategy when engaging with the followers, creating an effective role model (Bass and Avolio, 1988). This shows that leaders don't just motivate but help develop a self-expectation of performance onto the followers (Gilbert, 1985). Retrieved from Northouse (2021) and Bass and Bass (2009).

1.1.2.3.2 Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire approach, also known as delegative leadership, is characterized by giving full independence to the followers by providing limited guidance and involvement, which suggests that followers have a high decision-making power task-oriented freedom (Vecchio et.al, 2010; Northouse, 2018). This leader personality is known for accepting mistakes from followers/team members, suggesting that they trust on the team to run and decide the day-to-day independently, and even by showing little intervention and guidance, they are accountable for the mistakes made by their followers (Sosik et. al. 2004; Vecchio et. al, 2010; Northouse, 2018). Overall, they offer the base and resources for their followers but not clear and established tasks, allowing growth and independent decision-making.

On contrary to the transactional and authoritarian approaches for example, this leadership style allows for innovation and creativity, as it gives the resources with full decision control to the followers (Northouse, 2018), fostering a culture of self-growth and – development, empowering employees which increases job satisfaction (Sosik et. Al, 2004), while maintaining fast-decision-making processes, as they hold the power (Vecchio et. Al, 2010). However, one may ask how can individuals choose and act by themselves if they're learning? There are several facts to consider, however, it's possible to draw that laissez-faire leadership targets high-skilled teams, since it focuses on a hands-off approach and independent work (Sosik et. Al, 2004; Vecchio et. Al, 2010). The downfalls of the delegative approach are then related to the passive attitude of the leader, which may lead to confusion, absence of coordination and adjustment to the organizational culture, decrease of motivation levels due to lack of feedback, discipline and support, resulting in lower productivity and performance rates (Yulk, 2013; Northouse, 2018; Vecchio et. Al, 2010).

1.1.2.3.3 Autocratic Leadership

The Autocratic or authoritarian leadership process focuses on absolute power to the leader, where he/she doesn't have to consult with anyone to make decisions, while expecting full agreement from the followers (Pearce and Sims, 2002). The autocratic leader's personality is characterized by a concentration of the decision-making process on the leaders' side, while not giving space for questioning and individual decision-making

(Pearce and Sims, 2002; Sosik and Dinger, 2007). Further, the authors added that this leader maintains close monitoring of the follower's work, holding full control of the group/team.

One can argue that the benefits are the fast-decision-making process, which under extreme circumstances may be beneficial (Yulk, 2013). For a certain type of follower, the structured hierarchy and well-defined tasks can be preferential (Pearce and Sims, 2002). Also, Sosik and Dinger (2007) argue that in extreme or a crises environment, this type of leadership can be effective, as there are times when the decisions need to be made too fast to allow for consultation. On the other side, autocratic leadership has similar downsides to the transactional approach, but on a deeper level – The level and openness for innovation are reduced (Northouse, 2021); The established and monitored tasks result in low motivation, which are also affected by the follower's exclusion on the decision process (Pearce and Sims, 2002); Following the exclusion when deciding, a certain dependency may be created towards the leader: since he/she is the one deciding, he is the one that holds the knowledge and power (Sosik and Dinger, 2007); Lastly, one can argue that the lack of motivation and innovation levels might result in higher turnover rates, just like the transactional approach – Overall, motivation is a key variable on the leadership process. Authoritarianism is related to “conformity, conventionality, conservatism, ethnocentrism, dogmatism, acquiescence, and religiosity” but not entirely the same as any of them (Bass and Bass, 2009, p. nd)

The “authoritarian personality” as a concept, received a lot of attention from a political point of view, interconnecting with psychoanalysis and later expanding to social psychology (Sanford, 1986). This leader is usually someone characterized by political and religious conservatism, cold and distant emotions, seeking power, hostile respecting minorities, skeptical of change, and disrespectful of humanitarian values (Adorno et al., 1950) It is a personality with difficulty in acknowledging their mistakes and is power and status -oriented, instead of valuing friendship and love (Sanford, 1956). Retrieved from Bass and Bass (2009).

1.1.2.3.4 Servant Leadership

The role of leaders is to put their ego aside, and act as a servant – The followers should feel empowered and evolve into leaders, where the leaders' priority is to ensure

these achievements (Greenleaf, 1977; Buchen, 1998; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009). The servant leader should look at the world in the long run, acting as stewards of those who follow him. However, not all leaders who are stewards are servant leaders (Bass, 2008). While stewards consider the interests of all stakeholders (Donaldson, 1990; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009), the servant leader focuses on the participants with less status and power, who are usually the ones in need of help (Bass, 2008). According to Farling, Gregory, and Stone (1999), the trust, influence, vision, and credibility of transformational leadership are shared characteristics with servant leadership.

Another variant of the servant leader is the self-sacrificial leader (Choi and Maitland, 1999), who base their strategy by postponing their needs and interests while engaging with followers. They restrain themselves from several life achievements, like goal public acknowledgments or the use of power, both professional and personal. Servant Leadership is characterized by a leader who sees his/her followers' well-being and growth as the core of their tasks (Greenleaf, 2002; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009)). The servant leader is someone who works towards and for others, establishing a support, emotional, and emphatic culture (Yulk, 2013). Irving and Longbotham (2007) stated that this approach aims for personal and professional flourishing, through guidance and mentorship, promoting teamwork and collaboration, and fostering an inclusive work environment.

On one hand, followers benefit from a sense of belonging and purpose, feeling fulfilled, and therefore, increasing employee satisfaction, retention and engagement (Dierendonck and Patterson, 2015); Further, followers feel highly motivated as the leader is focused on their growth and performance (Greenleaf, 2002), which can be highly beneficial for the organizational growth – the servant leader is so focused on the followers achievements, that they cultivate a motivated and skilled team (Irving and Longbotham, 2007). Overall, the organization's environment is positive, trustful, respectful (Sinek, 2014). On the other hand, due to their focus on followers needs and performances, this approach can be resource and time consuming (Greenleaf, 2002; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009), can pose a challenge for the leader to balance the followers needs and the organizational goals (Sinek, 2014) and may lead to an abuse of use of the leadership resources from a follower with less genuine intentions (Greenleaf, 2002; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009). Also, when considering the organization, making decisions

considering other stakeholders can also be a challenge for the servant leader (Irving and Longbotham, 2007).

1.1.2.3.5 Situational Leadership

A situational leadership style is also a possible approach for leaders. It's an adaptable approach where the needs and qualities of followers are taken into consideration, and a leadership strategy is put into action (Hersey et. Al, 2013). This leader is personalized, as he assesses the state, readiness and needs of the followers, and bases its strategy from there, ranging from a direct and coach approach to a support and delegate strategy (Northouse, 2013; Hersey et.al, 2013). The benefits of this approach are an effective match of leadership style to what the context and environment require, leading to higher performance rates (Yulk, 2013) and due to its personalized style, there is a high encouragement for individual and team growth on the several readiness levels (Hersey et. Al, 2013). On the other side, due to the assessment of a lot of information and to its complexity, it can be a time-consuming strategy (Hersey et.al, 2013), that requires a leader to be informed and equipped regarding the several approaches of leadership (Northouse, 2013), which can sometimes be overbearing and can lead to a more inconsistent decision-making process and not so clear expectations of followers (Yulk, 2013).

1.1.2.3.6 Pacesetting Leadership

The pacesetting leadership is a leadership strategy, where the leader sets high goals and targets for both him/her and his/her followers (Goleman et.al, 2013). These leaders usually thrive for achieving goals and by continuously improving (Northouse, 2018). According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2013), pacesetting leaders are ambitious towards themselves and the followers, they act as role models, leading by example, and they see the achievement of results, timelines, and quality delivery as their priority. Due to these characteristics, followers benefit from high motivation through promoting constant development (Northouse, 2021), teachings of action-reaction skills due to high expectation and strict and short deadlines (Goleman et.al, 2013). Moreover, because the leader leads by example, creating credibility and confidence in followers (Northouse, 2018). On the other

side, Goleman et al (2013) argue that since it's a fast-paced environment with a focus on the short and medium term, followers may experience burnout, stress, and loss of growth and learning occasions. Peter Northouse (2018) adds that followers may also experience low motivation and morale, which leads to a decrease in employee satisfaction.

1.1.2.3.7 Democratic Leadership

Yulk (2013) defines democratic leadership as the approach where the leader includes followers throughout the decision-making process, promotes openness and seeks consensus. Democratic leadership can also be addressed as participative leadership (Yulk, 2013). It's characterized by: (1) collective decision-making processes, where both leader and followers give inputs; (2) collective vision and goals, where the leader uses the inputs to create a shared vision for the organization; (3) open communication channels, where the leader fosters feedback, updates, general information, and asking for help; (4) due to their participation in decisions, followers feel empowered and autonomous; (5) thrives on trust and respect, resulting in positive and cooperative organizational culture.

On the bright side, under a democratic leader, followers increase levels of engagement and dedication, feeling a sense of belonging, therefore increasing team spirit (Avolio and Bass, 2004), followers have the space and openness to share ideas, develop their creativity and innovate (Yulk, 2013; Northouse, 2018). On the other hand, due to the inclusion of several inputs, the decision-making process can be time-consuming (Northouse, 2018) which can pose an obstacle in crisis and other fast-paced situations (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Also, due to the intake of several opinions, conflicts can emerge (Yulk, 2013).

1.2 Leadership and Communication

Leadership has been defined by many scientists, historians and scholars from different areas. The existing review of leadership supports the idea that leadership exists in more ways than literal leadership. However, what does this mean? Leadership doesn't only happen in power positions, important organizational roles, or crisis – Leadership is a

phenomenon that is present in most interactions in our day-to-day life (Johnson and Hackman, 2018). These interactions can be simply by being with friends, going to a yoga class, attending a lecturer, amongst others. On each social relation there is a form of leadership, where one single person can be the follower and the leader, depending on the context (Kellerman, 2014; Bass and Bass, 2009; Northouse, 2021). However, is it always beneficial?

According to Johnson and Hackman (2018), an effective leader will contribute to the growth of followers, whereas an ineffective one will make their followers suffer. The authors further argue that leadership is not merely an academic topic, but it needs to be understood as communication. Gail Fairhurst (2007) states that effective and successful leaders use communication as their favorite tool to achieve the intended outcomes and goals. Overall, leadership was first viewed from a psychological perspective (Bass, 1981; House and Aditya, 1997), while communication was viewed as an aid to leadership (Dansereau and Markham, 1987). However, with more contributions besides psychologists, it was concluded that communication is one of the bases of leadership, and so, leadership needs to be analyzed from different perspectives (Fairhurst, 2007). Retrieved from Johnson and Hackman (2018).

For Fairhurst and Connaughton (2014) there is no official definition of leadership, agreeing with Wittgenstein (1953) that qualified leadership as a “blurred concept” and Gallie (1956), which characterizes it as an essential argumentation. Therefore, leadership is better understood as “a family resemblance among power and influence-oriented language games” (Wittgenstein, 1953; Kelly, 2008). (retrieved from Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014).

Four themes within the definitions were noted (Johnson and Hackman, 2017, p. 11): “Leadership is about who you are”, which represents the trait leadership theories that regard individual that born to lead; “Leadership is about how you act”, referring to leadership as influence and power, therefore, the one who influences is the one who usually leads. Mats Alvesson (2003) states that leadership is a form of creating meaning, and creating meaning is a form of communication – hence, effective leadership is an effective communication process; “Leadership is about what you do”, which addresses the followers’ needs and goals. The influence of the leader and his/her efforts are focused on the growth and change of the followers. Lastly, “Leadership is about how you work with others”, suggesting and

incentivizing collaboration /teamwork between leader and follower – success is the result of the joint efforts of both personalities. Overall, it is possible to define leadership, based on communication, as the “human (symbolic) communication that modifies the attitudes and behaviors of others in order to meet shared group goals and needs” (Johnson and Hackman, 2017, p. 13). The authors further by explaining how viewing leadership as communication is essential – The higher the level needed for effective communication, the higher leadership status an individual has. How is it connected though? Effective leadership is the product of the interaction between a leader and his/her followers, that results in the achievement of goals through individual and collective growth.

De Vries, Pieper and Osrenveld (2009) offered a review of the linkage between leadership and communication, precisely the relation between the leaders' communication style and the usage of certain leadership styles, such as, charismatic leadership, people-oriented leadership, goal-oriented leadership, and leadership outcomes. The review was conducted based on a study, where the authors consider leadership from a communication perspective, paying special interest to the leader's interpersonal communication style and set of skills. Along with other academics, the authors consider the differences between the leadership interpersonal features, which comprise the communication contexts, and the managerial sphere of leadership, which comprises the non-interpersonal task like planning and decision-making, amongst others (Daft, 2003; McCartney and Campbell, 2006). Several authors have studied communication in integration with the interpersonal circumplex model (Leary, 1957), which comprises two interpersonal spheres – Dominance and Affiliation/Friendliness (Dillard et al. 1999; Sorenson and Savage 1989). Retrieved from De Vries et. al., (2009). In contrast, some academics argue that there exist more than two interpersonal dimensions.

After analyzing 96 items with the aid of research instruments of other scholars (Booth Butterfield 1990; Singelis 1994; Wiemann et al. 1986), with an addition of 62 items drawn from Hall's (1976) and Gudykunst and Ting Toomey (1988) research of high and low communication context, Gudykunst et al. (1996) proposed eight communication dimensions (retrieved from De Vries et. al., 2009). The dimensions are “Inferring Meaning, Indirect Communication, Interpersonal Sensitivity, Dramatic Communication, Use of Feelings, Openness, Preciseness, Positive Perception of Silence.” (De Vries et. al., 2009 p. 12). However, De Vries et. al. (2009) believes that some of these dimensions are not interpersonal factors of communication, but intrapersonal, which consist of cognitive

factors that cause feelings. By developing a lexical study, which suggests that communication becomes encoded in the language (Goldberg, 1990), De Vries et. al. (2009) analyzed 744 adjective and 837 verbs and proposed seven interpersonal communication style dimensions - “Expressiveness, Preciseness, Niceness, Supportiveness, Verbal Aggressiveness, (Expressed) Emotional Tension (or, reversed, Assuredness), and Argumentativeness.” (De Vries et. al., 2009, p.12). The two most popular dimensions are friendliness and dominance.

1.2.1 Leadership Communication: Human and Task-Oriented

Within the leadership sphere, human-oriented approaches consider more communication factors, as they are more connected to emotions and other relational factors, whereas task-oriented leadership styles require more attention to the information provided, rather than the communication behind it (Penley and Hawkins, 1985; retrieved from Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Focusing on friendly approaches to leadership, transformational and charismatic leadership arise as one of the main approaches grounded by interpersonal communication sets of skills (De Vries et al., 2002). De Vries et. al. (2009), supported by referencing authors that extensively contributed to the field (Towler, 2003; De Vries et al. 2009; Frese et al., 2003; Awamleh and Gardener; 1999; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; DeGroot et al., 2000; Stewart, 2006), argues that charismatic leadership is positively related to human-oriented approaches and so holds its power through relational skills rather than task orientation. One can then assume that human-oriented styles derive and relate more to communication than task-oriented styles do (De Vries et al., 2009). It is important to note that even though communication is not as important to task-oriented approaches of leadership, it still plays an important role, as communication, as it was already stated, is part of all interactions and most decisions we make in our day-to-day lives.

Westphalen (1992; retrieved from Meirinhos et al., 2023) states there are two types of messages in an organization – operational and motivational. Operational messages represent the passage of information needed for the organization to function. On the opposite spectrum, motivational messages are the transference of information that motivates and interests employees. The impact of the leadership of a supervisor regards 25% of the productivity, motivation, energy, efficiency, and commitment that employees

experience (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Once again, for these outcomes of the relationship between leader-follower to happen, the leader needs to use task- and relational-oriented communication resources (Blake & McCanse, 1991; retrieved from De Vries et. al., 2009). A leader who follows a task-oriented communication approach directs followers on what, when, and where to do something, along with the specifications of the task – usually follows a top-down communication chain (Huang & Mujtaba, 2009; Yukl et. al., 2002; Stogdill, 1974, retrieved from Bass and Stogdill, 1990). This leadership communication style can be beneficial, for instance, Bass (2008) concluded that first-line managers working in this environment were more satisfied with their employer. Further, groups can be more efficient and positive amongst each other when led by a task-oriented leader (Tabernero et. al., 2009). On the other hand, a leader that utilizes a human-oriented communication approach, leads by building trust, creating a sense of commitment, and stimulates team cooperation (Manyak and Mujtaba, 2013) - the focus is on the employees and the achievement of goals, through motivation, empowerment and support of employees (Northouse, 2013; DeCaro et. al., 2010).

The authors have found that human-oriented approaches foster high group performance, group cohesion, overall satisfaction, motivation and effectiveness (Bass, 2008; Tabernero et. al., 2009; Judge et. Al, 2004). In contrast, it benefits from lower turnover levels (Fleishman and Harris, 1962; retrieved from De Vries, 2009). Regardless of this, as mentioned, an effective leader is the one that pursues both the human and task-oriented styles of leadership (Bass, 2008; Bass and Bass, 2009; Blake and McCanse, 1991). The authors also refers to the team management leadership approach that "promotes teamwork, clarifies priorities, and motivates participation through promoting commitment to the purposes of the organization" (Northouse, 2013, p.75; retrieved from Mikkelson et. al., 2019). By using both communication approaches to the leadership style, one can positively affect the communication and the productivity of employees, as well as the profit of the overall organization (Hackman & Johnson, 2012), work satisfaction and follower commitment (Klimoski & Hayes, 1980), and lastly, team performance (Hambleton & Gumpert, 1982) (retrieved from Johnson and Hackman, 2017). These leadership styles are often correlated to communication aspects, as leaders must use communication to manage and guide the team/followers into achieving their goals (Rost, 1991; retrieved from Northouse, 2021). Some of the correlations regard communication factors, such as, communicating effectively (Fairhurst, 1993), usage of interpersonal skills (Quick & Macik-

Frey, 2004), and competence (Mikkelsen et al., 2015). One can then argue that human-oriented approaches are more emotionally powered than task-oriented approaches.

A relational leader focuses on followers' needs (Bowers & Seashore, 1966), motivates followers to act, and requests inputs before making a final decision. (Yukl et al., 2002). In case of negative feedback, in an intimate environment, the employee will take the feedback, and for himself perform better and turn the negative feedback into positive – this is where successful leadership is formed, a leader that influences followers to thrive. Relational messages “may be viewed simultaneously as primary themes for relational discourse and as the dimensions along which partners interpret and define their interpersonal relationships” (Burgoon et. al., 1984, p. 194). Primarily, these relational messages can originate from a position of intimacy or dominance, and so, Burgoon and Hale (1987) developed a scale to measure the origin/power of the messages – Intimacy regards emotional involvement, empathy, mutual trust, and similarity, whereas dominance comprises influence, control of interactions and confidence (Burgoon and Dunbar, 2000).

Relational communication is present in several contexts, such as, parent and off-spring communication (McLaren & Pederson, 2014), marriages and dating couples (Kelley & Burgoon, 1991; McLaren, 2012), digital (Ramirez, 2015), and healthcare and other institutions (Siminoff and Step, 2011). Intimacy related messages usually express an inclusive, positive, likable, and warm feeling/emotion (Burgoon et. al., 2011), and in the organizational context can be used as a resource to establish a respectful, caring, and sustainable work environment (Mikkelsen et. al., 2019). If one thinks of a disagreement amongst team members or a manager giving feedback to the team/team member, intimate communication can impact on the reaction to less favorable outcomes, such as the “loser” of the disagreement, or the eventuality of negative feedback. The creation of a respectful environment, between leader-follower and follower-follower, is only achieved by communicating and understanding (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). – this is only possible through an effective communication.

Mikkelsen et. al. (2019) concluded that relational messages “(affection/involvement, similarity/depth, receptivity/trust)” (Mikkelsen et. al., 2019, p. 589) have a positive relation to human-oriented leadership approaches. In contrast, one finds dominance in communication - Dominance “consists of expressive, relationally based strategies and is one set of communicative acts by which power is exerted and influence exercised”

(Burgoon et. al., 1998, p.315; retrieved from Mikkelsen et. al., 2019). Often this concept has a negative association (Burgoon et. al., 1998), being often characterized by competitive, aggressive, and controlling feelings. According to Burgoon et. al. (1998) research, dominance englobes “influence, conversational control, poise, panache, and self-assurance.” (Mikkelsen et. al., 2019). This leader uses dominant communication to ensure the achievement and completion of the work tasks (Richmond et. al., 1986), as a more assertive and direct approach, allowing higher performances. (Mikkelsen et al., 2015). Hence, a leader who is task-oriented can benefit from a dominant communication approach (Mikkelsen et. al., 2019).

1.2.2 Leader-Follower Organizational Leadership Communication

There are several factors to communication, as to the audience, internal or external, as well as to the different communication channels, and so, one’s communication strategy must be directed to the audience and goal intended (Mishra et. al., 2014; Palma, 2008). Moreover, communication can be decentralized or centralized, which will affect the means used to communicate (Yan et. al., 2021), and according to Gara and La Porte (2020) depending on the context, one can act through informal or formal communication. Formal communication is usually represented by written formats through a formal structure – letters, e-mails, articles, ... - whereas informal communication is often represented by those interactions outside of that structure and are usually in verbal forms.

Leadership, motivation, and communication are key concepts for an organization to influence its employees to act and achieve the collective goals (Bass, 1990b; Lin et. al., 2018; Sascha et. al., 2022). According to Buil et. al. (2019) motivation, communication, and leadership represent resources for employee management, to promote a positive environment and employee satisfaction. These are based on the monetary and non-monetary rewards given. Leadership plays a very important role in organizations and can determine their growth. As seen already, there are several definitions for leadership, however, there is a common denominator – which is to influence followers/subordinates/employees/... to grow independently and collectively (Bass, 1990a; retrieved from Bass and Bass, 2009). Depending on the perspective, each scholar who studied leadership has encountered the term influence. For instance, Chiavenato (1987)

leadership happens through the influence of the interpersonal skills used during the interaction communication process that aims to achieve a certain objective (retrieved from Meirinhos, 2023) Furthering the idea of influence, if one can persuade people, it's possible to move individuals to work to achieve the leaders' goals (Garner, 1990; retrieved from Meirinhos, 2023). A leader that can impact followers in an organization is key to the success of the same – A leader embodies the organizational culture and goals, and pass turn it into a team behavior (Al Khajeh et al. 2018; Kankisingi and Dhliwayo 2022; Wang and Huang 2022; Cahyadi et al. 2022;).

Meirinhos et. al. (2023) state that “motivation describes the force that initiates a behavior and directs it towards a purpose whose result will respond satisfactorily to a particular need.” (Ross, 2022; Zeng et. al., 2022). And even though there are several motivational factors that an organization, and so the leader, can offer to its employees, everything depends on the communication behind it. As Musheke and Phiri (2021) argue, through communication interactions and relationships can happen assisting on the productivity of an organization at all management positions. Communication is an essential tool for organizational success and performance (Hargie, 2016). Only with effective interpersonal communication skills can a leader involve the employees in the organizational process, which leads to higher performance (Hackman and Johnson, 1991; Çakit et al. 2020; Pelfrene et al. 2003).

If the leader oversees and embodies the culture of an organization, and then passes it on to the employees, can a leader not communicate effectively? It's through communication that one can transmit organizational culture, values, mission, and vision, and can't be limited to directives from high organizational positions to lower levels, limiting their inputs (Hargie, 2016). In this globalized society, an organization that aims to be successful needs to have an effective communication strategy that salvages both informal and formal communication contexts (Madureira, 1990; retrieved from Meirinhos, 2023). From the perspective of several scholars, (Meirinhos et. al., 2023; Davidescu et al. 2020; Çakit et al. 2020; Wang and Huang 2022), communication needs to be seen as a resource for leadership, motivation, and providing a safe environment for relationships to be formed, enabling information to flow more effectively, reflecting on the teams' results (Meirinhos et. al., 2023). These relationship creations establish a culture of collaboration and cooperation, empathy, and commitment (Lee and Kim 2022).

1.2.3 Key Concepts and Models/Frameworks

1.2.3.1 Communication Power

Johnson and Hackman (2017) analyze leadership as communication through storytelling, supporting Stephen Denning (2006), who argues that leadership is a process of interaction that is defined by narratives, representing the communication aspect of leadership. Denning (2006) proposes eight different categories of storytelling that aid leaders when connecting and communicating – Narratives that spark action, Narratives that communicate who you are, Narratives that enhance the brand, Narratives of sharing knowledge through compelling stories, Narratives that tame the grapevine, Narratives of future stories and scenarios, Narratives for learning to perform the story. For further information consult Denning (2006, p. 44-47).

Leadership communication is a powerful tool for an organization to thrive. Stephen Denning argues that an organization's narrative, synonym to storytelling, "...comprises an array of tools, each suitable to a different business purpose..." (Denning, 2006, p. 42). Understanding the different narratives allows organizations to spark action amongst employees if used correctly – For instance, a story that has a negative connotation or tonality won't be as effective, if effective at all, compared to a story with a positive connotation or tonality (Denning, 2006). With Denning's narrative patterns, it's possible to see the impact of communication and the power of it – is used effectively, one has the power to impact other's perspectives.

1.2.3.2 Communication Symbols

Communication is based out of symbols that are communicated and interpreted differently, creating meaning. Frank Dance defines "symbols as abstract, arbitrary representation of reality agreed by human users" (retrieved from Johnson and Hackman, 2018, p. 5). - What can be a symbol of respect in certain cultures, but can represent the opposite in other cultures? Symbols are therefore social constructs that are accepted by a group/country/community. Nonetheless, there are universal symbols. Communication is also in one's day-to-day activities, and it's interpreted based on cultural background, past

experiences, and levels of interest (Johnson and Hackman, 2018). Symbolic communication can also represent non-verbal communication, where certain voice tones or facial expressions add meaning to the verbal communication. Through it, according to Johnson and Hackman (2018), symbolic communication is purposeful and allows for a past, present and future analysis. The existence of purpose when communicating, is what distinguishes rational and irrational animals (Humans vs. Animals) - When choosing a leader for example, animals base their decision on weight, size, strength, ..., whereas humans analyze several profiles, basing their decisions according to their own needs (which can change over time) (Johnson and Hackman, 2018). Fairhurst and Connaughton (2014) analyzed leadership communication from a meaning-centered perspective, and argued that - Behind every communication, verbal and non-verbal, there is a meaning, whether it is a long-term goal or a spontaneous need.

To identify the meaning within communication, the concept of discourse arises almost like a synonym for communication (Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014). “In communication, there is a dynamic connection among actors, action, meaning, and context, such that actions modify and elaborate existing connection or create new ones...” (Ellis, 1992, p.84, cited in Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014) - the distinction between them is that one acts “in” communication and “through” discourse, pointing that discourse is a form of communication to achieve a specific purpose, and it can be impacted by status, ethnicity, gender, professional or persona life,... (Jian et. al., 2008). For instance, take a woman in a management position – her meaning/intent will dictate how she communicates through discourse – Martin (2004) concluded that middle managers who are women use humor when negotiating their sense of self. According to Drazin et. al. (1999) “Meaning - or sense – develops about the situation, which allows the individual to act in some rational fashion; thus meaning – or sensemaking – is a primary generator of individual action” (p.293, cited in Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014).

1.2.3.3 Dean Barnlund’s Defining Aspects of Human Communication.

Dean Barnlund (2017) defined five essential aspects of communication between people. Firstly, “Communication is not a thing, it is a process” (Barnlund, 2017), meaning that unlike certain action (thought -> action), communication is everchanging, with no

beginning nor end, representing a constant and ongoing process – Amongst others, Barnlund suggests that the communication process starts with the characteristics, experiences, feelings, and skills of each individual that participates in a conversation for example.

Secondly, “Communication is not linear, it is circular” (Barnlund, 2017) which addresses the communication theoretical models: initially the process only accounted for the sender-receiver communication – The Action Model of Communication; later, the model evolved and started to take into consideration the responses of receivers, defining communication processes as the exchange of ideas/feedback/plans/words back and forth between the sender and receiver – The Interaction Model of Communication; and lastly, Barnlund (2017) proposed a new model that took into consideration the ongoing characteristics of communication, where it’s not a sender and a receiver, but communicators that send and receive messages, both verbal and non-verbal – The Transactional Model of Communication.

Thirdly, “Communication is complex” (Barnlund, 2017), suggesting that communication is more than exchanging messages between two people, as interpreting of each will also play a role in the process. Barnlund (2017) states that there are six people in one conversation (Johnson and Hackman, 2018): 1. Who you think you are; 2. Who you think the other person is; 3. Who you think the other person thinks you are; 4. Who the other person thinks he or she is; 5. Who the other person thinks you are; and 6. Who the other person thinks you think he or she is.

Fourthly, “Communication is irreversible” (Barnlund, 2017) which refers to the consequences of what was said. This means that when someone communicates more poorly, inflicting negative feelings and interpretations onto the receiver, there is a mark on the relationship for as long as it lasts. And lastly, “Communication involves the total personality”, which goes according to what Johnson and Hackman (2018) argued – communication is based on past experiences and skills, which are based on our personality traits.

1.2.3.4 Communication as a Transmission Process

The Handbook of Organizational Communication contains a contribution, “Leadership: A communicative perspective”, by Gail T. Fairhurst and Stacey L. Connaughton (2014) of an analysis of leadership communication, where they explore leadership from a transmissional perspective in forms of communication.

Organizational sciences were dominated by communication as a transmission process, due to the primary lens being cognitive and individual (Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014). Inputs, processes, and outputs can roughly define communication, and so, it should be used/treated as a channel that impacts something or someone – “the focus is on transmission and channel effects: message directionality, frequency, and fidelity; blockages that interfere with transmission; and perceptual filters that hinder message reception” (Axley, 1984; Putman, 2009). Connaughton and Daly (2004a, 2004b, 2005) analyzed leadership in teams that work virtually – through interviews with leaders, revealed factors of transmissional communication, concluding that to achieve success and effectiveness, certain aspects of communication are needed. These are frequency, equity, and adequacy of information, which rely on trust, and self-perceptions, among others (Fairhurst and Connaughton (2014).

Morgeson, et. al., (2010) developed a model that identifies different leadership functions, where communication is identified as a needed skill to achieve effectiveness. From two models of trust in leadership (Shockley-Zalabak et.l al., 2010; Burke et al., 2007), it was revealed that apart from the trust that followers put on leaders, there is also an upward communication of trust – Burke et. al. (2007) states “Taken together, by creating a sense of trust towards the team leader, communication lines will be opened up to transmit needed information to lead to innovation, error remediation/prevention, and an ever growing and reciprocated sense of trust between the team leader and the subordinate.” (p. 623). Here, it is possible to notice the need for trust to be reciprocal – On one hand, the leader earns the followers’ trust by leading by example, being there, and giving feedback, for example. On the other the leader also needs to trust that their followers will compromise and commit to the relationship. On a different note, some authors have focused on the effectiveness of transformational leadership, where it was concluded by one of the studies that this

leadership style has a higher level of impact on teams that work digitally rather than face-to-face teams (Purvanova and Bono, 2009).

Overall, communication can be understood as a transmissional channel, where the message/action has a certain impact and interpretation, and thus, creates a response/action back. Following, Fairhurst and Connaught (2014) examined the supervisor and subordinate relationship, which can include impression management (Sosik and Jung, 2003; Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014), contingencies that can impact the leadership style (Thompson and Vecchio, 2009), exchange of information, positive feedback on performance (both downward and upwards) (Sias, 2009). In another study, it was concluded that a teams' quantity and quality communication was indispensable for the overall performance (Marks et. al., 2000). Other scholars that focus on leadership are also starting to look at leadership processes that convey several factors, instead of focusing only on the leader as an individual (Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014). For instance, Morgeson et. al. (2010) developed a model for team leadership, comprising several indicators, one of them being communication.

2. Flourishing and Leadership

2.1 Flourishing: A Well-Being State

Well-being research has been in vogue, and with the increase of attention towards a “good life”, it has become a necessity and a measuring tool in the collective context (Layard, 2010). The importance is high to the point where the United Nations (2015) has included well-being in the Sustainable Development Goals. Haybron (2013) differentiated well-being into three categories: Positive emotions; Flourishing; and Life Satisfaction. Flourishing is the term used to refer to an overall human well-being (VanderWeele, 2017) and is often associated with happiness states (Gudka et. al., 2023). Overall, human flourishing success is when one individual is functioning at his/her optimal state.

Well-being and happiness are two needed “states” in someone’s life, and often, the common question is how to achieve it (Lenoir, 2016) and sustain it (Cebal-Loureda, 2022). The concept of flourishing is very broad, and like leadership, it has received high interest from different academic departments, such as psychology (Fredrickson, 2005) social and

human sciences (Breen, 2007; Schultz, 2000; Alexander and Peñalver, 2021; Chan et. al., 2018), approaches to economic and financial contexts (Giovanola, 2009), education and public health (Sellman, 2011) and environmental studies (Hannis, 2015). While some argue that a hedonic approach, focused on positive life satisfaction and emotion, is enough (Kashdan et. al., 2008), most believe that a deeper analysis, focused on a multidimensional scheme, where purpose, personal growth, meaning and positive relationships are also some of the key parts of flourishing (Fowers et. al., 2023; Ryff et. al., 2021; Fowers, 2005; Vitterso, 2016).

2.1.1 Concept Evolution

Human flourishing is often associated with an ancient Greek term – eudaimonia (Tarragona and Clarasó, 2023). Tarragona and Clarasó (2023) analysis this topic, and describes the origins of the concept, laying out four different pillars – firstly, Plato argues that eudaimonia happens via virtue, which results in a soul of harmony and coherence, the soul being the center of the concept; secondly, Aristotle believes it to be partly based on virtue and soul, but argues that certain external factors are also necessary, which are wealth, good friends and children, health and beauty (physical); thirdly, one’s more practical view, Epicurus believes that the meaning of human life is to achieve as much pleasure as possible while avoiding pain; and lastly, Stoics believes in the conversion of virtue onto the common good. (Tarragona and Clarasó, 2023).

Aristotle’s (1999; retrieved from Fowers et. al., 2024) studies regarding eudaimonia are what several consider to be the pioneer work on flourishing, serving as an influence for the past around 2500 years (Ryff, 1989; Fowers et. al., 2024; Vitterso, 2016). Aristotle defined flourishing as “a multidimensional representation of a rich, full life characterized by the activities and experiences that render that life is good.” (Fowers et. al., 2024, p.131). Studies show that hedonic well-being and eudaimonic well-being are linked, however, there is also evidence that they are not synonyms, only two concepts aligned but distinct at their core (Thorstein and Vitterson, 2020; Fowers et. al., 2024; Fredrickson et. al., 2013).

The mainstream approaches look at well-being as a level of positive emotions and life satisfaction (Diener et. al., 2018), representing hedonic approaches (Ryff et.al., 2021; Vitterso, 2016), basing its theory by putting happiness at the center of flourishing (Silva and

Caetano, 2013; Ryan and Deci, 2001). Hedonic views are often pursued through subjective well-being (SWB; Diener and Lucas, 1999), which have led to several measuring frameworks. Some are the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener et. al., 1985); the Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) (Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999), the Self-Anchoring Striving Scale (Cantril, 1965; retrieved from Silva and Caetano, 2013), the Personal Well-being Index (International Wellbeing Group, 2006), and the sixty-second happiness scale (Fordyce, 1988; retrieved from Silva and Caetano, 2013). These are often linked with The Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS), that was developed by Watson et. al. (1988 retrieved from Silva and Caetano, 2013), that aimed at evaluating the positive and/or negative emotions of the participants, within a specific period.

In contrast, several speak of eudaimonia, a deeper understanding of well-being, and often referred to as flourishing or the good life (Ryff et.al., 2021; Fowers, et.al., 2024). The Eudaimonia well-being approach is distinct and deeper than hedonic, as even though most concepts associated and used as measuring tools are linked to life satisfaction and/or positive emotions; eudaimonia well-being represents a multidimensional and multidisciplinary thesis. Eudaimonic views focus on how one lives compares to the self (Waterman, 1993), where well-being is a form of happiness. Often, the measures used under this type of approach are the Basic Needs Satisfaction Scale (BNS) (Ryan and Deci, 2001), and the Psychological Well-being Scales (Ryff and Keyes, 1995). Overall, well-being can be seen as a multidimensional concept that comprises theory from both perspectives (McGregor and Little, 1998; King and Napa, 1998; Deci and Ryan, 2008). Diener et. al. (2010) developed frameworks to assess both psychological and emotional functions. These are The Flourishing Scale (FS) and the Scale of Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE), developed by Diener and colleagues (2010). The FS was developed to complement other subjective well-being measures and comprises elements of positive functioning that appear to have a high influence on personal well-being (Ryff, 1989; Ryan and Deci, 2000).

These concepts can be Meaning, Purpose, and Positive relationships, for example (Ryff, 1989b; Fowers, 2016; Vitterso, 2016). Several scholars reference and explain well-being and happiness through eudaimonia (Ryff and Singer, 2008; Keyes and Annas, 2009; Richardson, 2012; Huta and Waterman, 2014; Fowers, 2005; Huta, 2013; Fowers 2023, Northouse, 2021; Bass and Bass, 2009). Examples are Diener et al. (2010), Ryff and Singer (2008), Keyes (2002), Seligman (2011), Frederickson and Losada (2005), Huppert and So

(2013), and Hone et. al. (2014) often depart from an Aristotelian view and refer to flourishing as a translation from eudaimonia.

Flourishing comprises several notions and influential elements – it is a concept grounded on psychological ideals, being associated with well-being on the emotional, psychological, and social level (Keyes, 2002; Diener et. al., 2010); is grounded on psychological assumptions of universal needs, like competence, relatedness, and self-acceptance (Ryff and Singer, 1998; Ryan and Deci, 2000); it's associated with ideas of individual growth and development, social network support, purpose and meaning, interpersonal relationships, mindfulness, positive reactivity, capability, hope, self-acceptance, similarity, optimism, and independence (Keyes, 2007; Diener et. al., 2010; Telef, 211; Byron, 2011; Kandarisi, 2013; Eraslan-Capan; 2016; Nelson et. al., 2016). On a last note, context of culture and history defines how the process of flourishing will happen – one's life span defines its personality, needs, wants, and actions, which shape meaning and purpose of life. (Bosch, 2022).

2.1.2 Eudaimonia Leads to Flourishing

Quoted and described in Fowers et. al. (2024, p.127), Aristotle (1999) poses two theories, which provide insightful contexts of parts of the good life for individuals. He states that “Every art or applied science and every systematic investigation, and similarly every action and choice seem to aim at some good”, followed by, “Every state is a community [polis] of some kind, and every community is established with a view to some good”. With both statements, it's possible to reflect the idea of a community, which is managed by a political environment. This political environment once more reinforces the sense of community, which is based on collective ideals and aims at bettering the community on the individual and collective level. The idea of good is therefore inherent when establishing policies – always bearing in mind that what is good for one individual can represent something else for another (Northouse, 2021). The community can be one whole city, a village, a household, a classroom, a company, amongst others. Hence, good and positive approaches occur in several contexts and levels, being a constantly ongoing process, where there is an aim to achieve good valuable goals (Fowers et al., 2024)

Fower et. al. (2024) built a “Neo-Aristotelian theory of Flourishing”, a eudaimonia thesis, that is based on the theory of Aristotle regarding good life and its appropriation. The

theory builds on four key spheres – defining good life; defining human goods; flourishing as a lifestyle; and virtues as the basis of good life. In the eudaimonia approach, flourishing is a dynamic pursuit of a good life by the use and development of one’s virtues (Fowers et al., 2024).

Fower et. al. (2024) agrees with Aristotle’s (1999) view of human flourishing – it represents what is good for people and that to live well, it’s necessary to understand both value and factual terms. Some scholars differentiate the term good between two conceptualizations – One is often associated with being a good person, with ethics and defined values; the other suggests a more abstract way of good, where good represents a set of goals, or even one goal, that presents meaningful outcomes (Fower et. al., 2023). However, some also argue, following Aristotle (1999), that a good person who is good is someone who thrives on getting goods that translate into meaningful outcomes, which translate into a good life. Eudaimonic theory reinforces that flourishing is an active, continuous, and constant process that everyone endorses, by managing obstacles, while using virtue traits to increase/influence flourishing. (Fowers et. al., 2024). For instance, a good can be “I will study Portugal’s history from the beginning to today” - here the purpose is to study, the meaning is to be fully educated on the matter, and the good is the knowledge that one receives – flourishing here is represented by one understanding that he will be fully equipped for a discussion on the topic while being humble to realize that there’s always more to learn, and opinions to change.

Lee et. al. (2021) considers that human flourishing happens when one finds himself in a “complete well-being” state, where vital components that are esteemed across cultures present to be “...as ends in themselves rather than... means to ends” (Lee and Mayor, 2023, p.49). These components can be considered only on the individual level, comprising five spheres - “Happiness and life satisfaction, physical and mental health, meaning and purpose, character and virtue, and close social relationships.” (Lee and Mayor, 2023, p. 50). However, if on the individual level, close social relationships are considered, one can argue that to flourish, one needs to be surrounded by those who will motivate and flourish along. Hence, VanderWeele (2017) considers that individual flourishing is sustained by collective flourishing, which calls for an analysis of mutuality; a sense of belonging, justice, and trust; individual and collective mission; effective leadership; mutual trust; and relational development. Flourishing is also connected to spiritual well-being, which can often be the reason to increase motivation (Lee, et. al., 2021). The interconnection between

material and spiritual well-being is referred to as intersystemic flourishing (Lee and Mayor, 2023). This perspective values the relationship between context and social spheres with psychological aspects, constituting an “ontological interconnectedness”, which comprises both health and flourish (Delle Fave et. al., 2016, p.1; Slife and Richardson, 2008).

This ontological perspective is very interesting in a way that explains flourishing as an interdependent process – Lee and Mayor (2023) compare human flourishing to a flower and soil, arguing that a flower can’t sustainably flourish without the soil, just like the soil can’t stay sustainable without life in it, such as flowers. The comparison basis on the concept of “interdependent origination” (Manga, 2008, p.121), which comprises that the “soil” (the context/environment) where one grows can only be sustainable for the “flower” (the individual within a collective context) to become aware of its capabilities, and flourish. Group dynamics and its analysis are important, as in general, flourishing aspects happen through the interaction of one single person, the flower, with the collective, the soil (Lee and Mayor, 2023). Following this, Fower and Christakis (2008, p.8) add that “people are embedded in social networks... the health and well-being of one person affects the health and well-being of others”. Hence, to allow for human flourishing, it is important to socialize in a sustainable and positive environment, while interacting and establishing relationships.

Studies show that having a social network is linked to well-being (Fower and Christakis, 2008; Holt-Lunstad et. al., 2010). The capacity and form one perceive, and is perceived within a group context is connected to well-being (McPherson et. al., 2006; Li et. al., 2020). On the contrast, feeling excluded, isolated, and/or lonely represents strong predictions/tendencies of illness, morality, and others (Holt-Lunstad et. al., 2015), having a higher impact than bad healthy habits, like smoking or not exercising (Cacioppo and Patrick, 2008). Overall, one can argue that social engagement and sense of belonging is both a fact and a value that contribute to human flourishing, being positive influences. Nevertheless, understanding that one individual belongs to several communities at the same time, it is possible to draw specific conclusions from one’s close relationships. One’s existence of close relationships, such as first degrees of family, lovers and friends represent key connections with one’s life satisfaction, health, positive influence, flourishing, and longevity (Lee and Ono, 2012; Demir et. al., 2013; Anderson and Fowers, 2020; Shor et. al., 2013). Close relationships show a direct correlation to flourishing indicators. These relationships affect one three levels of flourishing – reciprocal commitment for the person; the regard for reciprocal welfare; the common goals between the parties.

2.1.2.1 Dimensions/Influencing Factors on Flourishing

-Meaning, Sensemaking and Purpose

Since Aristotle's work, several have searched to develop it, offering different perspectives. For instance, the "Fitting-Fulfilment" perspective of flourishing by Sarah Wolf (2012) reflects a sense of one's fulfillment of wants and needs through a meaningful view – meaning is thus what causes the action and can be achieved by ordinary aspects or big life-time goals. As Goethe argued "Knowing is not enough; we must apply. Willing is not enough; we must do" (cited in Strong, 2022, p.87), which corresponds to Wolf's (2012) idea, that meaning calls for action and action calls for behaviors based on specific goals – to flourish is to not strive for but to act. Overall, one's wants, values, and needs are the basis of meaning that also dictate what actions are taken, hence, they are what shapes one's behaviors (Strong, 2022). The question is thus, how to build a meaningful style/approach/view of life.

Meaning is usually "created" by drivers, like hunger or thirst, however, in more complex contexts, these drivers allow for human flourishing (Chater & Loewenstein, 2015). It is correct to assume that each driver, and therefore meaning, will differ from individual to individual, from society to society, and so on, representing the sensemaking of all (Strong, 2022). Since we live in an interconnected, complex, and vast world, to explain how sensemaking in life is produced, some explain it through the power of imagination (Strong, 2022; Zittoun and Gillespie, 2015). Lev Vygotsky, a psychologist, believes imagination to be the source of life, as it allows us to "escape" from reality and depart to a state of creative freedom - "Imagination is a comparatively autonomous activity of consciousness in which there is a departure from any immediate cognition of reality" (Vygotsky, 1987, retrieved from Strong, 2022, p. 88).

Furthering this idea, Zittoun and Gillespie (2015) argue that imagination can be pure creativity, as well as a possible future reality for one's professional life, or for society. As the authors explain, imagination can impact and help shape societies and their respective cultures - "It is the fundamental process by which we can explore and share our past ... our own, and that of the world – and perhaps, set un in motion toward it" (Zittoun and Gillespie, 2015; retrieved from Strong, 2022, p. 88). Therefore, imagination allows us to construct

possible realities by looking at the future, driving us to achieve it. The driver to achieve, and the success of it, can be understood as flourishing. This can be even more noticeable when people work together to achieve something, creating a collective thought, goal, and action, which creates a sense of purpose (Wolf, 2012). Overall, the action of turning imagination into a reality (flourishing) requires, once again, a capacity to deal with change and manage adaptation - “At the heart of flourishing is an intense relationship between intention and behavior: we may know what we need to flourish but we do not properly flourish until we start to enact change.” (Strong, 2022, p. 89)

Fower’s et. al. (2024) argues that meaning is often associated with purpose (Ryff, 1989). Purpose is characterized by one’s actions being directed by personal meaningful goals, whereas meaning regards the importance and consistency of life (King and Hicks, 2021). -Steger (2012, p. 165) defined meaning as “...the web of connections, understandings, and interpretations that help us comprehend our experience and formulate plans directing our energies to the achievement of our desired future.” (Retrieved from Fowers et. al., 2024). He adds that meaning is what gives us life purpose and helps us realize that life goes beyond the years we spend, but what we make to contribute and make our life worthwhile. Meaning is found to be related to well-being and depression, influencing positively and negatively, correspondingly (King et. al., 2006; Steger and Kashdan, 2007).

-Virtues

Virtues play a key role in one’s flourishing process, impacting on several fronts. Bosh (2023) argues that flourishing is about living through the best of humanity, rather than a subjective state thriving by positive life satisfaction and emotions. Even though it can have a psychological connotation, it’s “an activity” of the mind, “rather than a psychological state”. Further, according to Broadie (1991), virtue is a characteristic that only impacts an individual’s functioning level, ranging from standard functioning to functioning well. Virtues represent traits that can be learned and developed, showing positive correlations to flourishing (Fowers, 2005).

-Sense of Belonging and Close Relationships

Studies show that having a social network is linked to well-being (Fower and Christakis, 2008; Holt-Lunstad et. al., 2010). The capacity and form one perceives and is perceived within a group context are connected to well-being (McPherson et. al., 2006; Li

et. al., 2020). In the contrast, feeling excluded, isolated, and/or lonely represents strong predictions/tendencies of illness, morality, and others (Holt-Lunstad et. al., 2015), having a higher impact than bad healthy habits, like smoking or not exercising (Cacioppo and Patrick, 2008). Overall, one can argue that social engagement and sense of belonging is both a fact and a value that contribute to human flourishing, being positive influences. Nevertheless, understanding that one individual belongs to several communities at the same time, it is possible to draw specific conclusions from one's close relationships. One's existence of close relationships, such as first degrees of family, lovers and friends represent key connections with one's life satisfaction, health, positive influence, flourishing, and longevity (Lee and Ono, 2012; Demir et. al., 2013; Anderson and Fowers, 2020; Shor et. al., 2013). Close relationships show a direct correlation to flourishing indicators. These relationships affect one three levels of flourishing – reciprocal commitment for the person; the regard for reciprocal welfare; the common goals between the parties.

2.1.2.2 Flourishing: An Act of Change

Collin Strong (2023) argues that flourishing is the capability to adapt and change, not a state to strive for. This facet of human flourishing demands management of change and adaptation, as life is a continuous event and needs constant review and event anticipation, due to internal and external factors (Ingold, 2021). Tim Ingold (2021) states “where there is human life there is never anything but happening. Life is not; it goes on” - He suggests the term “human becomings” and furthers by arguing that the capacity to “become” is what represents human flourishing. To become, or to go through change and adapt, is central, and so, from an organizational perspective, it is necessary to manage the relationships among individuals, the contexts they function in, and how the intended goals are reached, to achieve flourishing (Strong, 2022). Flourishing is a vital concept (Cooke et. al., 2016; VanderWeele, 2017; Bosch, 2022; Ryff, 1989; Fowers et. al., 2023). One thing is clear, we all desire to live a good life, where the definition of a “good life” differs from individual to individual (Fowers et al., 2023; Fowers et al., 2024; Martela and Sheldon, 2019).

The main concern sometimes with adaptation or managing change is often the unclear path to flourish and thus create change. Strong (2022) argues that there are three obstacles to enacting change – Firstly, the internal challenges one is presented when change

is not apparent, as to enact change, one needs to unlock the mind to allow change to occur (Strong, 2022). However, even if one is open to change, Solnit (2017) argues that often the path is often blurred, as the desired emotion is the goal – Inspiration, love, and success – but the transformative path to achieve can sometimes be challenging. It is important to understand that to desire is to aspire, and even though it requires ambition, usually the aspiration comes from a void in one’s life (Callard, 2018). Hence, the experiences of someone can lead to a feeling of missing something and wanting to be in a different state, in whatever context of life it might be. Ambition is then a behavior that one detains and uses as a tool to keep growing and is usually directed to themes such as fame, wealth or power – these themes can often be praised or noted by others (Callard, 2018). However, to flourish is to enact change in one’s life, and so we should think of flourishing in regards to aspiring and not ambitioning (Strong, 2022).

An ambition has an attached sense of a clear path, as usually to be rich or to have power, is almost like know-how/strategy game. An aspiration, even though something needs to be done, it is necessary to be in constant review as there are barriers when becoming/transforming into a different sense of self (Strong, 2022) These barriers can be derived from identity aspects, how one perceives him/herself; possible outcomes/consequences, the risk that relate to certain actions/behaviors; and, emotional aspects, whether one’s feeling positive or negative emotions (Strong, 2022) Adding to these self-barriers, the external environment can also have a big impact on one’s flourishing process. Specifically, nowadays, live in a fast-paced context on several fronts.

The sociologist Bauman (2007) argues that we function in a “liquid” environment, where long-term thinking and planning are becoming outdated, and a proactive and adaptive approach is favored, due to the constant and rapid change. Some scholars argue that this rapidly changing environment is here to stay, rather than a stage that will pass (Strong, 2022, Bauman; 2007) referring to it as “social acceleration”, where uncertainty and the need to adapt are the only assurances (Rosa, 2015). Hence, one needs to learn how to deal with uncertainty and still find meaning to adapt and flourish. The impact of external factors in one’s flourishing process is also affected by culture and social contexts, that dictate the decisions one must make. Hence, the driver for our behaviors is the notion of what one seeks, meaning, our flourishing process is affected by past experiences, but above all, our expectations and wants for the future (Seligman et. al., 2013). These behaviors are

guided through a set of possible actions and outcomes one establishes, aiding when enacting change (Strong, 2022).

To establish and enter a flourishing process, one need not forget the importance of the environment and his/her relationship with others. However, it is specifically important that in concordance, the enactment of change happens, otherwise, flourishing can't happen (Strong, 2022). The author also notes that it's important to understand that it's an ongoing process comprised of several unknown goals, rather than a goal that can be achieved. After analyzing several variables of flourishing, Bosch (2022, p.232) concludes that "being conscious of the fact that we are practically responsible of our own flourishing is important in order to promote a higher level of well-being". Hence, flourishing is indeed a complete well-being of an individual, in sync with a flourishing community.

2.1.2.3 Different Conceptions of Flourishing

Overall, flourishing is often associated with well-being, and acts as a tool to measure it; however, depending on the author, there are different conceptions of it.

According to Frederickson and Losada (2005) "To flourish means to live within an optimal range of human functioning, one that connotes goodness, generativity, growth, and resilience" (p.678). Seligman (2011) defines flourishing as "an arrangement of positive emotion, engagement, meaning, positive relationships and accomplishment" (p.16). Keyes (2002) believes flourishing represents increased levels of psychological, emotional and social well-being, and that high levels of it contribute to a life of flourishing (Keyes, 2013). Ryff (1989) argues for two variances of well-being, psychological well-being and subjective well-being. Diener (2000) defines subjective well-being as a balance between negative and positive influence, and Ryff (2014) defines psychological well-being as the ideal psychological functions consequently from long-term emotional well-being. According to Keyes and Ryff (1995) there are six components of psychological well-being - "positive evaluations of oneself and one's past life (self-acceptance), a sense of continued growth and development as a person (personal growth), the belief that one's life is purposeful and meaningful (purpose in life), the possession of quality relationships with others (positive relations with others), the capacity to manage effectively one's life and surrounding world (environmental mastery), and a sense of self-determination (autonomy)"

(p.720). Huppert and So (2009, 2013) argue that to measure flourishing two elements are needed – Firstly, general characteristics like positive emotions, meaning and purpose, and engagement; Secondly, additional characteristics, such as resilience, positive relationships, self-esteem, self-determination, optimism and vitality. (retrieved from Mesurado et al., 2018, p. 455).

Moreover, Seligman (2011) advocates for flourishing as a deeper well-being state, as the focus is not only on individual positive emotions, but on communities as well. Further, Seligman (2011) developed a flourishing model named PERMA that stands for: Positive emotions; Engagement; Relationships; Meaning; Accomplishment – for him, these are the needed variables for sustainable flourishing (retrieved from Toussaint et. al., 2023) According to Ryff (2024), there are six components of well-being, which comprise – environmental mastery, positive relationships, purpose in life, autonomy, self-acceptance, and personal growth. Ryff (1989) developed this well-being model based on work from several scholars who lacked assessment procedures, but indeed contributed to the explanation of well-being, as well as from Aristotle's work regarding Eudaimonia (retrieved from Ryff, 2024). The prior, referred mostly to maturity (Allport, 1961), life tendencies (Bühler, 1935), self-development (Erikson, 1959), meaning (Frankl, 1959), mental health (Jahoda, 1958), individuation (Jung, 1933), self-actualization (Maslow, 1968), personality's executive processes (Neugarten, 1973), and fully functioning individual (Rogers, 1961) (retrieved from Ryff, 2024). The later, regarded mostly hedonic traits and defined the highest positive as an action from within (the soul) that is intertwined with virtue (Bosch, 2022).

The academic body mostly agrees that flourishing is indeed about the already mentioned concepts, as well as happiness and close relationships. However, Peterson and Seligman (2004), VanderWeele (2017) and VanderWeele et. al. (2019) argue by adding another variable to flourishing, which regards “being a good person” (character) with virtues (Gardiner, 2005). One can almost argue that flourishing presents as an understandable concept. However, due to its endless possibilities and external influences that are out of everyone's reach, it creates acknowledged grey areas and obstacles for those who study it.

2.1.2.4 Concluding Thoughts

Bosch (2022) compiled a book with contributions from several authors from different disciplines, to establish a connection between well-being and flourishing, forming an interdisciplinary book - “Human Flourishing”. This work offers a complete analysis and interesting conclusions on flourishing. The last chapter holds a combination analysis of all the contributions made, and the author considers that there are three categories of flourishing definitions.

On an interesting note, regarding human biology and flourishing, Waugh (2023) shares her views and findings regarding the impact of the brain on one’s flourishing. Flourishing was analyzed from several perspectives, flourishing as a trait theory; as a behavior; and the brain’s representation of flourishing. Following, Waugh’s (2023) views of flourishing.

Firstly, flourishing as an in-born trait was analyzed from a brain perspective – According to Diener and Lucas (1999) subjective well-being, cognitive and affective dimensions are related to personality traits like extraversion (positive) or neuroticism (negative) levels, which can be assumed to be predictors of the subjective well-being. Several authors have also correlated brain structure measurements with flourishing – “voxel-based morphometry, which measures the density of gray matter in a particular region.” (Waugh, 2023). Often the density of gray matter is positively associated with higher performance level of the brain parcel’s intent, meaning that it will have a positive impact on the function of that part of the brain (Kanai and Rees, 2011). Other scholars have concurred and added contributions to the flourishing trait theories (Sato et al., 2016; Kong et al., 2019; Matsunaga et al., 2016; Lewis et al., 2014). Moreover, Goldbeck et. al., (2019), amidst others, have concluded that two specific brain functions were performing as network hubs that are stronger in high flourishing people compared to low flourishing people. This approach is like the one psychologist does when analyzing depression (Gotlib and Hamilton, 2008) or anxiety (Etkin et. al., 2009). In contrast, there are limitations to these approaches, as there are different outcomes and conclusions, that create a scholar disagreement – While Sato et. al. (2016) concluded that subjective happiness and the density of gray matter to be positively related, Kong et. al. (2015) found the correlation to be negative. Another obstacle of this approach is the obvious explanation to how brain functions contribute to flourishing, as well as consistent relations between parts of the brain

and the flourishing of individuals (M. L. King, 2019). The characterization of a flourished person can't be entirely explained by gray matter or brain functions, hence, there is a need to further the concept of flourishing (Waugh, 2023). Furthering, thinking of flourishing as a behavior, one must address ones' personality as a collection of trait behaviors' (Fleeson, 2001), and motivational and interpretation procedures (Jayawickreme et. al., 2018). Meaning that how one acts is a set of behaviors that are pre-defined by our personality. Our perceptions of life, experiences, communication, and others, are based on how we perceive ourselves, impacting our daily decisions and actions. One's image and self-perception derive from several elements – Personality traits, which can also be impacted by one's brain, as suggested by Waugh (2023); Having a purpose: it serves as a tool to thrive and find direction, as purpose represents an intention to achieve something meaningful (Ryff and Singer, 1998). With purpose, one can navigate and take each step necessary to achieve the goals established.

Further, the impacts of our decisions to achieve our purpose need to be from a positive perspective of life, in terms of self and collective growth, otherwise, flourish can't happen (Lee and Mayor, 2023). -Emotions: The emotional state of an individual can impact the emotional state of others, meaning, if one is feeling happy, he/she will spread that happiness around him, improving the mood of others. This interconnection is equal to negative connection, so it is necessary to identify our emotions and differentiate them, separating what is good and be used as a resource to achieve our purpose. Hence, we can conclude that if close relationships are an integral part of flourishing, along with a positive approach to life, one needs to first understand the individual and collective emotions to be able to flourish. Our life experiences have the power of “changing the way we see the world” (Lee and Mayor, 2023, p. 5) - The way one perceives his/her life, actions, and consequences can often have a high impact on us, changing our purpose and meaning in life. Therefore, intense experiences, often feelings of loss and/or suffering, can impact our perceptions, deeply to realize whether one is flourishing or not (Lee and Mayor, 2023). Moreover, moral emotions play also an important part in our perceptions that impact flourishing – for example, the capacity for forgiveness is a show of character that contributes to good mental and physical health, and happiness (Toussaint, 2023). Overall, we can conclude with Waugh's (2023) idea – our perception of what's a good life is dependent on how the brain pictures a good life. Following, even though one's relationship with the self is decisive for successful flourishing, it is also important to note that the

previous discussion favors an individual within a collective environment, where one's flourishing is interconnected to the flourishing of the community.

Within Lee and Mayor (2023) and Toussaint emotional approaches to flourishing, we can also transport it to our relationship with others – Knowing that our support net exists, knowing that those whom we care for also care for us, amongst other emotional states/consequences, can enhance the relationships of individuals while promoting flourishing. Our perceptions shape our actions and, therefore, purposes, but the way we carry ourselves and relate to others also shape our actions and purposes – For example, someone who is sick will have higher or lower chances of improving, depending on how the surrounding relationships react (Waugh, 2023; Bosh, 2024). Do they show support and try to embrace the positiveness to help and motivate the individual to get better? Do they show sympathy and only see the sickness? Do they leave and show no support? The way the patient is treated will impact how he perceives his flourishing. Another good example is Balda's (2022) article on "Balenciaga and the Importance of Creativity in Human Flourishing", where Balenciaga noted an impact on the flourishing of his team and his clients, by serving to glorify their entire person, impacting emotions and making clients happier.

Also, Grau-Grau (2023) concluded that having a quality parental relationship positively impacts the flourishing of both children and parents. All these examples show one common denominator – The way we live and act, has an impact on those around us, being reciprocal. The individual and collective impact will be positive if one searches and foments quality relations. It is then necessary to identify which elements can be positive and negative to one's flourishing. A positive variable can be kindness and patience (Bosch, 2022) - showing kindness to another person shows improvement in the relationship and enriches the support network of both individuals. Here we can draw the "collective" approach to flourish, as having a support network can make one feel more secure and therefore have the space and tools needed to grow. Work, family, and friends form a complete ecosystem that impacts the individual – the involvement in several positions and tasks at work improves professional flourishing, parenting involvement promotes a sustainable well-being transition into adult life (Barraza et. al., 2023), all these together, if sustainably managed, have a positive impact on one's flourishing (Bosch, 2022).

In organizations, it would be beneficial to make aware and promote positive personal environments, to improve work outcomes. By improving work outcomes, one better's and strengths social and family ties. Overall, facilitating positive interactions between members will increase flourishing of the collective, and therefore, individually as well. Connecting the interconnection with the self and with others, we can also draw conclusions between flourishing and the environment. The social-economic level one was born in plays an important advantage to those who have more and better opportunities, promoting higher flourishing levels. Those who connect deeply and on several levels with one's work, are also able to promote higher flourishing levels – Good examples, already mentioned, were Balenciaga who impacted his clients, and made an impact on the fashion sphere, or Antonio Gaudí, who has impacted Barcelona's' architecture and all of the people who pass through La Sagrada Familia. The environment can also be affected by time passing by – The historical contributions that lead to evolution also play an important role in people's perceptions, changing what can be considered flourishing or not.

2.1.2.5 Flourishing Academic Obstacles

According to Fower et.al., (2023)'s analysis, there are three obstacles when studying flourishing. Firstly, the lack of theoretical coherence is due to the rush to reach measurement scales, rather than focusing on the theoretical concept itself – For example, there is no evidence to support or contradict characterization of flourishing as universal, but only an academic assumption. The second obstacle is “empirical tractability” (Fowers et. al., 2023, p. 122), which stands for the lack of consensus when it comes to assessing which components are included in flourishing and which aren't - most research focus on psychometrics and self-report scales, which some argue that it is insufficient to test the validity of flourishing levels (Fowers, 2014; Cooke et. al., 2016). For example, in a large study regarding flourishing in New Zealand, different results ranging from 24% to 47% were presented, depending on which components were considered (Hoone et. al. 2014). The third obstacle is thus universality – Most models, definitions, in general, most research regarding flourishing, are influenced by Western and American cultures, and no argument was supported by empirical and theoretical evidence of the possibility of appliance worldwide Fowers et. al. (2023).

2.2 Flourishing Scales

Establishing that flourish is a “complete well-being state” (Seligman, 2011; Hone et. al. 2014; Lee et. al., 2021), where physical and mental health play an important role, as they are affected throughout the whole flourishing process. This chapter will present several alternatives for measurement schemes, which can be used as a tool to measure an individual’s and community’s flourishing levels - “as a society, we need to know how people can flourish” (Dun and Dougherty, 2008, p.134). Some of the benefits of analyzing and measuring well-being, are to evaluate change in the short and long term; review and adapt policies; allow comparison; rate the contrasts of subgroups; identify and plan future needs and opportunities; judge the consequences of proposed policies; and to strategize how to implement policies (Michaelson et. al., 2009). The desire to be happy is becoming more important, and this has led several organizations, and even countries, to put well-being as one of the main priorities to address (Easton, 2006; Weijers and Jarden, 2013). Well-being is already recognized to be a multi-dimensional concept, and one can already conclude from previous research that flourishing requires high levels of well-being (Diener et. al., 2010; Huppert and So, 2009; Seligman, 2011; Fredrickson and Losada, 2005; Keyes, 2002).

It is already possible to state that flourishing is a concept with little consensus when it comes to defining it to reach necessary conclusions. Cooke et. al. (2016), Fowers et. al., (2023), and Hoone et. al., (2014), amongst others, have reviewed several theories and measuring scales of flourishing, each study with its own exclusion criteria. These assessments were done by using several search engines to search for flourishing related articles, aided by the advanced search engine, where connected topics, such as eudaimonia, psychological well-being, meaning, and others served as filters to better assess the intended objective. Overall, there is a group of theses from scholars that stand out in flourishing research. These are – Psychological Well-Being Scale (Ryff, 1989); PERMA scale (Seligman, 2011); the Flourishing Index (VanderWeele, 2017); the Mental Health Continuum (Keyes, 2002); the Flourishing Scale (Diener et. al., 2010); Flourishing (Huppert and So, 2013); the Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-Being (Waterman et. al., 2010); and the Comprehensive Index of Thriving (Su et. al., 2014). Nevertheless, this dissertation followed Seligman’s steps, implementing the PERMA Model further ahead.

For a deeper understanding of each scale, refer to the authors mentioned with the scales, as well as, Fowers et. al. (2023); Mesurado et. al. (2021), Keyes (1998), Keyes and Simoes, 2012), Keyes (2005), Keyes et. al. (2010); Watters (2010), Awaad and Reicherter (2016), Henrich et. al. (2010), American Psychiatric Association (2013), and Wiese et. al. (2018), VanderWeele (2017), Bradburn (1969), Silva and Caetano (2013).

2.2.1 PERMA Model

Seligman et al. (2011) theorized a model referred to as PERMA – Positive Emotions; Engagement; Relationships; Meaning in Life; Accomplishments – comprising five variables that even though analyzed individually, can be linked and analyzed as a construct (Seligman, 2011). Seligman (2011, p. 13) wrote “I now think that the topic of positive psychology is well-being, that the gold-standard for measuring well-being is flourishing, and that the goal of positive psychology is to increase flourishing” (retrieved from Fowers et. al., 2023, p. 126). The basis of inclusion defined by Seligman (2011) are – the contribution to well-being level; the chase of it because of the self; and that each component defines itself - “Essentially a theory of uncoerced choice, and its five elements comprise what free people will choose for their own sake.” (p.16; retrieved from Fowers et. al., 2023, p. 126). PERMA-Profiler was created by measuring several items, comprising 11.905 individuals from several countries, which resulted in the 5 final PERMA domain (Hoone et. al., 2014). Later, the final version of PERMA – PERMA-P - includes 16 items that refer to the 5 already mentioned components, and an additional general well-being category, to consider cultural matters (Butler and Kern, in press, 2013). Each of the 3 items corresponds to one of the 5 components, and the 16th item corresponds to the additional component by Butler and Kern (2013). These are evaluated through an 11-point Linkert scale where, in some cases, 0 stands for “never” and 10 for “always”, and in other cases, 0 stands for “not at all” and 10 “completely”. Experiences are categorized differently, resourcing to responses scales - “How Often?”; “In General”; “To What Extent”, and others.

Seligman (2011) believed that his flourishing framework completely represented the PERMA components. In contrast, Butler and Kern (2013) didn’t provide new insights to categorize flourishing. However, their study aimed to reach an average of each 3-item

group, resulting in a single component, scoring from 0 to 10, where higher scores align with higher well-being levels. In his statement, when he speaks of “free people” and of “uncoerced choice”, he has no account for cultural factors, and individual and collective contexts (Fowers et. al., 2023). The free person and choice, in Seligman’s (2011) view, is based on Western, Educated, Industrialized; Rich; and Democratic (WEIRD) (Henrich et. al., 2010). However, it has been applied to countries with opposite cultures, like the United Arab Emirates (Lambert et. al., 2020).

2.3 Flourishing and Leadership

An organization’s focus used to be heavily directed towards economic performance, where an employee was a resource to be used. Nowadays, this focus has shifted and is now balanced between economic and human capital, where employees need to be cherished and motivated to take the organization to the next level. Employees are no longer expected to follow directives without questioning it – the aim now is to enable proactivity and initiative from the employee side, while providing support for development and decision-making (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). What organizations need is in truth dedicated and engaged employees - “Employee contribution becomes a critical business issue..., companies have no choice but to try to engage not only the body but the mind and soul of every employee.” (Ulrich, 1997; retrieved from Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008, p.1). So, how can this happen?

Management practices, which prioritize the organizational goals, above all else, can’t be an adequate answer. Leadership on the other hand, can have a powerful impact on employees' engagement and motivation levels. As we’ve seen, there are several definitions for leadership, and several approaches to it, however, from the previous discussion, one can argue that positive leadership approaches are much more favorable to promote this engagement. This is not to say that some leadership styles aim at promoting negative outcomes, but to differentiate those who aim at preventing the negative emotions, the D’s approach for example (disorder, damage, dysfunction, disease), and those who aim at fostering positive extra emotions, aiming at a complete well-being (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). This complete well-being can be associated with one’s flourishing process – where one individual grows mutually with the team/community/society is in, where emotional influences have a high impact on one’s self-perfection of life (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008).

From the discussion up until this point, one can draw certain conclusions – Leadership is the power to influence those around you, where it is considered successful when followers grow and become leaders themselves. Nevertheless, one can also argue that not all leadership styles aim at seeing followers grow, like the Autocratic Leadership style.

This facet of leadership – aiming at followers' growth – can be somewhat connected to human flourishing. As stated before, for the purpose of this discussion, we will consider human flourishing through Aristotle's eudaimonia approach, where flourishing represents the complete well-being of an individual within a flourishing society (Diener, 1991; Keyes, 2002; Huppert and So, 2013; Su et. al., 2014; Seligman, 2011; Tyler Vanderweele; 2017; Waterman et. al., 2010, Diener et. al., 2010). In a sense, equivalent to leadership, follower/leader relationships can only be sustainable if both parties are contributing for the leadership process.

2.3.1 Employee Engagement and Flourishing Work Components

Employee engagement is a key element to achieving higher competitive advantage (Macey and Schneider, 2008). Moreover, an organization that promotes engagement sees a positive impact on the financial front (Badal and Harter, 2014). It's possible to argue that employee engagement will lead to higher retention, work satisfaction, trust, loyalty and motivation, which increases business performance (Bass, 1999; Hughes, 2015).

From the previous discussion, one can conclude that leadership is the force behind a positive and sustainable workflow. Leadership is the power of influencing employees to achieve the common goal, and depending on the style used, one of its bases is constant growth and development (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2010). For instance, we've previously seen that transformational leaders aim at building trustful and loyal relationships, aiding his/her followers to be committed, motivated, and perform well. This trust culture is what allows for the transformation to happen, and in some cases, the followers eventually become leaders (Bass, 2008). Would it be plausible to compare this "transformation" process as a sign of flourishing? - After all, flourishing is the enactment of change in oneself, through a complete well-being state, throughout time. Further, according to Harter et. al., (retrieved from Rautenbach, 2015), flourishing on the individual and organizational fronts, leads to overall happiness and organizational success.

To flourish in the organizational context, one needs to enter a changing era and pay attention to certain elements. Following, it's possible to see Rautenbach's (2015, p.29) tables, presented as Figure 1 and Figure 2, where all flourishing work components are listed, based on Rothman's (2013) proposal.

Flourishing at work (adapted from Rothmann, 2013)		
Component	Work factor	Description
Emotional well-being	Job satisfaction	Like or dislike the job
	Positive affect	Feel happy, cheerful, high-spirited
	Negative affect	Feel depressed, upset, and bored at work
Psychological well-being	Autonomy satisfaction	Satisfaction of the desire to experience freedom and choice when carrying out tasks
	Competence satisfaction	Satisfaction of desire to feel effective in interacting with the environment
	Relatedness satisfaction	Satisfaction of individuals' needs to feel connected to others, to love and care for others, and to be loved and cared for
	Engagement	Individuals express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally in their job
	Learning	Perceives that one is acquiring and can apply knowledge and skills to one's work

Figure 1. Rautenbach's Flourishing Work Components (2015, P.6)

	Meaning and purpose	Experiences work as meaningful, understands how work contributes to life's meaning, and senses what makes a job worthwhile. Feels that the work makes a difference in the world and serves a greater purpose
Social well-being	Social acceptance	Positive attitude towards others and acceptance of diversity in organization
	Social actualization (growth)	Believes in potential of others (individuals, groups and organizations)
	Social contribution	Regards own daily activities as adding value to the organization and to others
	Social coherence	Finds the organization and social life meaningful and comprehensible
	Social integration	Experiences sense of relatedness, comfort and support from the organization

Figure 2. Rautenbach's Flourishing Work Components (2015, P.6)

Rautenbach's (2015) work flourishing components comprise elements from three well-being pillars – emotional, psychological and social. Note that some scholars also argue that physical health is also very important (Waugh, 2023). However, a resume of the table above – Under emotional well-being, Rautenbach mention “Job Satisfaction” and “Positive Affect”; Under psychological well-being, the author mentions “Negative Affect”, “Autonomy Satisfaction”, “Competence Satisfaction”, “Relatedness Satisfaction”, “Engagement”, “Learning”, and “Meaning and Purpose”; Under social well-being, the mentioned elements regard “Social Acceptance”, “Social Actualization (growth)”, “Social Contribution”, “Social Coherence”, and “Social Integration”. All of these concepts have been developed throughout this discussion, noting that several leadership theories, as well as flourishing theories, are to some extent related/based on the prior concepts mentioned.

SD

2.3.2 Positive Leadership

Positive Leadership is “the systematic and integrated manifestation of leadership traits, processes, intentional behaviors and performance outcome that are elevating, exceptional and affirmative of the strengths, capabilities and developmental potential of leaders, their followers and their organizations over time and across contexts.”, according

to Youssef Morgan and Luthans (retrieved from Ramdas and Patrick, 2019). Several have implemented this positive psychological approach to leadership and have successfully increased the organization's productivity while increasing the well-being of employees simultaneously (Sonja and Stander, 2014; Mills et. al., 2013).

One can argue that when promoting positive psychology in the workplace, one is truly promoting positive organizational behavior (POB) and scholarship (POS) (Ramdas and Patrick, 2019), which require and are achieved through concepts/notions of leadership, engagement, growth and empowerment (Mills et. al., 2013). Further, one can also argue that these also constitute key notions for the flourishing process of all – both individually and collectively.

Leaders who are positive and lead through positive emotion usually focus on employees' strengths by supporting and leading through mentoring and coaching, aiding employees to perform better and grow their skills (Ramdas and Patrick, 2019). This is what positive leadership represents (Zohar and Tenne-Gazit, 2008) – the focus on strengths rather than weaknesses, being an aid and coach rather than a higher feared figure, enabling development through critical thinking rather than not being challenged when completing tasks, and overall, promoting a collective culture based on relationships of trust and sense of belonging. Positive leadership can then lead to increased relationships between employees and between leaders and employees, which leads to higher levels of trust, promoting a positive and empowered organizational culture (Skakon et. al., 2010; Carnegie, 2016). Further, the environment promoted by this leadership approach is beneficial both on the individual and collective level – By creating a happy sense of belonging, it increases well-being levels of employees, which contributes to the achievement of organizational goals and growth of the organization itself (Sue, 2016).

Leading through positive influence is to provide feedback, critically comment on one's obstacles by offering solutions/views on how to turn those obstacles into strengths, which has been identified as a motivational factor (Ryan and Deci, 2000). According to Seligman and Schulman (1986) and later to Arakawa and Greenberg (2007), good job performance is highly correlated with positive leadership approaches (retrieved from Ramdas and Patrick, 2019). Positive emotional culture contributes to employee's engagement and motivational levels, which leads to the flourishing of the organization, of the team, and of each member (Krueger and Killham, 2005; Yalden and McCormack, 2010;

Cameron, 2012). According to Ramdas and Patrick (2019), flourishing is one of the main consequences of implementing positive leadership behaviors on the organizational level.

Flourishing is the consequence when the focus is on the encouragement of positive emotions, close relations, high engagement levels, achievements, and meaning (Seligman, 2011). From the discussion so far, one can argue that through a positive leadership behaviour approach, several elements that contribute to one's flourishing are answered, as the culture and the leader representing that culture are inclusive, serve as a resource for employee development, and guides through example. In concordance, "Positive institution (pro-social practices) supports to produce positive individual (by facilitating positive identity construct) creating more positive subjective experience, that is, employee flourishing at workplace" (Dutton et al., 2010; retrieved from Ramdas and Patrick, 2019, p. 261). For instance, Kouzes and Posner (2003) conducted a study where 98% of the participants answered "yes" when asked "When you get encouragement does it help you perform at a higher level?".

Encouraging is a leadership strategy to guide and aid team members develop their strengths, which leads to higher engagement levels (Biswas-Diener et. al., 2011), and higher employee satisfaction levels (Cameron et. al., 2011). All the above can be characterized as positive outcomes of positive leadership, and together, they contribute to a higher well-being state, as well as to the flourishing process (Ramdas and Patrick, 2019). Seligman (2011) argues that having a meaningful life, experiencing positive emotions, being engaged, having positive relationships, and having a sense of accomplishment represent flourishing, and to achieve it, it's necessary to lead through a positive leadership behavior approach.

On a brief note, it is important to reinforce, from the previous discussion, that flourishing is not a goal one can achieve, but a process of several and constant goals. Several scholars from different continents and industries have found linkages between positive leadership behaviours and flourishing elements, like a positive well-being state, positive workplace environment, self-empowerment, engagement at work, and overall satisfaction (Ramdas and Patrick, 2019).

3. Leader Communication and Flourishing Employee Perception

3.1 Employee Perception of Leader Communication

Leadership is the force that shapes those who aim to make a difference, grow, and flourish. A concept often compared to management, but with a different mission – Within an organization, leaders serve as a living example of the organizational culture (Brown and Trevino, 2006). The employee's behavior, work ethic, performance levels, and engagement, amongst others, fall under the leader's responsibility. It's the leader who is responsible for teaching, motivating, and guiding the employees. The communication behind these acts is very important, as the leader also holds the power to influence, which one can argue is the shaping of organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behavior is how employees are willing to surpass the job tasks and responsibilities (Becton et. al., 2008; Mo and Shi, 2017; Sferrazzo, 2021). Those who score a higher level of organizational citizenship conduct are more likely to challenge themselves and accept extra tasks, like training new colleagues or aiding coworkers with their projects (Fuller, 2022). Thus, the concluding thought is that if the leader enforces a work climate based on a high ethical standard, the employees will act accordingly if the leader successfully communicates it. For instance, if a leader allows for certain deviant behaviors, the followers will morally disengage from certain aspects of the ethical standards – the leader is the example that others follow (Fuller, 2022).

The present fast-paced environment, which is powered by constant change, calls for an everlasting adaptation to change. According to Kupers and Weibler (2006), emotions are the leading factor in the relationship between leaders and followers. Leadership has evolved from a trait approach to a transformational one, and with it, emotions and other people relating factors arise. The need for adaptation is clear - “varies significantly from one situation to the next” (Van Wart, 2004, p. 1). From the evidence gathered, it's possible to state that communication is a key element for an organization to thrive, where depending on the culture, the style of communication used can differ. Just like a leadership approach changes, communication is dependable on several factors, and based on the discussion so far, one can state that communication and leadership are intertwined, where one affects the other, but most importantly, a leader without communication skills can't perform on the

necessary level to fulfil his/her role. Why? As Bass and Bass (2009) noted, the perception of the employees of their leader is impacted by the relationship built between leader and follower. If a leader is incapable of communicating the organizational culture, a respectful work ethic, his/her expectations, or motivation, the perception of the team won't be as positive and engaging. Fairhurst (2011) explains this human phenomenon as people believing that communication is biologically natural for a human, that most give little attention to the impact it has/can have. To better understand how the leader's communication impacts employee perceptions, it is important to address different scientific contributions, analyze leaders' behavior characteristics, and address certain models that can assess the variables that lead to positive outcomes. These outcomes represent the needed variables/skills a leader needs to master to create positive perceptions of the followers.

3.1.2 Scientific Models and Frameworks

In the current context, which is one characterized by interpersonal relationships through a positivist approach, leadership can be challenged by employees if interpersonal relationships expectations are not met (Sniderman et. al., 2016). Hence, communication in general, but specifically interpersonal communication, can be considered a key tool for building sustainable, trustful and productive leader-follower relationships. There are several models and frameworks that can be used to understand this relationship, and what factors contribute to deepening it and what factors contribute negatively. The following section includes theoretical information regarding frameworks that assess perception levels regarding leader-member relationships, both on the communication and leadership front.

3.1.2.1 The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

Goussak and Webber (2011) developed a study that aimed at analyzing and defining a road map to train future leaders of casinos in Las Vegas. Their argumentation is constructed through a transformational leadership view and asserts that it is necessary for leaders in this industry to be flexible due to change. Firstly, they refer to Bass and Avolio (2002, 2004) "Full Range Leadership Model" (FRLM). The FRLM is a building action that represents the several stages of leadership based on certain behaviors (Bass and Avolio, 2002), and is based on the theory of transformational leadership. The Multifactor

Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the tool that is often used to measure FRLM. The questionnaire comprises three levels of leadership approaches that are defined by eight key factors.

Bass and Avolio (1989) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that aimed at measuring three leadership styles – the transformational, the transactional, and the laissez-faire, where the latest is measured by the absence of leadership characteristics (retrieved from Hartog et. al., 1997). The MLQ has undergone several revisions, meaning that there are several versions of the framework (Hartog et. al., 1997). The model comprises three sections, one for each leadership style mentioned, with corresponding influential elements.

Firstly, according to Kanste et. al. (2006) regarding transformational leadership, Bass and Avolio used five scales – *Idealized Influence (as an attribute)*, which is an eight-item sub-scale aiming at assessing followers' perceptions regarding leader's capacity to sacrifice, handle crises and challenges, and show confidence; *Idealized Influence (as a behavior)*, which comprises 10 items to assess employee perception regarding the leader's capacity to adopt and transmit the values, mission, and vision; *Inspirational motivation*, which consists of 10 items that aim at measuring the leader's standards and long-term goals; *Intellectual Stimulation*, which is comprised by 10 items, representing the extent to which the leader accepts followers inputs and promotes critical thinking and autonomy; Lastly, *Individualized Consideration*, represented by 9-items, is the extent to which the leader represents a coach and mentor, by delegating projects and giving feedback. (Hartog et. al., 1997; Kanste et. al., 2006).

Secondly, the transactional leadership section, consists of three scales – *Contingent Reward* which is a 9-item scale that measures the rewards and recognition given by the leader to the follower for achieving goals and completing tasks; *Management-by-Exception* is a 9-item scale that measures the leader's capacity to act. Usually, a leader under this profile only acts when deviations/something wrong occurs, being separated into two different categories: the *active* and the *passive*. The active leader searches for deviations, while the passive leader waits for them to happen to act. (Hartog et. al., 1997; Kanste et. al., 2006).

Lastly, laissez-faire leadership is measured through the absence of leadership on the previous scales, and through an assessment of leader's inaction (Avolio et. al., 1995; Bass and Avolio, 1997) (Hartog et. al., 1997; Kanste et. al., 2006).

Retrieved from Mora and Ticlau (2012) an overview of the dimensions and elements of each dimension, adapted from the MLQ's design of Bass and Avolio.

The main 3 types included in the MLQ are described as follows (adapted from Bass and Avolio, 1999: 94-96).

Leadership type	Characteristics
<p>TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP</p> <p>Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimize individual, group and organizational development and innovation, not just achieve performance "at expectations." They convince their associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards.</p>	<p>Idealized influence (IA) (instills pride, respect, goes beyond self-interest, displays sense of power and confidence)</p> <p>Idealized behaviors (IB) (expresses and shares values, beliefs, strong sense of purpose, consideration for moral and ethical consequences, importance of collective sense of mission)</p> <p>Inspirational Motivation (IM) (talks optimistically about the future, enthusiasm, creates compelling vision, confidence in goal achievement)</p> <p>Intellectual Stimulation (IS) (re-examines critical assumptions, seeks alternative solutions to problems, suggests new ways to look at problems, new ways to complete assignments)</p> <p>Individual Consideration (IC) (Teacher, coach, takes into consideration individual needs, abilities, aspirations, develops others strengths)</p>
<p>TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP</p> <p>Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Contingent reward and management-by exception are two core behaviors associated with 'management' functions in organizations.</p>	<p>Contingent Reward (CR) (provides assistance in exchange for efforts, discusses who is responsible for performance, sets clear rewards for goal achievement, expresses satisfaction when expectations are met)</p> <p>Management by exception: active (MBEA) (focuses on irregularities, mistakes, deals with mistakes, complaints, failures, keeps track of all errors, directs attention towards failures)</p>
<p>LAISSEZ-FAIRE (PASSIVE-AVOIDANT)</p> <p>Passive leaders avoid specifying agreements, clarifying expectations, and providing goals and standards to be achieved by followers. This style has a negative effect on desired outcomes - opposite to what is intended by the leader-manager. In this regard it is similar to laissez-faire styles - or "no leadership."</p>	<p>Management by exception: passive (MBEP) (fails to interfere until problems are serious, firm belief in no interference until problems arise, interferes when problems become chronic)</p> <p>Laissez-Faire (LF) (avoids involvement, absent when needed, avoids decisions, delays responding to urgent problems)</p>
<p>RESULTS</p>	<p>Extra Effort (EE) (get others to do more than expected, increase desire to succeed, increase others willingness to try harder)</p> <p>Effectiveness (EFF) (meets others job related needs, represents the group to higher authority, leads a group that is effective, meets organizational requirements)</p> <p>Satisfaction with the leadership (SAT) (uses methods that raise satisfaction, works with others in a satisfactory way)</p>

Figure 3. Dimensions of the MLQ adapted from Bass and Avolio (1999) (Retrieved from Mora and Ticlau, 2012, P.85)

3.1.3.2 The Communication Competence Model

Pioneered by Spitzberg, Cupach, and colleagues, and later sharpened by Spitzberg alone, the Competence Communication Model arises. Communication competence can be defined as “the degree to which meaningful behavior is perceived as appropriate and effective in a given context.” (Spitzberg, 2013, p.130). Moreover, the author adds that the extent to which someone is perceived as participating in an appropriate and effective speech, is likely to be considered someone that communicates competently. In sum, communication competence can be understood as the extent to which one’s communication skills are competent. It’s important to note that perceptions are interpretations of communication (verbal and non-verbal) where one’s perception of his/her own level of competence can differ from perceptions of others, and vice-versa (Spitzberg, 2013).

The construction of the model is based on how impressions are constructed, taking into analysis several factors, and argues that what constitutes competence is the evaluation of the functioning of the individual’s skills, knowledge and motivation (Spitzberg and Dillard, 2002; Spitzberg, 2007; retrieved from Spitzberg, 2013). Spitzberg (2013) adds contributions from other authors and argues that motivation represents the communication orientation regarding approach and avoidance (Morreale, 2007), knowledge comprises the cognitive substance and process logistics one uses when acting (Duran and Spitzberg, 1995), and lastly, skills are the frequent goal oriented efforts to produce messages and interact (Spitzberg, 2011).

The author argues that the judgment of competence is the combination of five spheres of communicator elements – Firstly, a communicator may not be perceived as competent due to being nervous or a little excited about the conversation topic, hence, motivation absence; Secondly, a communicator can be motivated and still not show competence, showing a lack of knowledge regarding the needed behaviors to participate on the conversation; Thirdly, a communicator can be viewed as motivated and knowledgeable, yet fail to transmit it during a conversation, showing a lack of skills. The fourth sphere regards context as an important influential factor when one’s aiming at communicating appropriately and effectively – it regards cultural factors, such as beliefs and values; chronological factors which refers to the flow and coordination of an interaction; relational

factors, which comprises feelings of belonging, attachment, or connection; and functional factors, such as the goals or tasks for that engagement or relationship.

The fifth sphere of competent communicators asserts that knowing and choosing what communication skills are more effective and appropriate for each situation is a complex matter. Spitzberg and colleagues developed several research works on communication-related topics, and state that when trying to assess which communication skills are more associated with competence, looking at three of the dimensions studied, they've assembled a list of 100 skills from each of them (Spitzberg, 2013). However, the authors concluded that several of those "skills" were synonymous with each other, and others belonged to the communication competence model, but as a motivation factor rather than a skill.

Nevertheless, the four skill dimensions defined by Spitzberg (2003) are – Coordination, Attentiveness, Expressiveness, Composure. Coordination skills represent verbal and non-verbal engagement and management of the flow of the communication process. It regards competence in terms of balancing communication, interruptions, periods of talking, or transitions between topics. Attentiveness skills comprise verbal and non-verbal communication that exhibit actions of paying attention, being interested, and showing concern for the involved members. It regards competence in terms of listening, having empathy, allowing others to start topics, questioning others, and being able to read other's communication. Expressiveness skills represent verbal and non-verbal communication that one uses to express and show emotion throughout the process. It regards competence in terms of combining message production with facial expressions, gestures, humor, specific vocabulary, or change of tone. And lastly, composure skills represent verbal and non-verbal communication that aims at avoiding stress and anxiety and perceiving a confident and controlled individual. It regards competence in terms of not avoiding eye contact, having good posture, or being confident when communicating. (Spitzberg, 2013). These skills are interrelated; however, one individual can be highly attentive yet with very little coordination. Nonetheless, following the assumption of other authors, Spitzberg explains that "these skills do not define or constitute competence." (p.130), yet research asserts that they serve as a prediction for oneself and others of the impressions of an appropriate, effective, quality and competence communication skill set.

Lastly, the sixth sphere argues that even though effectiveness and appropriateness are the main factors to assess competence, there are other factors that can impact perceptions

of competence of an individual. These include feelings/levels of “efficiency, satisfaction, attractiveness, and clarity/understanding/accuracy (Sptizberg, 2013, p. 131). Following, the Communication Competence Model layout, with all the factors and concepts that impact the communication process.

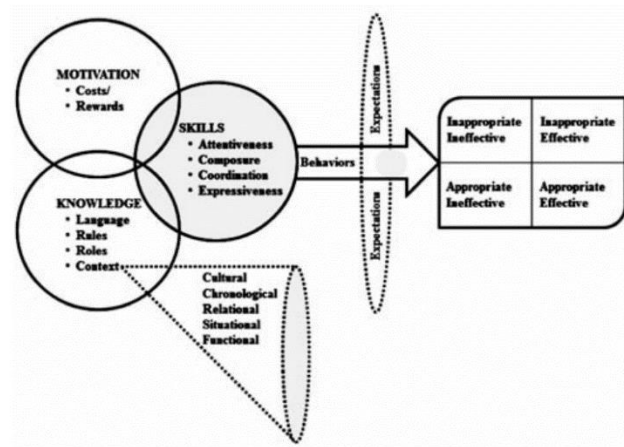


Figure 4. The Communication Competence Model (Spitzberg, 2013, P.130)

On a last note, the model is supposed to be scalable and theoretically open-ended – the author states that other variables can be added, or even identify additional spheres to the existing five. For instance, to assess the perception of competence on a specific industry or field of study, skills can be added to the model, as essential for the role/assessment/field in question.

3.2 Employee Self-perception of Flourishing

The previous chapter consists of a full overview of what flourishing represents and allows for the argumentation that flourishing is more than being okay – rather, a complete well-being state, where one thrives through change and positive stimulus. Elements such as positive emotions, meaning, accomplishment, engagement, motivation, relationships, and positive psychology are associated with one’s flourishing process (Seligman, 2011; Keyes, 2002) contributing to thriving at work. This chapter will review employee self-perception of flourishing, consisting of the analysis of own’s flourishing views, the factors that impact one’s self-perceptions, and the implication on the organizational level.

3.2.1 Subjective Evaluation

On the personal level, three categories arise – Personality traits; Work-life balance; and Health and Well-being. On the personality dimension, one can argue that feelings of emotional stability, optimism, and resilience are often positively related with self-perceptions of flourishing (Deng et. al., 2024). For instance, an optimistic individual will face work obstacles and challenges positively, or a resilient one may deal with stress levels more effectively. On the work-life balance front, one can retrieve from the discussion up until now, that defining a balance between pleasure and responsibility (work and personal life) is key for individuals to have a sense of fulfillment and flourishing (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). These individuals' due to their effective management, are less probable to feel high stress levels or burnout. On the health and well-being dimension, scholars argue that being mentally and physically healthy, by having a good sleep schedule or doing exercise, is key for one's self-perception on flourishing.

On the organizational level, four categories arise – Leadership and Management; Work Environment; Job Characteristics; and Organizational Culture. The first dimension regards the leadership style used by leaders, where supportive and transformational approaches lead to higher flourishing levels of employees/followers (Hart et. al., 2021). Leader traits that are often connected are inspiration, motivation and support, that lead to a sense of belonging in the work environment (Northouse, 2021). The second dimension consists of a consequence of the leadership style – a flourishing friendly work environment is characterized by positive, motivational and inclusive, which foster development and reduces stress of failing for example (Seligman, 2011; Hone et. al., 2014). The third dimension regards job characteristics, where one perceives as flourishing when one's job allows for autonomy, career opportunities, and feedback (Baker and Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). This job allowances foster growth, critical thinking, new skills acquirement, and engagement. Lastly, the fourth dimension comprises the culture of the organization – is it profit driven? Is it based on the employees and the overall well-being? An organization that is characterized by having a positive and encouraging culture, promoting growth on the professional and personal level (Kelloway and Barling, 2010).

Within these two dimensions, one can identify several factors influencing an employee's self-perception own flourishing. Some of these are – Job characteristics clarity

that asserts that the clearer the expectations and tasks are to the employee, the higher control and level of competence he has; Recognition and reward systems, which, if conducted properly, positively influence one's engagement and motivational levels; Support network, both from colleagues and supervisors, as besides providing a safe sense of belonging, it impacts employees on the emotional well-being front, and resilience levels; New skills development is also important, as the need for constant learning is key for one's thriving process nowadays. (Baker and Demerouti, 2007; Seligman, 2011; Hone et. al., 2014). Hence, the opportunity for training courses, career opportunities, or coaching/mentoring is a factor that influences one's sense of flourishing (Deng et. al., 2024). Lastly, the autonomy one has at work is key, as the ability to contribute with input, decision and control over one's tasks impacts one's level of flourishing (Keyes, 2002).

3.2.2 Workplace PERMA-Profile

Based on The PERMA Model by Seligman (2011), Butler and Kern (2016) developed the PERMA-Profiler, which assesses the five domains defined by Seligman, with certain additions: Negative Emotion; Physical Health; and Overall Well-being (Butler and Kern, 2016). Consisting of a 23-item scale, the model aims at assessing well-being more effectively and argues that it's a proposition. Nevertheless, it was tested and adjusted in phases, with more than 30.000 participants, and the model can claim reliability and validity worldwide.

The authors argue that one of the benefits of the measure is that because it assesses well-being through several domains, "the multidimensional structure of the measure should be retained, rather than corresponding responses to a single flourishing score" (Example on Figure 5) (Butler and Kern, 2016, p. 21). The added dimensions proposed by Burler and Kern (2016) weren't taken into consideration in the study. However, flourishing results were presented using the visual proposition of the model.

Figure 2. Example way of presenting a respondent's scores, which explicitly identifies multiple domains of wellbeing. P = positive emotion, E = engagement, R = positive relationships, M = meaning/purpose in life, A = accomplishment, N = negative emotion, H = physical health.

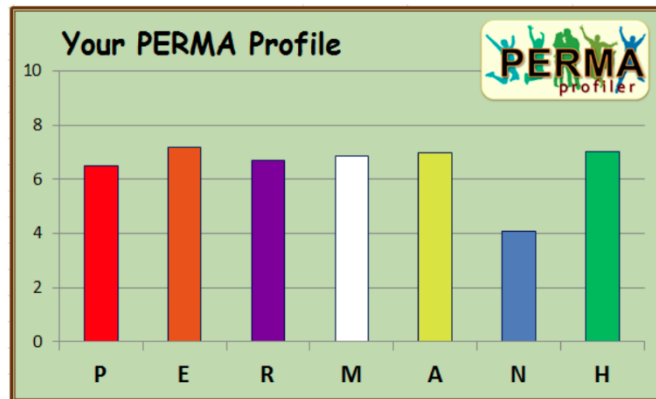


Figure 5. Example of the PERMA Profile Results (Butler and Kern, 2016, P.21)

3.3 Employee self-perception of flourishing and leader communication

Employee self-perception of their own flourishing is a consequence of the organizational psychological culture, where one's subjective well-being is assessed through a sense of belonging and fulfillment.

As seen previously, and according to Seligman (2011), flourishing is a complete well-being state (Lee et. al., 2021), and consists of pillars such as engagement, accomplishment, relationships, positive emotions, and meaning. The quality of leader-follower dyadic relationship plays an important role to flourish, and the leader is the lead actor when setting and transmitting the organizational culture, while aiding and motivating. From the previous discussion, one can also conclude that the leader-member relationship is one that needs to be based on trust and positive emotions, where communication serves as the mediator of the relationship.

The Leader's Communication Style needs to be effective for followers to develop and flourish, and so, key dimensions of LCS are clarity, openness, and supportiveness (Brown et. al., 2018/2019). The LCS represents how a leader carries him/herself, through all forms of communication – face-to-face, phone call, e-mail, body language, and gestures. Also from the previous discussion, Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) LMX Theory was analyzed - there are different levels of leader-member relationship quality – the highest the quality, the better the consequences, for both parties. The LMX Theory asserts that

communication is an essential part of the extent to which individuals relate, and so, the leader-member communication quality is dependable on the extent to which a bond of trust and mutual influence can be formed (Brown et. al., 2018/2019; Fairhurst and Chandler, 1989; Michael et. al., 2005; Mueller and Lee, 2002). The LCS is therefore a skill set that leaders possess to impact the LMX, however, it's important to note that the impact can be either positive or negative.

Employee self-perception of flourishing is assessed through similar dimensions, yet it's defined as subjective well-being. From the analysis of this topic, one draws that it's mostly measured through factors like - job satisfaction and engagement; motivation/stress levels; psychological well-being; sense of belonging; rewards vs. Demands; recognition; amongst others (Diener et. al., 2009). One can also draw the conclusion that those who perceive themselves as flourishing are usually more productive, showing a higher organizational commitment levels, and showing interest in new challenges (Bass and Bass, 2009). This self-perception is created based on one's perceptions comprising several dimensions of life – work, personal, psychological and physical (Harter et al., 2003). – For instance, if a leader's communication is not effective, the follower decreases motivation and engagement levels. Besides jeopardizing the organizational goals and the relationships at work, the follower will reduce performance and will probably feel emotionally down. The same can apply for other dimensions of one's life.

For the exchange to be effective, one can determine some requirements – Firstly, the needs for clarity and understanding, where the communication from the leader's side is clear and open regarding job expectations, responsibilities, organizational culture and goals. This will improve performance, reduce stress and provide a sense of accomplishment to followers. (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2002). Secondly, showing support and empathy, through communication based on emotions to improve and maintain psychological well-being (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2002). The leader-follower relationship is positively influenced by empathic communication, providing a sense of belonging (Kelloway et. al., 2012). Thirdly, recognition, rewards and feedback (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2002), as the discussion has suggested, being recognized and rewarded by achieving tasks, increase of motivation, engagement, job satisfaction and performance (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2021). It serves as a confidence boost for followers to thrive, providing a sense of achievement and competence (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Fifthly, trust and transparency (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2002), where the communication between member, leader-follower and

follower-follower, is open and truthful, leading to relationships based on trust that led to higher engagement and performance level (Northouse, 2021).

Overall, communication plays an essential role in effective leadership, and even though it is a biological enactment of humans, it's a skill that one can develop to influence others and achieve goals (Northouse, 2021). The communication of a leader, as well as the leadership approach taken (that is often connected to the communication approach), have an impact on follower's goal achievement and performance.

As stated at the beginning of this research, leadership is a very broad concept, with little consensus. However, for this research, the human-oriented positive approaches were mostly considered - According to VanderWeele (2021), certain areas of human life can be categorized as universally sought for, which are mental health, happiness, physical health, purpose, life satisfaction, meaning, character, close relationships, and virtue. These variables can be used as measuring resources for flourishing and well-being (Tarragona and Clarasó, 2023). Several author contributions with respecting conclusions were considered, and so, one may conclude that the categories suggested by VanderWeele (2021) are well-being contributing elements, comprising several dimensions of one's life. Nevertheless, this dissertation aims to understand which leadership communication practices impact perceived followers' well-being in the professional environment. It will be possible to understand the links between the concepts researched through more findings regarding leadership styles, communication styles, flourishing, and well-being.

Following, some academic findings regarding leadership, mainly, transformational leadership. Several authors have conducted meta-analyses to explore the linkage of leadership styles and their outcomes on both the organizational and individual levels (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; DeGroot et al., 2000; Stewart, 2006). The human-oriented approach has been positively related to high group performance (Bass, 2008), as it facilitates cohesion (Tabernero et. al., 2009), higher levels of job and leader satisfaction, as well as effectiveness, and last increases motivation (Judge et. al., 2004). Judge et. al. (2004) also developed a meta-analysis that revealed positive outcomes from both human- and task-oriented styles. However, human-oriented leadership was often associated with the overall satisfaction of job, leader, and effectiveness when compared to the task-oriented approaches. In contrast, human-related communication approaches show lower levels of employee turnover and grievance levels, independent of the amount of task-oriented

communication put into the process (Fleishman and Harris, 1962). Several studies with practical examination from certain samples, in several different contexts, concluded that overall satisfaction levels, and therefore the success levels, were higher when communication was associated with friendliness over dominance (Buller and Buller 1987; Ambady et al. 2002; Levinson et al. 1997; Schmid Mast et al. 2007; Prisbell 1994).

Neufeld et. al. (2010) studied the linkage between physical distance and perceived leader performance, leadership style, and leader-follower communication success – Out of one sample of 41 leaders and 138 remote workers, communication effectiveness was the biggest quality of all the interactions followers and their leaders, based on the followers' feedback. Often, those who feel good and motivated at their job, experience a positive well-being effect (Rothmann, 2013, p.130).

In a study, it was found that team members are more willing to share knowledge with those who have a more friendly and extraverted communication approach (De Vries et. al., 2006). De Vries et. al., (2006) argue that knowledge sharing is intertwined with a more friendly communication style - knowledge sharing implies communication processes, as it is an interaction between one or more individuals. Knowledge sharing is positively related to empowering leadership (Srivastava et al., 2006), and this latest, is deeply intertwined with human-oriented and charismatic leadership (De Vries et al., 2002). Relational messages allow for a leader to benefit on the organizational level from high job satisfaction and leader effectiveness (Teven, 2007), and the creation of an inclusive, respectful, and positive environment.

Judge and Piccolo (2004) found a positive relationship connecting charismatic and transformational leadership and employee satisfaction regarding their job and their leader, and their leaders' effectiveness, motivational levels, and group performance. Further, the authors couldn't point out specific differences between transformational and charismatic styles, showing that the two are interchangeable. When one thinks of the communication style used by charismatic leaders, one can conclude that there is a positive linkage between inspirational training strategy delivery, with the performance of both the trainees and the audience (Towler, 2003; De Vries et al. 2009; Frese et al., 2003). Moreover, a study was conducted that related two variables – Delivery style; and Vision Content. - against the perception of charismatic leaders and their effectiveness (Awamleh and Gardener; 1999).

It was concluded that a charismatic/enthusiastic delivery had a higher and more positive impact than the content.

In sum, De Vries et al. (2009) consider that “Both communication styles and the charismatic and human-oriented leadership styles explain a significant amount of variance in perceived leader performance, satisfaction with the leader, subordinates’ commitment, and both donating and collecting knowledge sharing of a subordinate with his/her leader” (p.), where charismatic and human-oriented leadership styles are also considered to be communication styles. On the organizational context, one can draw that if companies shift their policies so that their employees can foster their family and social ties, the flourishing of all would be higher, as the impact on one’s ecosystem would be positive.

4. Organizational Outcomes

A flourishing workforce with effective leadership can lead to several organizational outcomes, most of them already mentioned throughout the discussion – higher performance rates, higher motivation by wanting to go the extra mile, embedded organizational mission and vision, thriving and innovating through critical thinking and autonomy, overall well-being through life-work balance, close relationships and sense of belonging, and a job role with meaning and purpose. An organization that has employees who benefit from and offer these characteristics, is an organization that can benefit from a sense of loyalty, estimating lower turnover intention.

Turnover intention is defined as one’s intention/desire of leaving one’s organization and transfer to a different work environment (Mobley et al., 1979, retrieved from Wikaningtyas et. al., 2023). In an interesting comparison, the research addresses turnover intention from an organizational commitment approach. Organizational commitment has been often associated with certain actions and behavior of employees - “job performance (6), job satisfaction (7), and job turnover (8).” (Iqbal et. al., 2019, p.1). Marsh and Mannari (1977) argue that several of this factor is both related to turnover and commitment, and in a way, their statement advocates for the idea that both concepts present the same outcome, but from different perspective – one is positive and the other negative. Supporting their argumentation with academic evidence, they state that “...job satisfaction, job challenge,

job achievement, and cohesiveness with fellow employees. These are, again, negatively related to turnover and positively related to commitment to the organization (Kerr, 1947; Smith and Kerr, 1953; Silcock, 1954; Herzberg et al., 1957; Hedberg, 1960; Hall and Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974; and Price, forthcoming).” (Marsh and Mannari, 1977, p. 3).

For this dissertation, this approach was the most eligible, as it connects better with the positive communicational approach so far, allowing for better comparison between addressed concepts. One can argue that an individual who feels a high commitment to his/her organization is an individual who has low intentions, if any at all, of leaving. The question is how are leadership and employee well-being related to organizational commitment? The previous discussion offers a general layout of the leadership styles, however, with a focus on transformational leadership. It also offers a general historical view of how flourishing as evolved as a concept, and how it has been used to this day as a possible measure of employee engagement, motivation, organizational commitment, and organizational behavior citizenship, amongst others. The argumentation so far also points out the correlations between leadership, specifically the positive human-oriented approaches, to several aspects of human’s well-being, that leads to flourishing. Due to the importance of organizational context to take the intended conclusions, organizational commitment arises as one of the main benefits for organizations because of the correlation between the two mentioned concepts.

4.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment has been defined from several perspectives (Kacmar et. al., 1999). Some take commitment towards an organization as a relationship with strong involvement between parts (Brown, 1969; Mowday et. al., 1979). Others argue that commitment can also be seen as an alignment of values and goals on the personal and organizational level (Buchanan, 1974) and through the exchange of behaviors aiming at valued rewards (Becker, 1960; Meyer and Allen, 1984). (Retrieved from Kacmar et. al., 1999). According to Meyer the most widely known meta-analysis regarding organizational commitment was conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990), identifying three levels of analysis – the antecedents, the consequences, and the correlates (Robertson and Cooper,

2001). Meyer followed this same division in his contribution to “Personnel Psychology and Human Resource Management” by Robertson and Cooper (2001). Mowday et. al. (2013) defined it as “the relative strength of an individual’s involvement in a particular organization.” (retrieved from Gavya and Subashini, 2024, p. 3). Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) refer to a need for commitment – both from an internal and external work perspective – to achieve employee engagement. Organizational commitment arises as a key part of the relationship between the employees and the organization (Mowday et. al., 1982; retrieved from Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008). Krishnaveni and Ramkumar (2008) also offer Steers definition of commitment – a form of identification and involvement within the organization. The interest in commitment was not only at defining it but assessing its connection with other concepts – It is a multidimensional concept (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008). Meyer and Allen (1991) offered a multidimensional theory of commitment, comprising three levels of analysis - the Affective; the Normative; and the Continuance. Several analyses and models have been proposed to assess organizational commitment. However, Krishnaveni and Ramkumar (2008) offer a table where the most well-known and tested measures of assessment, including chronological period, author, and main dimensions considered – are possible to observe in Figure 6.

Sl. No	Measure	Developed by	Year	Dimensions Considered
1	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian	1974	Loyalty, Value and Goal congruency and Willingness for Extra-effort
2	British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS)	Cook and Walls	1980	Identification, Involvement and Loyalty
3	Meyer and Allen's Three Component Scale	Meyer and Allen	1991, 1997	Affective, Continuance, and Normative

Figure 6. Popular Measures of Organizational Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P8)

4.2 Allen and Meyer’s Three-Component Scale

Allen and Meyer’s organizational commitment scale has been used in several studies (Iverson and Buttigieg, 1999; Baker and Ahmad, 2003; Meyer and Smith, 2000), receiving validation worldwide (Dunham et. al., 1994; McGee and Ford, 1987; Abdullah, 2008) (Retrieved from Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008). It’s the most widely scale used

to assess commitment, and so, for the purpose of this discussion, it will be the instrument used. The three components on the scale are the Affective, the Continuance, and the Normative. Allen and Meyer (1991) argued that all three commitment levels are both conceptual and empirically independent, as all are of great importance and usefulness (retrieved from Abdullah, 2011). The affective commitment regards the emotional bond between employees and their organization – it's the proud connection and belongingness one forms with an organization, and the desire for the organization to thrive and achieve set goals. The normative commitment represents the ethical commitments employees feel towards their organizations – participation in the form of commitment is seen as the right thing to do, creating a sense of obligation. Lastly, the continuance commitment is the need of employees to stay and participate within the organization as to leave means risk and expenses. (Allen and Meyer, 1990; retrieved from Gavya and Subashini, 2024 and Abdullah, 2011)

Below are the item scales retrieved from Krishnaveni and Ramkumar (2008) represented on Figure 7, 8 and 9.

Q.No	Item Description
Q1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization
Q2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
Q3	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization
Q4	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization
Q5	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
Q6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization

Figure 7. Components of Affective Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P11)

Q.No	Item Description
Q7	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
Q8	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
Q9	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
Q10	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
Q11	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
Q12	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

Figure 8 Components of Continuance Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P12)

Q.No	Item Description
Q13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer
Q14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
Q15	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
Q16	This organization deserves my loyalty.
Q17	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
Q18	I owe a great deal to my organization.

Figure 9. Components of Normative Commitment (Krishnaveni and Ramkumar, 2008, P12)

4.3 How Does Commitment Connect?

Organizational commitment ties to leadership have been researched by many authors (Lok and Crawford, 1999; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; Cummings et. al., 2010; Dunn et. al., 2012; Emery and Barker, 2007; Bacha and Kosa, 2022; Avolio and Bass, 1995; Avolio et. al., 2004 retrieved from Gavya and Subashini, 2024). Leadership approaches, such as consideration leadership (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009) participative, supportive and directive leadership (Cummings et. al., 2010), transactional and laissez-faire (Dunn et. al., 20129; Emery and Baker, 2007; Walumbwa et. al., 2004).

Nevertheless, transformational leadership was the leadership style with highest linkage to organizational commitment (Bacha and Kosa, 2022; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; Lok and Crawford, 2004; Walumbwa et. al., 2004). Both Avolio and Bass (1995b) and Avolio et. al. (2004) found a positive relation of transformative leadership with two of the commitment levels – the emotional and the normative – with no connection found with continuance commitment (Gavya and Subashini, 2024). Nonetheless, Avolio et. al. (2004) argues that there is an essential linkage between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in general (retrieved from Gavya and Subashini, 2024). Gavya and Subashini (2024) developed a correlation analysis study regarding organizational commitment levels and leadership styles (specifically the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) - They have concluded that transformational and laissez-faire leadership have a high influence on the three commitment levels (affective, normative and continuance), while transactional leadership holds a lower level of influence on commitment levels; Transformational leadership is characterized by motivational and influential leader, who promote a sense of shared value, purpose, mission, and vision, which has a high correlation with all three commitment levels; Laissez-Faire approach has a high correlation with organizational commitment – even though it doesn't present as obvious, the fact that it allows for higher autonomy and freedom of employees, they can become more engaged and take lead in decisions.

Taking this transformational leadership influence approach, Iqbal et. al. (2019) developed an analysis of transformational leadership as a conductor for organizational commitment. Rowden (2000) concluded that high commitment levels translate in “job security, career advancement, and increased rewards for the employees.” (p.3); Bushra et. al. (2011) who has intensively studied the banking sector, asserts that transformational leadership is “a potential determinant” (p.3) of commitment levels. Giving voice to followers' insights, considering their needs, acknowledging their efforts, and recognizing autonomy, allows for higher motivation toward employee and job engagement, and results in higher organizational commitment (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003).

The authors build their theory on academic evidence and propose a model (Figure 10) that links transformational leadership, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, and well-being. The model asserts that transformational leadership fosters

psychological empowerment and well-being, which leads to a sense of organizational commitment.

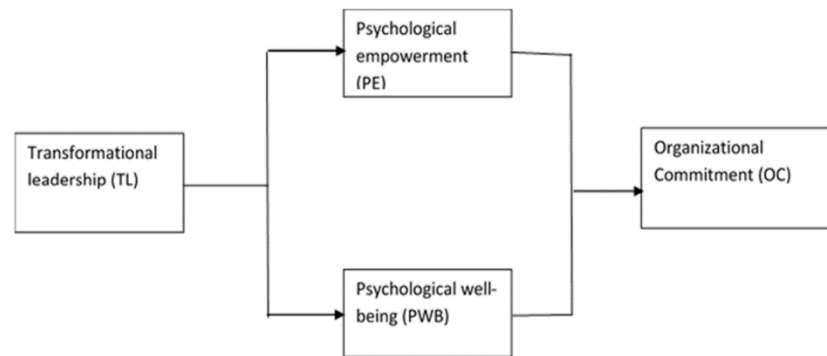


Figure 10. Transformational Leadership Towards Organizational Commitment Model (Iqbal et. al. 2019, P.264)

The study design of Iqbal et. al. (2019) used several academic acknowledgements and tested scales. Among them, to measure organizational commitment, an adaptation of Allen and Meyers (1996) Organizational Commitment Scale was used, which will be addressed in the next section of this dissertation. Nevertheless, the analysis to prove the above-proposed model, noted interesting conclusions - (1) A direct relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment – the authors state that even though leadership as a concept is a drive for commitment, transformational leadership has a special correlation. (2) Employees who have high psychological empowerment and well-being levels are more likely to show high levels of commitment. (3) Transformational leadership through psychological empowerment and well-being lenses creates a higher sense of organizational commitment.

Psychological well-being is one of the main assessment criteria for flourishing levels. The psychological connection of leaders and managers with employees can be weak, leading to employees perceiving the leader as not committed to his/her obligations (Almayali et. al., 2023). This can then lead to decreased trust and commitment levels of employees, decreasing the psychological well-being as well (Jaskeviciute et. al., 2021; Almayali et. al., 2023). Hence, focusing on the relationships with employees fosters emotional commitment (Chambel and Carvalho, 2022), increased well-being, and psychological stability and safety, which leads to flourishing (Almayali et. al., 2023).

Throughout the discussion, several consequences of flourishing and transformational leadership – such as organizational trust, motivation, and employee positive behavior – show to a certain extent the relationship between organizations and how to achieve commitment. This last chapter enlightens the benefits and the relations of organizational commitment. This study aims to understand if being under a transformational leadership powered by competent communication leads to a sense of communication. Also, the study also argues and aims at assessing that a flourishing individual also feels a sense of commitment toward the organization.

III – Methods

5. Methodological Design

5.1 Research Propositions

The discussion departed from the analysis of leaders' communication style on employee flourishing, analyzing all three dimensions – Leadership, Communication, and Flourishing – evolving to the research question that aimed at understanding if the transformational approach of leadership communication equals to the “enabling change” of the flourishing process. From this idea, several aspects regarding all three dimensions were mentioned, comprising also organizational context analysis, which led to the following propositions:

P1: Leader's communication competence based on a transformational approach is positively related to employee's self-perception of flourishing.

P2: An employee who has a positive perceived well-being state, feels good about his/her life and will only strive for more happiness. Hence, a flourishing employee feels a sense of commitment to the organization.

5.2 Research Design

According to Peter G. Northouse (2021), the author of *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, offers an extensive academic analysis of leadership, pointing out that both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been used to analyze leadership, connecting it to a multidisciplinary concept. Further, the authors also point out that recently, the analysis has shifted their perspectives toward the impacts leadership has on followers/employees' performance. This research design has been conducted by using mixed methods, as the participants had one open-ended question to support the data acquired, both methodologies were considered.

Cresswell and Cresswell (2017) state that (1) Qualitative research aims at understanding the meaning given by individuals and/or groups to social and human obstacles through data from the participants' context, where the researcher interprets the meaning of the data. (2) Quantitative research aims at understanding objective theories through the analysis of the relationship between variables. The variables are measured by approved instruments to statically analyze the acquired data and draw the intended conclusions. (3) Mixed methods research, is an approach to acquiring data that is quantitative and qualitative, approaching both philosophical assumptions as well as theoretical frameworks. This dissertation takes a quantitative approach, following a casual analysis through the use of a inquiry by questionnaire strategy.

The questionnaire was conducted online, through Google Forms, and was divided into five sections – First, the demographic and general details section, which aimed at assessing the generations, professional fields, and roles within organizations. This section had two contingencies, if a participant answered “No” to the questions “Are you older than 18?” and “Do you work?”, the questionnaire would end. Secondly, the leadership style section, which aimed at understanding the leadership behavior trends of the participants. This section was conducted through the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Thirdly, the flourishing section, which aimed at assessing the participants, was flourishing. This section was measured using the PERMA-P Model, which analyses certain aspects of one's life to assess well-being states. Fourthly, the leader's communication skills were identified, to relate its impact on the leadership approach and flourishing results. This section was conducted by using the Communication Competence Model (CCM). The last section regarded organizational commitment by using the Three-Component Organizational Commitment Scale. The questionnaire was conducted in English as geographic location wasn't a requirement for participation. Nonetheless, due to the

researchers Portuguese nationality, the fact that I'm linked to a Portuguese institution, and a vast Portuguese network, the questionnaire was partly translated to Portuguese, to facilitate any language barriers some might present, as the expectations were that most of the participants would be Portuguese.

The use of the questionnaire was beneficial and reasonable for the aim of this study due to several factors. Firstly, it allowed participants to be very honest, as it was completely anonymous. Secondly, because it was online and shared through personal influential circles and personal social media, it allowed for geography not to present as an obstacle – the aim of the study is not to analyze geographically but demographically. Hence why the answer to “How old are you?” was written and not age gaps, so that deeper and concrete conclusions could be deducted. Thirdly, it allows for data management to be more efficient, as the author is in control of the design, management, and treatment of the data (Smith, 1997). Also, the questionnaire is slightly extensive, but it's constructed in a specific way – Sections are interspersed between “about the self” and “about the self-perceptions” (first about the leader's leadership approach and then about the leader's communication competence). This questionnaire layout is to prevent participants' fatigue of answering regarding a third party (either the leader or the organization), by allowing them to “rest” and answer about themselves, their feelings, their emotions, and their experiences.

5.3 Conceptual Framework

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ has been previously discussed in the literature review section, being the 9-item model the chosen for the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the factors for each leadership approach are – Transformational Leadership II-A, II_B, IM, IS, IC; Transactional CR, MBEA, MBEP; and LF.

The design and development of the questions used were inspired and adapted from three articles, by (1) Hartog, Muijen and Koopman (1997), (2) Mora and Ticlau (2012), and (3) by Kanste, Miettunen and Kyngas (2006). The questionnaire was answered through a 5-Point Linkert Scale, where 1 represented “I completely disagree” and 5 represented “I completely agree” with the indication to “consider the leadership behaviors you are experiencing and observing from your leader.”

PERMA Model

Adapted from Seligman's (2011) PERMA Model, this section was assessed through the PERMA-P model developed by Butler and Kern (2016), however, excluding the additional variables added by them. For this questionnaire, the questions defined by Butler and Kern (2016) were adapted to affirmations – Example. “How often do you feel joyful?” (Butler and Kern, 2016) was adapted to “I often feel joyful.”. The full original factor analysis of Butler and Kern is exemplified in the literature review. The reason for this decision is due to the extensive literature supporting positive psychology, the idea of being able to relate easier with a statement than with a question (it's more intuitive), and the absence of questions on other sections of the questionnaire. The participants reacted to each statement through an 11-point Linkert scale, where 0 represented “Never” or “Not at all” and 10 represented “Always” or “Completely”, with the instruction of answering based on their own well-being.

Communication Competence Model (CCM)

The CCM developed by Spitzberg (2013) served as the basis for the development of the questions used to assess the leader's communication competence from the participants' views. The statements were adapted and created based on the author's article “*(Re)Introducing communication competence to the health professions*” (Spitzberg, 2013). Participants answered each statement through a 5-point Linkert scale, where 1 represented “I completely disagree” and 5 represented “I completely agree”, with the indication to “consider the communication behaviors you are experiencing and observing from your leader.”.

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)

The OCS developed by Allen and Meyers (1996) is composed of three elements – the Affective Commitment; the Continuance Commitment; and the Normative Commitment. Each element is comprised of factors, which are in total 18 items. The scale was retrieved from Abdullah's (2011) contribution to the Journal of Education and Vocational Research, aiming at understanding the level of commitment to participants' current organizations. The scale items were analyzed and answered through a 5-point Linkert scale, where 1

represented “strongly disagree” and 5 represented “strongly agree”, with the indication to consider own’s organizational commitment.

Open-End Question

Lastly, an open-long answer, where participants could comment or share anything involving the leader’s communication impact on followers flourishing. The construction of the question aimed at understanding similarities in positive/negative answers. Following, a layout of the question - “On a concluding thought, to what extent does your leader’s communication relate to your professional growth and development? Possible answers can be a history that happened, or an example of how your leader’s communication impacts your day-to-day in your work environment.”

5.4 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The data was collected from an online questionnaire where participants were informed of the purpose of the study, where it was noted that the data collected would be used for the completion of the master dissertation, and everything was anonymous. The automatic exclusion, previously discussed, dictated that those under 18 years old and/or those who didn’t work weren’t eligible for the study. Of the 206 participants, 2 of them were younger than 18, leaving 204 participants. Out of these, 36 answered “No” when asked “Do you work”, leaving 168 eligible participants.

Further, due to the propositions outlined throughout the empirical discussion, the 168 participants were asked to consider and disclose their opinions regarding four main topics: leadership traits, leader’s communication, self-perceptions of well-being, and level of organizational commitment. Each section had an instruction to answer on a Likert scale, either a 5-point scale or an 11-point scale, calling awareness to the issue in question before starting each section.

The data was automatically transferred from Google Forms to Google Sheets. Due to the researchers’ better understanding of Microsoft Excel, the data was transferred and treated on it, creating different sub-sheets on the same excel, to treat each data independently, allowing for correlations to be made.

5.5 Population and Sampling

Three platforms were used to share the study and request participation – Instagram, WhatsApp and LinkedIn. On each social media platform, private messages were sent and point that each message was carefully designed for the intended audience/recipient. Participants were also asked to share it with their work team, ensuring that the professional experience, leadership, and teamwork were present. The questionnaire was open for three weeks, gathering in total 206 participants. The first section corresponds to the general information, where two questions exclude factors. Those who answered that they were younger than 18 years old and those who did not work were automatically excluded. After this exclusion, the study remained with 168 participants.

The analysis started with the general section, to better understand the characteristics of the sample. Following the population’s characteristics, concerning age, country of birth and residence, years of experience, and identified professional areas.

The data was gathered and analyzed in Excel, creating Table 1.

Table 1. Age Gap by Generation and Years of Experience

Population’s Profile Identities					
Generation	Nº of Participants	%	Years of Experience	Nº of Participants	%
Z	91	54,2	0-2	45	26,8
X	44	26,2	3-5	39	23,2
M	22	13	6-8	10	6
B2	9	5,4	8-10	10	6
B1	2	1,2	10+	64	38
Total	168	100	Total	Total	100

Nevertheless, it’s important to identify the age gaps of each generation – Chronologically, and updated to 2024, according to the Beresford Research (see Annex 1) - Generation Z goes from 12 to 27 years old and is followed by Millennials which goes from 28 to 43 years old. Following, Generation X goes from 44 to 59 years old, and Boomers II and I go from 60 to 69 years old and 70 to 78 years old, respectively.

More than 50% of our sample is part of Generation Z, followed by 26% of Generation X. The literature reviewed throughout this dissertation analyses leadership from several perspectives, without connecting it to a specific generation. The argumentation built throughout the academic review was one of enabling change through a transformational process, where the guide (leader) allows followers to transform all parts of their lives. One can easily argue that the basis of flourishing, that is, the change path, is a needed part of everyone’s life – especially considering the defined dimensions of flourishing (PERMA). For this reason, there wasn’t an age limit exclusion – Participations from Generations’ M (Millennials), B1 (Boomers I), and B2 (Boomers II) were also included in the analysis. Also more than one generational group was necessary to have a good sample, and the two most common answers belonged to generations that didn’t follow each other.

Also present in Table 1 are the years of experience, separated into 2-year intervals – most of the participants, 38,1%, have more than 10 years of professional experience, accounting for BI and BII participants, and most of the Generation X participants. The second and third most common answer asserts that 26,8% and 23,2%, have 0 to 2 years and 3 to 5 years of experience, respectively. With equal number of answers, 10% of participants answered that they’ve worked for 6 to 8 or 8 to 10 years.

Further, two of the short-ended open questions requested participants to identify their country of birth and then their country of residence. Table 2 shows the number of participants along with their country of birth and residence.

Table 2. Country of Birth and Country of Residence

Population’s Profile Identities			
Country of Birth	N° of Participants	Country of Residence	N° of Participants
Portugal	148	Portugal	148
Brazil	6	UK	5
Germany	4	Spain	4
Italy	2	USA	3
USA	2	The Netherlands	2
The Netherlands	2	Angola	2
Marocco	1	France	1
Angola	1	Germany	1
France	1	Belgium	1
UK	1	Norway	1
Total	168	Total	168

Table 2 offers a clear layout of the countries of birth and countries of residence of the participants. Out of 168 participants, 148 are from Portugal and 147 reside in Portugal. Also noticeable, for both dimensions, most of the participants are from Western Countries or have a connection to a European country - Notice how 6 of the participants are Brazilians, but no participants live in Brazil. Same with Marocco. In comparison to the prior non-exclusion criteria, the participants from other countries were also accounted for. Most of the academically reviewed scales, including PERMA Profile by Butler and Kern (2016), are mostly linked and scientifically approved by and for Westernized Countries (Bass, 2008).

Still on the sample's definition, participants were also asked, on a short open-ended question, what was their professional field. The data was treated and some of the results were considered from the same field due to their interconnectedness. For instance, "Marketing", "Marketing and Communication", or "Publicity and Communication", were all included in "Marketing, Communication, and Publicity". Following, Table 3 with a summary of the clusters created, when possible, with the corresponding number of participants.

Table 3. Professional Fields Identified

Population's Profile Identities					
Professional Fields	N° of Participants	Professional Fields	N° of Participants	Professional Fields	N° of Participants
Marketing, Communication, and Publicity	20	Consulting	4	Scientific Research	3
Information and Technologies (IT)	18	Sales	4	Administration	2
Education	16	Environmental Engineering	3	Insurance	2
Health	14	Informatic Engineering	3	Aviation	2
Finance and Accounting	14	Other	4	Chemical Engineering	1
Real Estate	12	Retail	2	Beauty	1
Architecture	7	Design	2	Tourism	1
Law	7	Sports	2	Petrol Industry	1
Events	6	Commercial Store	2	Political Relations	1
Management	5	Owner	2	Animal Health	1
		Production Industry	2	Writer	1
		Human Resources	2	Public Administration	1
				Civil Engineering	1
				Engineering	1

"Marketing, Communications and Publicity" have most answers – with 20 participants, followed by "IT" with 18, "Education" with 16, "Health" and "Finance and Accounting", both with 14, and "Real Estate" with 12. Following, still with a moderate amount, "Architecture" and "Law" with 7 participants each, "Events" with 6,

“Management” with 5, and “Consulting”, “Sales”, and “Others*” with 4. With 3 participants each, the analysis identified - “Environmental Engineering”, “Informatic Engineering”, and “Scientific Research”. “Retail”, “Design”, “Sports”, “Commercial Store Owner”, “Production Industry”, “Human Resources”, “Administration”, “Insurance” and “Aviation” were identified by 2 participants each. Lastly, identified only once - “Chemical Engineering”, “Beauty”, “Tourism”, “Petrol Industry”, “Political Relations”, “Animal Health”, “Writer”, “Public Administration”, “Civil Engineering”, and “Engineering”. Table 3 shows that there is a variety of professional fields, which can be beneficial for this argumentation – Communication is the basis of individual’s exchanges; Already revised in the literature above, effective leadership communication is a resource for organizations to achieve success. No matter the field, all organizations/professional workers aim at being successful. Hence, this dissertation argues that transformational leadership and a flourishing workforce are beneficial for all professional fields.

On a last note, as it’s possible to see in Appendix 1, the general section also aimed at understanding the management position that participants reported to. From treating and analyzing the data, as well as from verbal feedback from some of the participants, it was possible to understand that the question wasn’t clear to all. Several of the answers regarded one’s position at the organization, others wrote “n.d.”, and others “.” - for this dissertation, this question wasn’t considered due to high incomplete/non-applicable answers. To further justify the non-importance of this data for the study design, often mentioned throughout the academic review, effective leadership is beneficial for all organizational levels and is often associated with organizational culture. Hence, the leadership and communication resources and skills of a leader are needed for all management levels - top-management will be leading and managing the middle-management, which in turn will be leading and managing team-leaders, which will be leading the rest of the workforce.

5.6 Data Analysis

5.6.1 Quantitative Analysis

The analysis of the MLQ Form was conducted by separating components from each leadership style present: Transformational Leadership from Q1-Q5 corresponded to Idealized Influence as an Attribute (II-A); Idealized Influence as a Behaviour (II-B);

Inspirational Motivation (IM); Intellectual Stimulation (IS); Individualized Consideration (IC). Transactional Leadership from Q6-Q8 corresponded to Contingent Reward (CR); Management by Exception - Active (MBEA); Management by Exception - Passive (MBEP). Laissez-Faire (Q9) corresponded to LF. Table 4 includes the results of the participant's answers to the leadership section through the MLQ Form.

Table 4. MLQ Results by Question

MLQ Results			
Leadership Style and Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Transformational Leadership			
II-A	4,1	1,1	5
II-B	4,0	1,1	5
IM	3,9	1,1	5
IS	3,9	1,2	5
IC	3,8	1,2	5
Transactional Leadership			
CR	3,6	1,1	4
MBEA	2,8	1,3	2
MBEP	2,8	1,4	2
Laissez-Feire Leadership			
LF	1,9	1,2	1

Table 4 offers a layout of the overall MLQ results of the online questionnaire, offering the following data – the mean, the standard deviation, both in absolute and relative value, and the mode of answer per component. From this table, one can deduct that the components evaluated with the highest response rate belong to a transformational leadership approach – the mean/average of answers corresponds to 4 (ranging from 3,8 to 4,1) - “I agree” - and the mode of the answers corresponds to 5 - “I completely agree”. The components from transformational leadership presented even values – the lowest response rate belonged to IC – 3,8- and the highest response rate belonged to II-A – 4,1. Representing a difference of 0,3, along with 5 “I completely agree” being the most common answer, it's

possible to argue that most of the participants experience and benefit from a transformational leadership perspective.

Transactional leadership has an average response of 2,8 (3 - “Neither agree nor disagree”) for MBEA and MBEP, with an answer mode of 2 - “I disagree”. This shows that the transactional leadership level isn’t substantive for this sample under the two components in question. In contrast, CRs’ results suggest that the transformational pattern noticed is impacted by this transactional component. With a mean of 3,6 (4) - “I agree” - and a mode answer of 4 - “I agree” - CR presents similar results as the transformational leadership components. In relation to the standard deviation (std) of the participants’ answers, the same pattern is noticeable – All five components of transformational leadership have a std ranging from 1,1 to 1,2; From transactional leadership, CR has a std of 1,1, while MBEA and MBEP have 1,3 and 1,4, respectively. LF shows the lowest mean answer – 1,9 (2) “I disagree” - with a mode answer of 1 and a std of 1,2.

To offer a general view, Table 5. offers an overall description of the results of the MLQ.

Table 5. MLQ Results by Component

MLQ Results		
Leadership Style	Mean	Standard Deviation
Transformational Leadership	3,9	0,03
Transactional Leadership	3,1	0,09
Laissez-Feire Leadership	1,9	1,19

As possible to see in Table 5, transformational leadership as higher relevance in the leadership identified by the participants (3,9 = 4), followed by transactional leadership (3,1 = 3), and lastly followed by Laissez-faire leadership (1,9 = 2). One can argue that the overall mean of transactional leadership is higher due to the high agreement with the CR question, given that when referring to transformational leadership, there is a small gap between means, contrary to the transactional leadership means' gap.

Table 6 concurs with the results from the MLQ overall analysis above, where the mean for each participant’s answers was calculated, and rounded to the nearest unit.

Table 6. *MLQ Results by Participant*

MLQ		
Participants Overview by Personal Answer Mean		
Mean of individual OCS Results	N° of Participants	N° of Participants (%)
1	4	2,4
2	10	5,9
3	70	41,7
4	81	48,2
5	3	1,8
Total	168	100

Through the Excel functions, participants were combined with those that had the same mean to better understand the distribution of the population on the MLQ scale. As one can observe, 50% of the population had a mean answer of 4 - “I agree” - and of 5 - “I completely agree”. The answers were based on answers from all components of the MLQ - statements such as “My leader communicates and ensures a collective sense of mission” or “” My leader avoids making decisions and expressing points of view – “He' an absent leader.”. A very small amount of the sample scored 1 - “I completely disagree” and 2 - “I disagree”, respectfully – representing 14 participants in total (8,3%), which is not representative.

The data was also collected and treated on excel, with the aid of “The PERMA Guide” (Butler and Kern, 2016). The proposed presentation on Figure 5 was assessed in a group context, rather than individual answers. The mean and mode for each component of PERMA were calculated, along with respected standard deviations. The goal is to compare the well-being of the selected population as whole to the MLQ results previously discussed. To fully analyze the flourishing levels, through the PERMA Profile, the calculations were also conducted considering both perspectives: (1) A complete overview of the PERMA components, comprising the mean, mode, and standard deviation of each dimension; (2) the mean of each participant was calculated and rounded to the nearest full number (example: 7,6 was rounded to 8). This aimed to understand the number of participants on each level of the PERMA results.

The first path reveals the values in Table 7, below. The mean of each component varies between 6,6 and 8,3, which in absolute values puts the mean of all 168 answers (for each component) between 7 and 8, which on the Linkert Scale represent high punctuations, being very close to “Always” or “Completely”. This goes accordingly with the mode calculated for each dimension, which also equals a high score on the Linkert Scale used, ranging from 7 to 10, where 5 corresponds to a neutral position.

Table 7. PERMA Results by Question

PERMA Profile Component Overview			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Positive Emotion (PE)			
PE1	7,4	1,7	8
PE2	7,5	1,8	8
PE3	7	1,9	8
Engagement (E)			
E1	6,6	2,3	8
E2	7,7	1,7	8
E3	8,3	1,8	8
Relationships (RL)			
RL1	7,7	1,9	9
RL2	7,8	2	9
RL3	8,2	1,8	9
Meaning (M)			
M1	8	1,9	10
M2	7,7	2	10&8
M3	7,7	2,1	9
Achievement (A)			
A1	7	2	7
A2	7,3	1,8	7&8
A3	7,9	1,8	8

Relationships and Meaning hold the highest values, with a mean of 7,7 to 8,2 and 7,7 to 8, respectively. Being 7,7 the lowest mean value, with a mode answer of 9 and 8-10, respectively. Nevertheless, all components show a positive pattern – PE’s mean ranges from 7 to 7,4 with a mode answer of 8; E’s mean ranges from 6,6 to 8,3 with a mode answer of 8; and A’s mean ranges from 7 to 7,9 with an even mode answer between 7 and 8. To further develop the argumentation, Table 8 shows the same information, but the same

calculations were conducted for an overview per component to better link the results with the other variables.

Table 8. PERMA Results by Component

PERMA Profile Component Overview			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Positive Emotions (PE)	7,3	0,1	8
Engagement (E)	7,5	0,3	8
Relationships (RL)	7,9	0,1	9
Meaning (M)	7,8	0,1	10
Achievement (A)	7,4	0,1	7

By analyzing Table 8, it's possible to see that the mean and mode are steady, where "Relationships" and "Meaning" have the highest number of positive answers. "Engagement" has the third highest mean, and the highest standard deviation, which means that the difference of answers of this component was higher. Table 8 sets the overall means' between 7 – PE and A with an overall mean of 7,3 and 7,4 respectively – and 8 – E, RL, and M with an overall mean of 7.5, 7.9, and 7.8, respectively. The overall mode answers ranged between 8 and 10, apart from Achievement, with a mode answer of 7. The standard deviation per question (Table 7) shows that the component's answers diverge between 1.7 and 1.9 for PE, 1.7 and 2.3 for E, 1.8 and 2 for RL, 1,9 and 2.1 for M, and 1,8 and 2 for A. All components have a difference between the lowest and the highest std of 0.2 or 0.3, except for Engagement which has a difference from the lowest std to the highest of 0.6. This is reflected in Table 8, where the std for each component is equal for all – 0.1 - besides E with a std of 0.3.

Based on Butler and Kern's proposed presentation of PERMA questionnaire results, Figure 11 reflects Table 8, with the rounded means of each category.

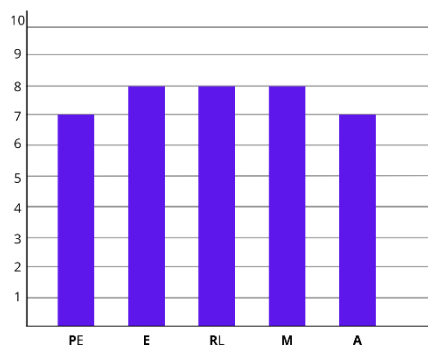


Figure 11. PERMA Profile Sample Visual Results

Figure. 11 was determined by calculating the mean of the answer for each question, and then using those values to calculate the average of answers for each component. Nevertheless, the results were similar for all components, which is affirmed by Table 9, which shows the results of the second path of analysis of participants flourishing answers.

Table 9. PERMA Profile by Participants

PERMA Profile		
Participants Overview by Personal Answer Mean		
Mean of individual PERMA Results	N° of Participants	N° of Participants (%)
3	2	1,2
4	3	1,8
5	3	1,8
6	21	12,5
7	36	21,4
8	68	40,5
9	32	19
10	3	1,8
Total	168	100

The 11-point Linkert scale used to measure the PERMA components is separated from 0-4 as negative perception, 5 as neutral, and 6-10 as positive. Table 9 presents the mean results of each participant, making it possible to see that more than 50% of the participants scored above 8, being the most significant sample on mean 8. This shows that most of the participants often answered closer to 10, representing “Always” or “Completely”. Table 9 represents PERMA Profile results for each participant where 2 participants scored 3; 3 participants scored 4 and 5 (six in total); 21 participants scored 6; 36 participants scored 7; 68 participants scored 8; 32 participants scored 9; and 3 participants scored 10.

Up to this point, it’s already possible to see overall participants’ scores show transformational leadership with high CR influence, and high levels of well-being perceptions. As the research in the literature review chapter suggests, an important conductor of effective leadership and sustainable well-being is communication effectiveness. In the organizational context, communication acts as a resource for leaders to transmit organizational mission, vision, culture, and values. For this purpose, participants were asked to answer on a 5-point Linkert Scale their perceptions regarding the leader’s

communication. The model used was the Communication Competence Model (CCM), which included three components: Knowledge (K), Skills (S), and Meaning (M), reflected in Table 10.

Table 10. CCM Results by Question

Communication Competence Model			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Knowledge (K)			
K1	3,8	1,1	4
K2	3,7	1	4
K3	3,9	1,1	4
Skills (S)			
S1	3,7	1,1	4
S2	3,7	1,2	4
S3	3,8	1,1	4
S4	3,9	1,1	4
Meaning (M)			
M1	3,5	1,3	4
M2	3,8	1,2	5
M3	3,5	1,2	4

Table 10 shows even result for each component – K and S have equal mean interval range of 3,7 to 3,9, having the same mode answer as well for all questions of each component (4 which represents “I agree”); M has a slight lower mean interval, ranging from 3,5 to 3,8, with a mode answer of 4 for two of the three questions. The third scored a mode answer of 5 - “I completely agree”. The standard deviation of the questions ranges from 1 to 1.1 for K; 1.1 to 1.2 for S; and 1.2 to 1.3 for M. This shows that the answers can go one value up or down the mean presented, where M is the component with the highest values of std. Table 11 offers the overall analysis results of the CCM by component.

Table 11. CCM by Component

Communication Competence Model			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Knowledge (K)	3,8	0,04	4
Skills (S)	3,8	0,04	4
Meaning (M)	3,6	0,04	4

Table 11 shows even values for all – A mean of 4 (3,6 and 3.8), and std of 0.04, and a mode answer of 4, representing “I agree”. The low std shows that overall, the participant’s answers for each component (combining the questions under each) barely differ, being almost 0. Lastly, the results per participant are presented in Table 12 below.

Table 12. CCM Results by Participants

**Communication Competence Model
Participants Overview by Personal Answer Mean**

Mean of individual CCM Results	Nº of Participants	Nº of Participants (%)
1	4	2,4
2	16	9,5
3	36	21,4
4	72	42,9
5	40	23,8
Total	168	100

Table 12 represents the second path of analysis taken for all scales up to this point, where the mean of each participant’s answer was analyzed on the individual level, to see the extent to which participants perceive leaders’ communication competence. Out of 168 participants, 72 had a mean answer of 4 “I agree” and 40 of 5 “I completely agree”, representing 66,7% of the participants. Following, 36 participants (21,4%) have a neutral preception/opinion, and 20 participants (11.9%) have a negative opinion, with a mean answer of 2 and 2 - “I disagree” and “I completely disagree”, respectively.

Due to dissertation’s direction towards organizational contexts, even throughout the theoretical research, participants’ commitment towards respective organizations was also addressed and measured on the questionnaire. The participants answered through a 5-point Linkert Scale to the Three-Component Organizational Commitment Scale by Allen and Meyers. Following, Table 13 offers an overview per question of the mean, the standard deviation of each question regarding the mean, and the most common answer (mode) for each as well. The components in question are – Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment.

Table 13. OCS Results by Question

Three-Component Organizational Commitment Scale			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Affective Commitment			
AC1	3	1,4	3
AC2	2,8	1,4	3
AC3	2,4	1,3	1
AC4	2,4	1,3	1
AC5	3,1	1,3	3
AC6	2,5	1,3	1
Continuance Commitment			
CC1	2,9	1,4	4
CC2	2,6	1,3	2
CC3	3,1	1,3	4
CC4	2,5	1,3	1
CC5	2,4	1,3	1
CC6	2,5	1,3	1
Normative Commitment			
NC1	3,2	1,3	3
NC2	2,6	1,2	3
NC3	2,5	1,3	1
NC4	3,1	1,4	3
NC5	2,6	1,3	1
NC6	2,7	1,3	3

Each component of the scale has six questions, as possible to observe in Table 13. The AC level has a mean ranging from 2.4 to 3.1, with a std ranging from 1.3 to 1.4, and an even answer mode of 1 and 3. The CC level holds similar means, ranging from 2.4 to 3.1, with a std ranging from 1.3 and 1.4, and a mode answers of 1, 2 and 4, depending on the question. The NC level has a mean ranging from 2.5 to 3.2, a std from 1.2 to 1.4, and a mode answer of 3 and 1, depending on the question. From these results, it's possible to argue that the participants' organizational commitment level is low, as most answer mode range from "I completely disagree" (1) and "neither agree nor disagree" (3). Questions 1 and 3 from CC are the only ones with a higher mode answer of 4, representing "I agree". The questions are "It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this organization right now even if I wanted to." and "Right now, staying with my job at this organization is a

matter of necessity as much as desire.”. Table 14 shows the overview per component, rather than per question, showing the same pattern above.

Table 14. OCS Results by Component

Three-Component Organizational Commitment Scale			
Measurement Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode
Affective Commitment (AE)	2,7	0,05	3 & 1
Continuance Commitment (CC)	2,7	0,03	1
Normative Commitment (NC)	2,8	0,05	3

The mean of the three components is 2.7-2.8, with a low standar deviation of 0.03 and 0.05 and a mode answer of 1 and 3 for AA, 1 for CC, and 3 for NC. Following, the second path of analysis undertaken for all scales as well until now - Table 15 shows the analysis of the mean for each participant’s scale result.

Table 15. OCS Results by Participants

Three-Component Organizational Commitment Scale		
Participants Overview by Personal Answer Mean		
Mean of individual OCS Results	N° of Participants	N° of Participants (%)
1	4	2,4
2	47	28
3	99	58,9
4	18	10,7
Total	168	100

The results on Table 15 were obtained when analyzing per participant rather than per component. The first notable aspect is that no participant scored 5. Secondly, only 10.7% scored 4 - “I agree”; followed by 58.9%, the highest number of participants, that

scored 3 - “Neither agree nor disagree”. Scoring 2 - “I disagree” - 28% of the participants, followed by 2.4% that scored 1 “I completely disagree”.

5.6.2 Leader’s Communication versus Growth and Development

The questionnaire’s last section regarded an open-ended question, already quoted above, allowing participants to share an experience or idea of their leaders’ contribution to their well-being and growth. The data was all transferred to Excel as well, and the analysis considered three steps - (1) Identify if the answer had a positive or negative connotation; (2) Identify keywords and find synonyms to understand better what the most valued contributions from leaders are (3) Compilation of table with positive and negative behaviors/connotations found to better relate with the quantitative data - Table 16 and 17, respectfully, are the result of this analysis. It’s important to note that the information retrieved was purely based on the comments of participants, where the only adjustments made were for instance: “My leader organizes a weekly breakfast to bond with the team members and know us well” was translated into “Close Relationships”. The same worked for the Negative stimulus table. To build the Tables below – 16 and 17 – two dimensions were identified – The Components and The Outcomes.

Table 16. Positive Identified Connotations on Participants' Answers

Positive	
Defined Components	Defined Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sense of Belonging; • Team-work; • Supportive Environment; • Close Relationships; • Sense of “Know-How” from the Leader; • Support Net; • Learning Opportunities; • Open and Transparent Relationships; • Emotional Bond With Team and Leader; • Leader “The Guide”; • Continuance and Frequency of Communication from Leader; • Leader “The Mentor and Coach” • Confident Leader (1); • Sense of Commitment Towards the Leader; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification With Organizational Mission and Vision; • Sense of Meaning and Purpose; • Available Leader; • Continuant and Frequent Feedback; • Sense of Autonomy; • Clear Set of Expectations; • Present Leader; • Respectful Environment; • Accountable Leader for Team’s Actions; • Trustful Environment; • Sense of Reward and Recognition; • A Leader Who Takes Input from the Team; • Enables Critical Thinking; • Allows Employees to Make Decisions; • A Leader Who Takes Action.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional Growth; • Motivational Levels; • Strengthen of Skills; • Sense of Change; • Sense of Happiness; • Confident Team (1); • Sense of Organizational Pride; • Organizational Commitment; • Sense of Meaning and Purpose.

On the positive spectrum, under components, the following were identified: Sense of Belonging; Team-work; Supportive Environment; Close Relationships; Sense of “Know-How” from the Leader; Support Net; Learning Opportunities; Open and Transparent Relationships; Emotional Bond With Team and Leader; Leader “The Guide”; Continuance and Frequency of Communication from Leader; Leader “The Mentor and Coach”; Confident Leader (1); Sense of Commitment Towards the Leader; Identification With Organizational Mission and Vision; Sense of Meaning and Purpose; Available Leader; Continuant and Frequent Feedback; Sense of Autonomy; Clear Set of Expectations; Present Leader; Respectful Environment; Accountable Leader for Team’s Actions; Trustful Environment; Sense of Reward and Recognition; A Leader Who Takes Input from the Team; Enables Critical Thinking; Allows Employees to Make Decisions; A Leader Who Takes Action.

The identified components were all examples/ideas of participants of what allows them to grow and develop, while keeping motivation and learning. After the academic review of the evaluated concepts throughout the study, one can argue that the qualitative results matched several of the “globally accepted” needs/dimensions of the three topics addressed – Leadership, Communication, and Flourishing – reviewed in the literature analysis. Also, it’s possible to notice an interconnectedness between the concepts – For instance “Sense of “know-how” from leader” can be understood from a leadership

perspective and a communicational one, both as independent and combined. Due to the explanations provided by participants, a list of possible outcomes that they felt was also compiled, as possible to observe on Table 16. The following outcomes were identified: Professional Growth; Motivational Levels; Strengthen of Skills; Sense of Change; Sense of Happiness; Confident Team; Sense of Organizational Pride; Organizational Commitment; Sense of Meaning and Purpose. These were benefits from an effective leadership often identified throughout the academic analysis, that were also mentioned as outcomes of a flourishing individual.

Table 17. Negative Identified Connotations on Participants' Answers

Negative	
<p style="text-align: center;">Defined Components</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of Trust and Transparency; • Lack of Continuance; • Lack of Knowledge; • Poor Decision-Making From Leader; • Lack of Bond with Leader; • Absent Leader, • Narcissism; • Manipulation; • Absence of Rewards; • Lack of Recognition from the Leader; • Low Frequency of Communication - Lack of Feedback; • Unclear Communication; • A Leader Who Takes Credit for Teams' Work; • Sense of Quitting or Changing Departments; • Individualistic Leader - Takes Interest Only in Own's Interests; • Lack of Support - Absence of Support Net. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Defined Outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased Motivation; • Turnover Intention; • Lack of Organizational Commitment and Identification; • Lower/Poor Professional Performance; • Lack of a Secure Environment; • Lack of Work Resources to Professionally Grow.

In contrast, the following negative components were identified: Lack of Trust and Transparency; Lack of Continuance; Lack of Knowledge; Poor Decision-Making From Leader; Lack of Bond with Leader; Absent Leader; Narcissism; Manipulation; Absence of Rewards; Lack of Recognition from the Leader; Low Frequency of Communication - Lack of Feedback; Unclear Communication; A Leader Who Takes Credit for Teams' Work; Sense of Quitting or Changing Departments; Individualistic Leader - Takes Interest Only in Own's Interests; Lack of Support - Absence of Support Net. The outcomes defined for

the negative connotation components, based on participants' answers, are as follows – Decreased Motivation; Turnover Intention; Lack of Organizational Commitment and Identification; Lower/Poor Performance; Lack of a Secure Environment; Lack of Work Resources to Professionally Grow. The contrast between the tables is obvious – they're almost antinomies to each other. Overall, the results from both allow for the argumentation that human-relating strategies and dimensions were often identified as conductors for high motivation, growth and commitment (among others). Further, some of the participants identified a growth in the form of enacting change, praising the leader's communication and close relationship with the whole team, together and individually.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

This section aims to relate the study's data analysis and results to the propositions generated throughout the academic review. Each proposition is followed by the respective study findings, allowing for conclusions to be made. Also, the study also offers a general conclusion.

P1: Leader's communication competence is positively related to an effective transformational leadership approach and employee's self-perception of flourishing.

The academic review of the literature asserted that communication is the main conductor of human interactions – both on the professional and personal levels. The scholarly review also pointed out that for leadership to be effective, it relies on communication aspects to transmit and guide followers. Further, it also suggests that effective communication and leadership have the power to influence well-being. Hence, this proposition suggests that a transformational leader perceived to have competent communication positively correlates with employees' self-perceptions of flourishing.

From Tables 4, 5 and 6 it's possible to see that the main leadership style identified was transformational with high influence of CR from transactional leadership – As Bass (2008) argued, an effective leader is one that is both transformational and transactional, knowing when to apply each style. As possible to see on Appendix 1, the pattern of answers for the MLQ holds higher answer modes – 4 and 5 – for transformational components,

representing “I agree” and “I completely agree”. Following, Figueres 12; 13, and 14, show some of the graphs obtained from google forms.

My leader promotes a confident and respectful environment. O meu líder promove um ambiente de respeito e confiança.
168 respostas

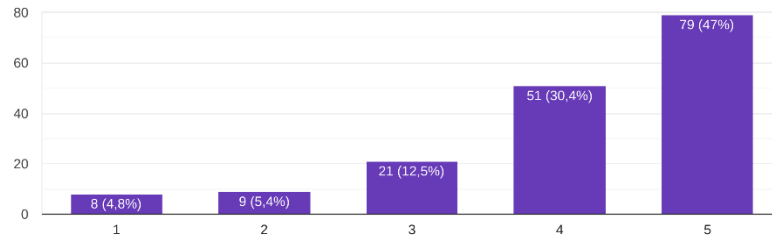


Figure 12. Component Question

My leader communicates in a positive and encouraging manner, motivating team members. O meu líder comunica de forma positiva e estimulante, motivando os membros da equipa.
168 respostas

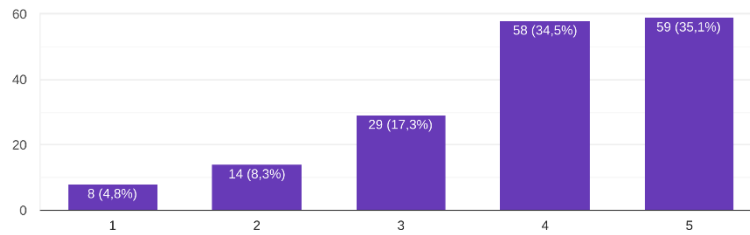


Figure 13. Component Question

My leader acts like a coach and/or mentor, helping team members to learn and develop strengths. O meu líder, como mentor, ajuda os me... da equipa a aprender e desenvolver capacidades.
168 respostas

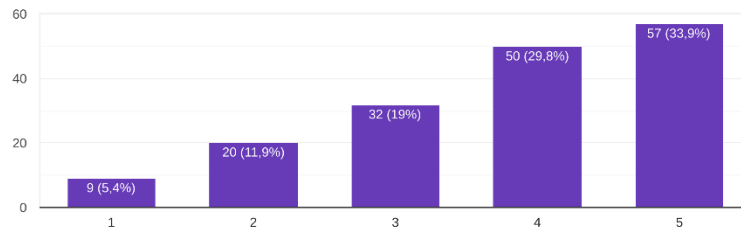


Figure 14. Component Question

Figure 15, 16, and 17 below represent answers for the transactional components. Figure 15 shows the CR answers versus Figures 16 and 17, which show the MBEA and MBEP. The difference between components of transactional leadership is evident, showing the importance of reward and recognition systems for participants.

My leader recognizes when I achieved the intended goals and offers rewards as well. O meu líder reconhece quando alcanço os meus objetivos, e oferece recompensas.
168 respostas

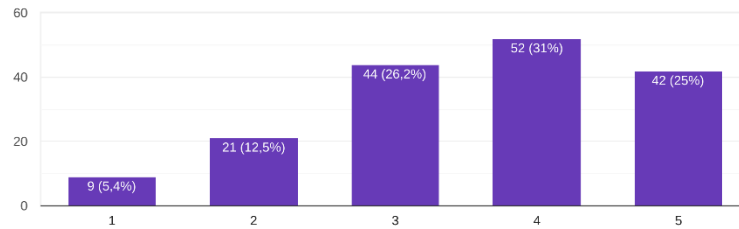


Figure 15. Component Question

My leader is actively looking for mine and my colleagues' mistakes. O meu líder procura ativamente por erros meus e dos restantes membros da equipa.
168 respostas

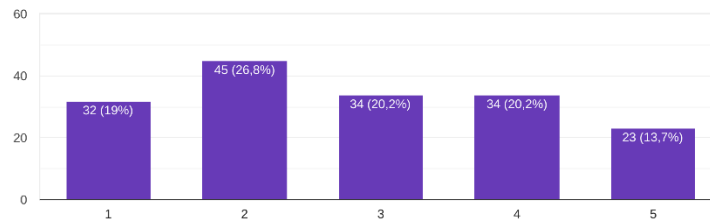


Figure 16. Component Question

My leader only acts when it is serious – he's somewhat inactive until he's forced not to be. O meu líder age apenas quando necessário - mantém-se lon...problema em questão, até ser essencial intervir.
168 respostas

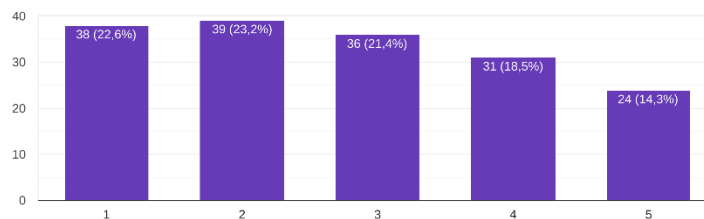


Figure 17. Component Question

Further, the participants answered a set of questions regarding their well-being perception level, resulting mainly in high-functioning perceived individuals, with good well-being levels – hence, a flourishing sample. The following – Figure 18, 19, and 20 – show the results for some of the PERMA components relevant to this discussion.

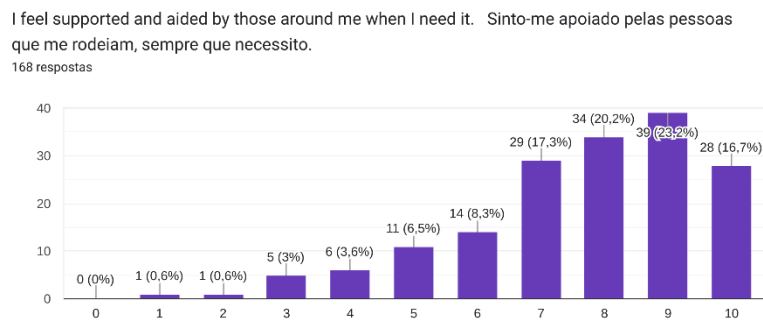


Figure 18. Component Question

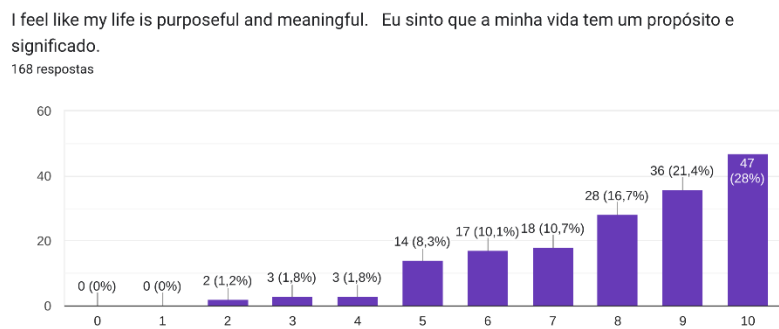


Figure 19. Component Question

I often achieve the goals I have set for myself. Eu atingo os objetivos que defino, frequentemente.
168 respostas

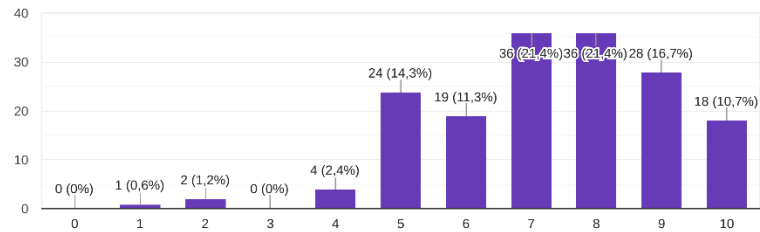


Figure 20. Component Question

Lastly, participants answered questions regarding their perception of their leaders' knowledge, skill, and meaning, making it possible to observe the results on Tables 10 and 11. Overall, both tables show that participants perceive their leader's communication as effective, with overall components' mean and mode values of 4. Further, Table 12 shows the results per participant, rather than per component, showing 66,7% of the participants have a mean answer of 4 or 5 which are the highest answers of the Linkert Scale - "I agree" and "I completely agree". Figures 21, 22, and 23 show some answers, one for each component.

My leader knows how to carry himself, embodying the organizations' culture. O meu líder sabe como comunicar e estar, incorporando e implementando a cultural organizacional.
168 respostas

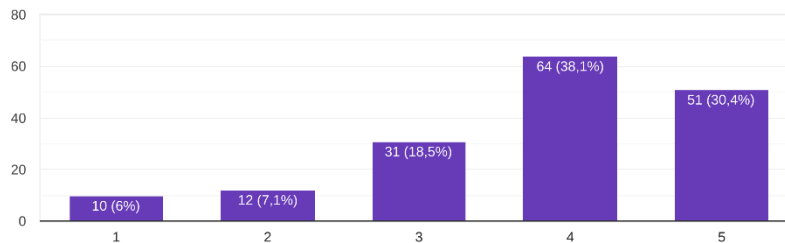


Figure 21. Component Question

My leader effectively uses verbal and non-verbal communication to transmit a confident and controlled portrayal, by not avoiding eye contact o...lada, mantendo contacto visual e uma boa postura.
168 respostas

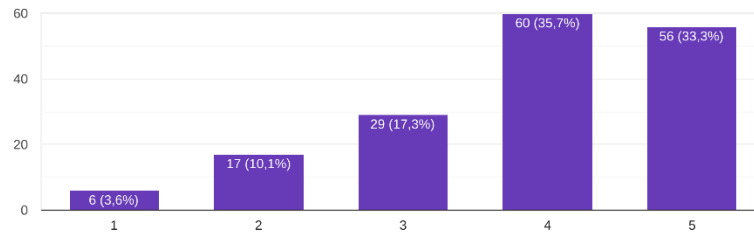


Figure 22. Component Question

My leader values open and clear communication, clarifying role expectations. O meu líder valoriza comunicação aberta e transparente, especificando as expectativas profissionais.
168 respostas

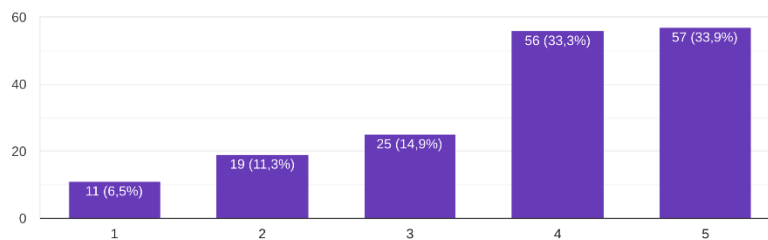


Figure 23. Component Question

The argumentation this dissertation aims to contribute to is to understand the power of communication as a resource (1) for an effective leadership and (2) positively contribute to employee self-perception of well-being. The conclusions for the communication results are as follows – (1) From Table 10 presented in the result analysis, it’s possible to see that the CCM results per component have similar mean, standard deviation, and mode values – representing 4 “I agree” and 5 “I completely agree”. (2) From figures 21, 22, and 23, that present the results of one question from each component, it’s also possible to observe that the most common answers are 4 and 5. Especially due to conclusion 1, it’s given fact that the answer pattern for all component’s answers is similar. (3) Due to the high concentration on the high spectrum of the Likert Scale, it’s possible to argue that the participants have a positive perception of leader’s communication. (4) “I feel motivated by my leader’s communication” is the first question from Motivation – one of CCM’s measurement components – showing that participants positively relate their motivation level with their leader’s communication; “My leader pays attention to the team’s verbal and non-verbal

communication, by listening, being empathic, questioning, observing and supporting.” is one of the questions within Skills – another CCM measurement component – showing that participants perceive their leader’s to be an effective communicator that listens, shows empathy, questions, observes and supports; This dissertation argues that this was also often mentioned characteristics of transformational leaders, also reviewed and often mentioned in the previous academic review. (5) This empathy capacity of the participant’s leaders is enforced by the PERMA results. Being empathic is the skill of emotionally relate, being understanding, being able to bond; The participant’s answers have revealed that sample is high functioning, according to the Butler and Kern’s already mentioned result interpretation values; Figures 18, 19, and 20 show that meaning, purpose, support and achievement of goals are some of the evaluated dimensions, which were often classified on the highest positive spectrum of the Linker Scale – this shows high concordance with the well-being statements; Once again, similar dimensions are displayed – support, meaning, empathy (emotional bond).

In conclusion, P1 can be confirmed, as there is a multidimensional connection between concepts. The argumentation concludes that communication, powered by competent knowledge, skills, and motivation, is the right tool to be an effective transformational leader, and to positively contribute to well-being perception of employees.

P2: An employee who has a positive perceived well-being state, feels good about his/her life and will only strive for more happiness. Hence, a flourishing employee feels a sense of commitment to the organization.

In the organizational context, the academic review also suggests that employees who feel good at their jobs and in their lives can benefit companies. One of the benefits suggested is the commitment toward the organization. Proposition 2 was answered through the analysis of the PERMA descriptive analysis with the components of the OCS.

The organizational commitment scale is evaluated under three commitment levels – the Affective, the Continuance, and the Normative. The literature suggests that the level of commitment is dependable of one’s circumstances to the organization – have they invested in mentoring or training? Am I 100% dependent on this job? Do I feel a high sense of belonging to this organization? Allen and Meyers (1996) argue that an employee can have a high affective and normative commitment, but show a low continuance commitment, and backwards – In sum, they defend that commitment is not a linear concept,

but a complex idea, as an employee can feel committed to the organization, for any reason, and still have the feeling of wanting to leave. Or feeling commitment for several reasons, that if analyzed aren't in the same commitment level.

The OCS table results, allow for the following discussion and P2 conclusion. Important to note that the phrasing of these questions were often negatively connotated, which had an impact on the results – Tables 13 and 14 show similar mean values for all three types of commitment, making it difficult with the existing data to affirm the most predominant dimension of commitment – which goes in accordance with the academic view presented by the OCS model; (2) Table 15 shows that no participant scored 5 “I completely agree”; (3) Only 10,7 of the sample answered 4”I agree”; (4) Most of the participants – almost 60% - have a neutral perspective/idea of the commitment towards their organization; (5) In general, the commitment result values are neutral tending to the lower spectrum of the Linkert Scale – For instance, table 15 shows that after 3 “Neither agree nor disagree”, the most common answer was 2 “I disagree”, with 28%, with overall results between 3 and 1 holding 89,3% of the sample;

Following, figures 24, 25, and 26 show questions about the measurement component of the OCS, which will show the impact of the sentence's phrasing and allow for more conclusions to be drawn.

I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization. Eu não tenho um sentimento de pertença forte a esta organização.
168 respostas

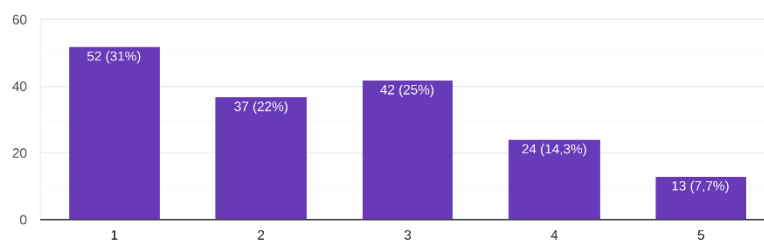


Figure 24. Component Question

I do not feel like 'part of my family' at this organization. Eu não me sinto "parte da família" nesta organização.

168 respostas

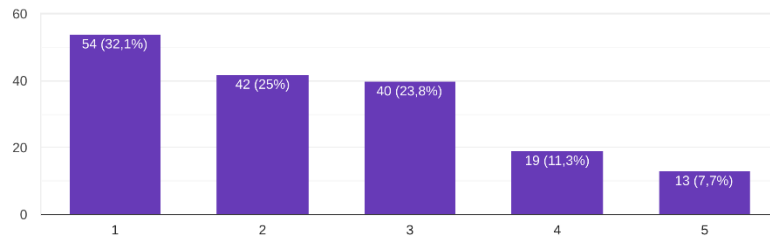


Figure 25. Component Question

I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. Eu não me sinto "ligado emocionalmente " a esta organização.

168 respostas

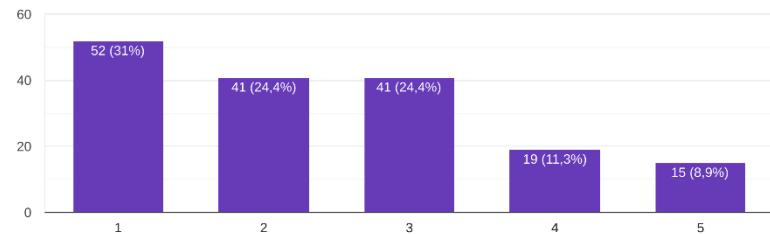


Figure 26. Component Question

These show that participants often answered, “I disagree” and “I strongly disagree” for the mentioned questions; being possible to argue that participants have a sense of belonging in their professional life, feel “part of the family”, and are emotionally attached to the organization they’re in. Nevertheless, in general one can argue that the commitment level of participants is low, as questions such as “I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it.” or “I would feel guilty if I left this organization now”, also show most common answers to be 1 “I disagree” and “I strongly disagree”. Possible to see on Figures 27 and 28.

I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it. Eu não sairia da minha organização agora, devido ao meu sentido de obrigação para com a mesma.

168 respostas

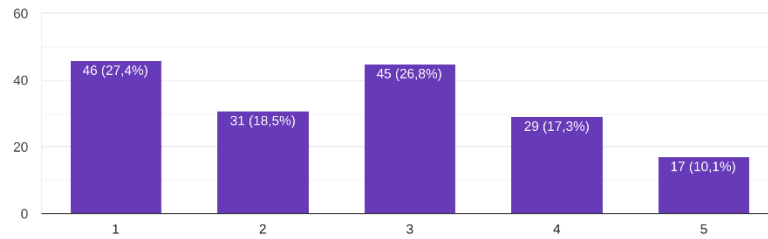


Figure 27. Component Question

I would feel guilty if I left this organization now. Sentiria-me culpada se saísse agora da minha organização.

168 respostas

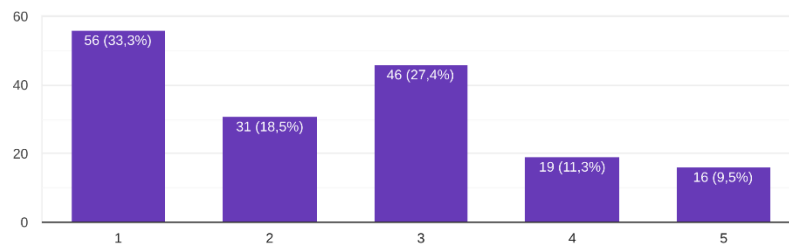


Figure 28. Component Question

In contrast, one can also argue that questions like “One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that living would require considerable personal sacrifice.”, “One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives elsewhere.” or “I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.” also present the same answer pattern; possible to see on Figures 29, 30 and 31.

I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. Eu acredito que tenho poucas opções a considerar ao sair desta organização.

168 respostas

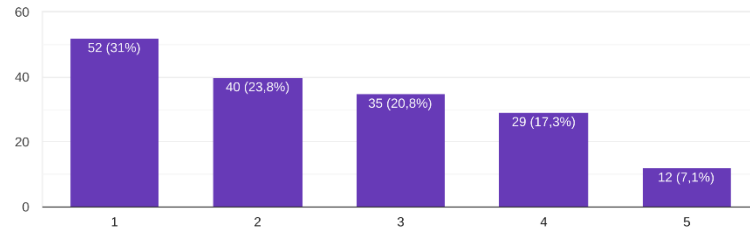


Figure 29. Component Question

One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organization would be the scarcity of available alternative elsewhere. Uma das única...ação seria a falta de opções noutras organizações.

168 respostas

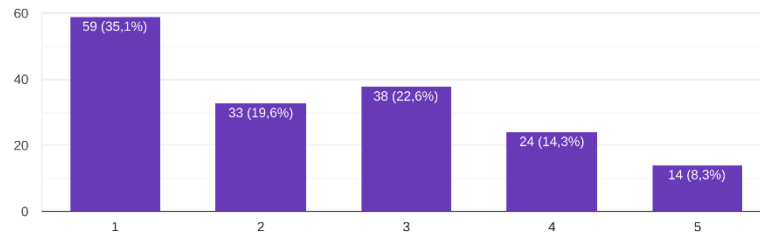


Figure 30. Component Question

One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice. Uma das maiores r...e sair, requer um sacrifício pessoal considerável.

168 respostas

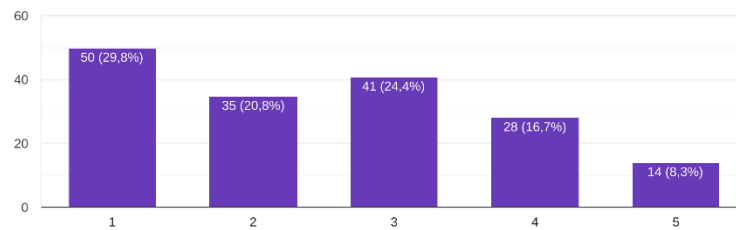


Figure 31. Component Question

Overall, P2 can be answered by arguing the following (1) Even though the results didn't show bulletproof values, the results suggest a higher affective commitment compared to continuance and normative commitment. (2) From the answer layout just offered, it's also possible to observe that participants believe that they have other options

besides their organization, and in general, have no sense of obligation or guilt to not leave the organization they're in – Therefore they stay since they feel an emotional attachment to it. (3) This also goes in accordance with the previous discussion, as the PERMA analysis suggested, once again, a sample that in general perceives themselves to have high well-being levels, which according to the literature is related to emotional connectedness – An employee who has a high well-being state, and has a sense of belonging, amongst others, can develop an emotional level of commitment; however, evidence also suggests that it's not directly linked to a sense of obligation, and so, it's not possible to conclude a direct linkage with flourishing level and overall commitment.

This dissertation has presented an extensive academic review, with definitions, models, and different perspectives of (1) Leadership, (2) Communication, (3) Flourishing, and (4) Organizational Outcomes. This review was the basis for the propositions generated, which has been answered, making it possible to draw the following conclusions.

(1) Transformational leadership was the main identified leadership pattern. However, supporting Bass's (2008) argument that an effective leader is one that shows both transformational and transactional behaviors, CR was identified as an important factor to add to the transformational approach. (2) Communication can be argued to be the essential tool for effective transformational leadership, as well as an important resource when bonding with followers, contributing to their well-being. (3) The scoring results offered by Butler and Kern showed that the participants were in majority identified as “very high functioning” and “high functioning. Also, meaning and relationships were identified as the most highly perceived components. (4) After identifying transformational leadership as the predominant approach; Understanding that it is highly influenced by communication knowledge, skills, and meaning; Assessing that the well-being perception levels were high, showing that important dimensions of flourishing are fulfilled; It's possible to conclude that transformational leadership through competent communication leads to employee flourishing. (5) Organizational commitment can be presented on several levels at the same time, varying on context. As shown throughout the discussion, affective commitment was the only one identified aspect of commitment of the participants. Hence, this dissertation argues that a high-functioning workforce will most likely develop emotional bonds that will lead to affective commitment.

The discussion started by aiming at understanding the impact of leadership communication behaviors on employee flourishing, and as evolved to the assumption that transformational leadership was the necessary force to highly influence on well-being levels and promote organizational success through it. This assumption was based on the extensive review, later proved by the methodological study, leaving one conclusion to be made – Is transformation (from transformational leadership) the same as change (to achieve flourishing)? The academics haven't agreed on several dimensions, defining ideas or outcomes on all concepts mentioned. Nevertheless, they can agree that flourishing is the enactment of change to achieve evolution and growth towards a “complete well-being state”. Transformational leadership characteristics, even though directed towards an organizational perspective, can be considered to have the same need of enacting professional change to achieve a higher professional sense. Hence, this dissertation argues that, given all the data presented, analyzed, and discussed, transformational leadership calls for the same change as flourishing, but on a lower sense of self – whereas one targets the human being, the other considers personal factors but focuses purely on the organizational context.

7. Limitations

The study conducted on this dissertation followed all the academic necessary specifications. Nevertheless, some limitations were identified throughout the conduction of the same.

On the methodology section, the sample size – (1) Even though big enough to draw interesting conclusions, was moderate, which may have caused limitation on the generalization of the conclusions. Hence, to validate the results, future work can be of interest, serving also as a comparison with the existing. (2) The fact that the study was conducted through a self-reported survey, which may cause biased and inaccurate results. (3) Due to the choice of models, important components may have been left out for not being included in the existing frameworks. Also, the inclusion of these factors may have altered the results. (4) Need for statistical correlations that were a little bit outside my technological and statistical expertise. Nevertheless, after researching and understanding the necessary steps, the limitation was surpassed.

This study can serve as a great starting point to further analyze the impact of transformational leadership within the Portuguese organizational context, being a great asset to use in one organization, for example, as a case study. This is due to the extensive academic review undertaken. Also, some interesting elements that could have better supported the propositions were the existence of a focus group and/or a few interviews with leaders. Both of these qualitative methods would have been helpful and interesting to better understand the relationship between all variables. Nevertheless, due to the limited time for the MS thesis, only the descriptive statistical analysis and an open-ended question were considered.

8. References

- Akramov, K. F., & Kokanboeva, G. S. (2023). Social exchange theory. *European Journal of Emerging Technology and Discoveries*, 1(9), 48-52.
- Alexander, G. S., & Peñalver, E. M. (2012). *An introduction to property theory* (1st ed.). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0521-11365-6.
- Alexandrova, A. (2017). *A philosophy for the science of well-being*. Oxford University Press.
- Almayali, H. H. M., Al-Sharifi, Z. H. M., & Haddawee, A. H. (2023). Reflection of organizational commitment and organizational trust in psychological flourishing in Iraqi higher education institutions. *International Journal of eBusiness and eGovernment Studies*, 15(4), 54–88. <https://doi.org/10.34111/ijepeg.20231504.05>
- Ambady, N., LaPlante, D., Nguyen, T., Rosenthal, R., Chaumeton, N., & Levinson, W. (2002). Surgeons' tone of voice: A clue to malpractice history. *Surgery*, 132(1), 5–9. <https://doi.org/10.1067/msy.2002.124651>
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). Arlington, VA.
- Anderson, A. R., & Fowers, B. J. (2020). An exploratory study of friendship characteristics and their relations with hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 37(1), 260–280. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407519861152>
- Arakawa, D., & Greenberg, M. (2007). Optimistic managers and their influence on productivity and employee engagement in a technology organisation: Implications for coaching psychologists. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 2(1), 78–89.
- Arnold, K. A., Turner, N., Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & McKee, M. C. (2007). Transformational leadership and psychological well-being: The mediating role of meaningful work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12(3), 193–203. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.3.193>

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Jordan, P. J. (2008). A multilevel view of leadership and emotion. In *Affect and emotion: New directions in management theory and research* (pp. 17–39). Information Age Publishing.

Awaad, R., & Reicherter, D. (Eds.). (2016). *Psychotherapy for immigrant youth* (pp. 185–196). Springer International Publishing.

Awamleh, R., & Gardner, W. L. (1999). Perceptions of leader charisma and effectiveness: The effects of vision content, delivery, and organizational performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*(3), 345–373. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(99\)00010-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00010-7)

Badal, S., & Harter, J. K. (2014). Gender diversity, business-unit engagement, and performance. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *21*(4), 354–365. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051814543040>

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands–resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115>

Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behavior: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(2), 147–154. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.515>

Balda, A. (2022). Balenciaga and the Importance of Creativity in Human Flourishing. In *Human Flourishing: A Multidisciplinary Perspective on Neuroscience, Health, Organizations and Arts* (pp. 183–196). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Barnlund, D. C. (2017). A transactional model of communication. In *Communication theory* (pp. 47–57). Routledge.

Barraza, M., Las Heras, M., & Rofcanin, Y. (2023). Work, Family, and Human Flourishing. *Human Flourishing*, *97*.

Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(1), 9–32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398410>

Bass, B. M. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). Free Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Sage.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2002). *Developing potential across a full range of leadership: Cases on transactional and transformational leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (3rd ed.). Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden, Inc.

Bauman, Z. (2007). *Liquid times: Living in an age of uncertainty*. Cambridge Polity.

Becton, J. B., Giles, W. F., & Schraeder, M. (2008). Evaluating and rewarding OCBs: Potential consequences of formally incorporating organizational citizenship behavior in performance appraisal and reward systems. *Employee Relations*, 30(5), 494–514. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01425450810888277>

Bennis, W. (2007). The challenges of leadership in the modern world: Introduction to the special issue. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 2–5. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.62.1.2>

Blake, R., & McCaense, A. (1991). *Leadership dilemmas: Grid solutions*. Gulf Publishing.

Booth Butterfield, M., & Booth Butterfield, S. (1990). Conceptualizing affect as information in communication production. *Human Communication Research*, 16(4), 451–476. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1990.tb00242.x>

Bosch, M. J. (2022). Conclusion: What We Have Learnt From Multidisciplinary Views on Human Flourishing. In *Human Flourishing: A Multidisciplinary Perspective on Neuroscience, Health, Organizations and Arts* (pp. 225-234). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *11*(2), 238–263. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2391211>

Breen, K. (2007). Work and emancipatory practice: Towards a recovery of human beings' productive capacities. *Research in Public Affairs*, *13*, 381–414.

Brown, M. E., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(6), 595–616. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.10.004>

Brown, S. L., Nesse, R. M., Vinokur, A. D., & Smith, D. M. (2003). Providing social support may be more beneficial than receiving it: Results from a prospective study of mortality. *Psychological Science*, *14*(4), 320–327. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.14461>

Bugental, D. B., Lyon, J. E., Lin, E. K., McGrath, E. P., & Bimbela, A. (1999). Children “tune out” in response to the ambiguous communication style of powerless adults. *Child Development*, *70*(1), 214–230. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8624.00016>

Buitendach, J. H., & De Witte, H. (2005). Job insecurity, extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal. *South African Journal of Business Management*, *36*(2), 27–37. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajbm.v36i2.583>

Buller, M. K., & Buller, D. B. (1987). Physicians' communication style and patient satisfaction. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, *28*(4), 375–388. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136893>

Bultman, D. C., & Svarstad, B. L. (2000). Effects of physician communication style on client medication beliefs and adherence with antidepressant treatment. *Patient Education and Counseling*, *40*(2), 173–185. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0738-3991\(99\)00098-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0738-3991(99)00098-3)

Burgers, C., van Biemen, T., van Eeghen, R., & Mann, D. L. (2023). Effects of Communication Style on Competence Evaluations of Soccer Referees: Procedural Versus Relational Framing. *Communication & Sport*, *11*(3), 509–527.

Burgoon, J. K., & Dunbar, N. (2000). An interactionist perspective on dominance-submission: Interpersonal dominance as a dynamically, situationally contingent social skill. *Communication Monographs*, 67(1), 96–121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637750009376528>

Burgoon, J. K., & Hale, J. L. (1984). The fundamental topoi of relational communication. *Communication Monographs*, 51(2), 193–214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637758409390245>

Burgoon, J. K., & Hale, J. L. (1987). Validation and measurement of the fundamental themes of relational communication. *Communication Monographs*, 54(1), 19–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637758709390208>

Burgoon, J. K., Buller, D. B., Hale, J. L., & deTurck, M. A. (1984). Relational messages associated with nonverbal behaviors. *Human Communication Research*, 10(3), 351–378. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1984.tb00076.x>

Burgoon, J. K., Guerrero, L. K., & Manusov, V. (2011). Nonverbal signals. In M. L. Knapp & J. A. Daly (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of interpersonal communication* (pp. 239–280). SAGE.

Burgoon, J. K., Pfau, M., Parrott, R., Birk, T., Coker, R., & Burgoon, M. (1987). Relational communication, satisfaction, compliance gaining strategies, and compliance in communication between physicians and patients. *Communication Monographs*, 54(3), 307–324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637758709390219>

Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(6), 606–632. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2007.09.006>

Bushra, F., Ahmad, U., & Naveed, A. (2011). Effect of transformational leadership on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the banking sector of Lahore (Pakistan). *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(13), 61–70.

Butler, J., & Kern, M. L. (2013). The PERMA-Profil: A brief multidimensional measure of flourishing. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(6), 422–431. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2013.830764>

Butler, J., & Kern, M. L. (2016). The PERMA-profiler: A brief multidimensional measure of flourishing. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 6(3), 1–48. <https://doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v6i3.526>

Butler, J., & Kern, M. L. (). The PERMA-Profiler: A brief measure of flourishing. Philadelphia, PA.

Cacioppo, J. T., & Patrick, W. (2008). *Loneliness: Human nature and the need for social connection*. W. W. Norton.

Callard, A. (2018). *Aspiration: The agency of becoming*. Oxford University Press.

Cameron, K. S. (2012). *Positive leadership: Strategies for extraordinary performance*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cebral-Loureda, M., Tamés-Muñoz, E., & Hernández-Baqueiro, A. (2022). The fertility of a concept: A bibliometric review of human flourishing. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(5). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19052586>

Chan, K. M., Gould, R. K., & Pascual, U. (2018). Editorial overview: Relational values: What are they, and what's the fuss about? *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 35, A1–A7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2018.02.002>

Chater, N., & Loewenstein, G. (2015). The under-appreciated drive for sense-making. *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 126, 137–154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2015.10.016>

Choi, W., Kim, S. L., & Yun, S. (2019). A social exchange perspective of abusive supervision and knowledge sharing: Investigating the moderating effects of psychological contract fulfillment and self-enhancement motive. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 34(3), 305–319. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-9556-7>

Christensen, A. (1988). Dysfunctional interaction patterns in couples. In P. Noller & M. A. Fitzpatrick (Eds.), *Perspectives on marital interaction* (pp. 93–114). Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters.

Connaughton, S. L., & Daly, J. (2004). Leading from afar: Strategies for effectively leading virtual teams. In S. Godar & S. P. Ferris (Eds.), *Virtual and collaborative teams: Process, technologies and practice* (pp. 49–75). Idea Group Inc.

Connaughton, S. L., & Daly, J. (2004). Leading in geographically dispersed organizations: An empirical study of long-distance leadership from the perspective of individuals being led from afar. *Corporate Communication: An International Journal*, 9(2), 89–103. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13563280410806505>

Cooke, P. J., Melchert, T. P., & Connor, K. (2016). Measuring well-being: A review of instruments. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 44(5), 730–757. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000016633507>

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Shore, L. M. (2007). The employee–organization relationship: Where do we go from here? *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(2), 166–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2007.03.008>

Cropanzano, R., & Rupp, D. E. (2008). Social exchange theory and organizational justice. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Justice, morality, and social responsibility* (pp. 63–99). Information Age Publishing.

de Carvalho, T. F., de Aquino, S. D., & Natividade, J. C. (2021). Flourishing in the Brazilian context: Evidence of the validity of the PERMA-profiler scale. *Current Psychology*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01587-w>

De Coning, J. A. (2016). *Does good pay compensate for a dissatisfying job? The relationship between gross wage, wage satisfaction, job satisfaction, and life satisfaction* (Doctoral dissertation). Vanderbijlpark: North-West University.

De Vries, R. E., Bakker-Pieper, A., & Oostenveld, W. (2010). Leadership = communication? The relations of leaders' communication styles with leadership styles, knowledge sharing, and leadership outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 367–380. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-009-9140-1>

De Vries, R. E., Roe, R. A., & Taillieu, T. C. B. (2002). Need for leadership as a moderator of the relationships between leadership and individual outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(2), 121–137. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(02\)00002-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00002-0)

De Vries, R. E., Van den Hooff, B., & De Ridder, J. A. (2006). Explaining knowledge sharing: The role of team communication styles, job satisfaction, and performance beliefs. *Communication Research*, 33(2), 115–135. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650205285361>

DeCaro, F. P., DeCaro, N., & Bowen-Thompson, F. O. (2010). An examination of leadership styles of minority business entrepreneurs: A case study of public contracts. *Journal of Business and Economic Studies*, 16, 72–78.

DeGroot, T., Kiker, D. S., & Cross, T. C. (2000). A meta-analysis to review organizational outcomes related to charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 17(4), 356–371. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1936-4490.2000.tb00213.x>

Delle Fave, A., Brdar, I., Wissing, M. P., Araujo, U., Castro Solano, A., Freire, T., ... & Vella-Brodick, D. (2016). Lay definitions of happiness across nations: The primacy of inner harmony and relational connectedness. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 30. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00030>

Demir, M., Orthel, H., & Andelin, A. K. (2013). Friendships and happiness. In S. David, D. S. Boniwell, & A. C. Ayers (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of happiness* (pp. 860–871). Oxford University Press.

Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., & Dorfman, P. W. (1999). Culture-specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 219–256. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(99\)00010-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00010-5)

Denning, S. (2005). *The leader's guide to storytelling: Mastering the art and discipline of business narrative*. John Wiley & Sons.

Denning, S. (2006). Effective storytelling: Strategic business narrative techniques. *Strategy & Leadership*, 34(1), 42–48. <https://doi.org/10.1108/10878570610643795>

Deng, X., Wei, Z., Lu, H., Tu, C., & Yang, Y. (2024). Community Social Capital Enhances the Subjective Well-Being of Urban Residents: The Mediating Role of Psychological Flourishing and Moderating Effect of Educational Attainment. *Social Sciences (2076-0760)*, 13(4), 214. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci13040214>

Densten, I. L. (2005). The relationship between visioning behaviours of leaders and follower burnout. *British Journal of Management*, 16(2), 105–118. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2005.00444.x>

Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 34–43. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.34>

Diener, E., & Lucas, R. (1999). Personality and subjective well-being. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 213–229). Sage.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71–75. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa4901_13

Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Tay, L. (2018). Advances in subjective wellbeing research. *Nature Human Behaviour*, 2(4), 253–260. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-018-0307-6>

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276–302. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.2.276>

Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010). New well-being measures: Short scales to assess flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research*, 97(2), 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-009-9493-y>

Dillard, J. P., Solomon, D. H., & Palmer, M. T. (1999). Structuring the concept of relational communication. *Communication Monographs*, 66(1), 49–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637759909376418>

Dodge, R., Daly, A., Huyton, J., & Sanders, L. (2012). The challenge of defining wellbeing. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 2(3), 222–235. <https://doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v2i3.4> (Accessed September 15, 2016)

Drazin, R., Glynn, M. A., & Kazanjian, R. K. (1999). Multilevel theorizing about creativity in organizations: A sensemaking perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(2), 286–307. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1999.1893932>

Dunn, D. S., & Dougherty, S. B. (2008). Flourishing: Mental health as living life well. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 27(3), 314–316. <https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2008.27.3.314>

Easton, M. (2006). Britain's happiness in decline. BBC News. http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/programmes/happiness_formula/4771908.stm

Fairhurst, G. T. (1993). The leader-member exchange patterns of women leaders in industry: A discourse analysis. *Communication Monographs*, 60(4), 322–349. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637759309376303>

Fairhurst, G. T., & Connaughton, S. L. (2014). Leadership communication. In *The SAGE handbook of organizational communication: Advances in theory, research, and method* (pp. 401–423). SAGE.

Fleishman, E. A., & Harris, E. F. (1962). Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover. *Personnel Psychology*, 15, 43–56. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1962.tb00751.x>

Fowers, B. J. (2005). *Virtue and psychology: Pursuing excellence in ordinary practices*. APA Books.

Fowers, B. J. (2014). Toward programmatic research on virtue assessment: Challenges and prospects. *Theory and Research in Education*, 12(3), 309–328. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1477878514546064>

Fowers, B. J. (2016). Aristotle on eudaimonia: On the virtue of returning to the source. In J. Vittersø (Ed.), *The handbook of eudaimonic well-being* (pp. 67–83). Springer.

Fowers, B. J., Novak, L. F., Calder, A. J., & Kiknadze, N. C. (2023). Can a theory of human flourishing be formulated? Toward a science of flourishing. *Review of General Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1037/gpr0000318>

Fowler, J. H., & Christakis, N. A. (2008). Dynamic spread of happiness in a large social network: Longitudinal analysis over 20 years in the Framingham Heart Study. *British Medical Journal*, 337, a2338. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.a2338>

Frederickson, B., & Losada, M. F. (2005). Positive affect and the complex dynamics of human flourishing. *American Psychologist*, 60(7), 678–686. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.60.7.678>

Fredrickson, B. L., Grewen, K. M., Coffey, K. A., Algoe, S. B., Firestine, A. M., Arevalo, J. G., Ma, S. W., & Cole, S. W. (2013). A functional genomic perspective on human well-being. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 110(33), 13684–13689. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1305419110>

Frese, M., Beimeel, S., & Schoenborn, S. (2003). Action training for charismatic leadership: Two evaluations of studies of a commercial training module on inspirational communication of a vision. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(3), 671–697. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00755.x>

Fuller, L. P. (2022). Employee perception of leadership tolerance of deviance and the moral disengagement from organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Human Resource and Sustainability Studies*, 10(3), 356–379. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jhrss.2022.103021>

Gallie, W. B. (1956). Essentially contested concepts. *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society, New Series*, 56, 167–198. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aristoteliansupp/56.1.167>

Gardiner, S. M. (2005). *Virtue ethics, old and new*. Cornell University Press.

Gaudet, T., & Kligler, B. (2019). Whole health in the whole system of the Veterans Administration: How will we know we have reached this future state? *The Journal of Alternative and Complementary Medicine*, 25(S1), S7–S11. <https://doi.org/10.1089/acm.2019.29081.tga>

Giocalone, R. A., & Rosenfeld, P. (2013). *Impression management in the organization*. Psychology Press.

Giacalone, R. A., Riordan, C. A., & Rosenfeld, P. (2019). Employee sabotage: Toward a practitioner-scholar understanding. In *Work place sabotage* (pp. 323–343). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.1201/9780429029673-16>

Giovanola, B. (2009). Re-thinking the anthropological and ethical foundation of economics and business: Human richness and capabilities enhancement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 88(3), 431–444. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-008-9962-1>

Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative “description of personality”: The Big-Five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6), 1216–1229. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.59.6.1216>

Goussak, G. W., & Webber, J. K. (2011). Employee perception of leadership styles by Las Vegas casino-gaming managers. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 4(2), 85–98.

Goussak, G. W., Webber, J. K., & Ser, E. (2011). Applying the Full Range Leadership Model to Managing Employees in the Las Vegas Casino-Gaming Industry. *Journal of Gambling Business & Economics*, 5(1), 47–67.

Grau-Grau, M. (2023). Fatherhood involvement as a source of human flourishing. *Human Flourishing*, 149.

Gudka, M., Gardiner, K. L. K., & Lomas, T. (2023). Towards a framework for flourishing through social media: A systematic review of 118 research studies. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 18(1), 86–105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2021.1991447>

Gudykunst, W. B., & Ting Toomey, S. (1988). Culture and affective communication. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 31(3), 384–400. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764888313006>

Gudykunst, W. B., Matsumoto, Y., Ting Toomey, S., Nishida, T., Kim, K., & Heyman, S. (1996). The influence of cultural individualism-collectivism, self construals, and individual values on communication styles across cultures. *Human Communication Research*, 22(4), 510–543. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1996.tb00170.x>

Hackman, M. Z., & Johnson, C. E. (2012). *Leadership: A communication perspective* (6th ed.). Waveland Press.

Hannis, M. (2015). The virtues of acknowledged ecological dependence: Sustainability, autonomy and human flourishing. *Environmental Values*, 24(2), 145–164. <https://doi.org/10.3197/096327115X14232158491207>

Haybron, D. M. (2013). *Happiness: A very short introduction*. Oxford University Press.

Heil, D. (2009). Embodied selves and social selves: Aboriginal wellbeing in rural New South Wales, Australia. In G. Mathews & C. Izquierdo (Eds.), *Pursuits of happiness: Well-being in anthropological perspective* (pp. 88–108). Berghahn Books.

Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 33(2–3), 61–83. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0140525X0999152X>

Hill, N., Brinkmann, S., & Petersen, A. (2020). *Critical happiness studies*. Routledge.

Hofmann, D. A., Morgeson, F. P., & Gerras, S. J. (2003). Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and content-specific citizenship: Safety climate as an exemplar. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 170–178. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.1.170>

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Sage.

Holt-Lunstad, J., Smith, T. B., Baker, M., Harris, T., & Stephenson, D. (2015). Loneliness and social isolation as risk factors for mortality: A meta-analytic review. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 10(2), 227–237. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691614568352>

Hone, L. C., Jarden, A., Schofield, G. M., & Duncan, S. (2014). Measuring flourishing: The impact of operational definitions on the prevalence of high levels of well-being. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 4(1), 62–90. <https://doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v4i1.4>

Huang, K., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2009). Stress, task, and relationship orientations of Taiwanese adults: An examination of gender in this high-context culture. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies*, 3, 1–12.

Hughes, C. (2015). *American black women and interpersonal leadership styles*. New York, NY: Springer International.

Huppert, F. A., & So, T. C. (2009). What percentage of people in Europe are flourishing and what characterises them? Paper presented at the OECD/ISQOLS meeting, July 23/24, Florence.

Huppert, F. A., & So, T. C. (2013). Flourishing across Europe: Application of a new conceptual framework for defining well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(3), 837–861. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9966-7>

Huppert, F. A., & So, T. T. C. (2009). What percentage of people in Europe are flourishing and what characterises them? Cambridge: Well-Being Institute, University of Cambridge.

Huppert, F. A., & So, T. T. C. (2013). Flourishing across Europe: Application of a new conceptual framework for defining well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(3), 837–861. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9966-7>

Huta, V. (2013). Eudaimonia. In S. David, I. Boniwell, & A. C. Ayers (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of happiness* (pp. 201–213). Oxford University Press.

Huta, V., & Waterman, A. S. (2014). Eudaimonia and its distinction from hedonia: Developing a classification and terminology for understanding conceptual and operational definitions. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 15(6), 1425–1456. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-013-9485-0>

International Wellbeing Group. (2006). *Personal Wellbeing Index* (4th ed.). Australian Centre on Quality of Life, School of Psychology, Deakin University. ISBN 1 74156 048 9. Retrieved June 9, 2011, from <http://www.deakin.edu.au/research/acqol/instruments/wellbeing-index/pwi-a-english.pdf>

Jian, G., Schmisser, A., & Fairhurst, G. T. (2008). Organizational discourse and communication: The progeny of Proteus. *Discourse & Communication*, 2(3), 299–320. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1750481308093153>

Johns, H. E., & Moser, H. R. (1989). From trait to transformation: The evolution of leadership theories. *Education*, 110(1), 30–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131254.1989.9954614>

Johnson, C. E., & Hackman, M. Z. (2018). *Leadership: A communication perspective*. Waveland Press.

Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 36–51. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.1.36>

Kacmar, K. M., & Carlson, D. S. (1999). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment: A comparison of two scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 59(6), 976–994. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00131649921970297>

Kelley, D. L., & Burgoon, J. K. (1991). Understanding marital satisfaction and couple type as functions of relational expectations. *Human Communication Research*, 18(1), 40–69. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1991.tb00253.x>

Kelly, S. (2008). Leadership: A categorical mistake? *Human Relations*, 61(5), 763–782. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708089786>

Kendler, K. S., Myers, J. M., Maes, H. H., & Keyes, C. L. M. (2011). The relationship between the genetic and environmental influences on common internalizing psychiatric disorders and mental well-being. *Behavior Genetics*, 41(5), 641–650. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10519-011-9466-1>

Keyes, C. L. M. (1998). Social well-being. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 61(2), 121–140. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2787065>

Keyes, C. L. M. (2002). The mental health continuum: From languishing to flourishing in life. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 43(2), 207–222. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3090197>

Keyes, C. L. M. (2005). Mental illness and/or mental health? Investigating axioms of the complete state model of health. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 73(3), 539–548. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.73.3.539>

Keyes, C. L. M. (2007). Promoting and protecting mental health as flourishing: A complementary strategy for improving national mental health. *American Psychologist*, 62, 95–108. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.62.2.95>

Keyes, C. L. M. (2010). Change in level of positive mental health as a predictor of future risk of mental illness. *American Journal of Public Health*, 100(12), 2366–2371. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2010.192245>

Keyes, C. L. M., & Annas, J. (2009). Feeling good and functioning well: Distinctive concepts in ancient philosophy and contemporary science. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(3), 197–201. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760902844228>

Keyes, C. L. M., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2005). Health as a complete state: The added value in work performance and healthcare costs. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 47(5), 523–532. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.jom.0000161737.21198.3a>

Keyes, C. L. M., & Simoes, E. J. (2012). To flourish or not: Positive mental health and all-cause mortality. *American Journal of Public Health*, 102(11), 2164–2172. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2012.300918>

Keyes, C. L. M., Shmotkin, D., & Ryff, C. D. (2002). Optimizing well-being: The empirical encounter of two traditions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(6), 1007–1022. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.82.6.1007>

Keyes, C. L. M., Wissing, M., Potgieter, J. P., Temane, M., Kruger, A., & van Rooy, S. (2008). Evaluation of the Mental Health Continuum—Short Form (MHC–SF) in Setswana-speaking South Africans. *Clinical Psychology & Psychotherapy*, 15(3), 181–192. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.572>

Khodarahimi, S. (2013). Hope and flourishing in an Iranian adult sample: Their contributions to the positive and negative emotions. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 8(3), 361–372. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-012-9192-8>

King, L. A., & Hicks, J. A. (2021). The science of meaning in life. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 72, 561–584. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-072420-122921>

King, L. A., & Napa, C. K. (1998). What makes a life good? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 156–165. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.75.1.156>

King, L. A., Hicks, J. A., Krull, J. L., & Del Gaiso, A. K. (2006). Positive affect and the experience of meaning in life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(1), 179–196. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.1.179>

Klein, H. J., Molloy, J. C., & Cooper, J. T. (2009). Conceptual foundations: Construct definitions and theoretical representations of workplace commitments. In H. J. Klein, T. E. Becker, & J. P. Meyer (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations: Accumulated wisdom and new directions* (pp. 3-26). Routledge.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2010). *The truth about leadership: The no-fads, heart-of-the-matter facts you need to know*. Jossey-Bass.

Krasikova, D. V., Green, S. G., & LeBreton, J. M. (2013). Destructive leadership: A theoretical review, integration, and future research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 39(5), 1308-1338. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312471388>

Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2010). *Organisational behavior* (9th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Krishnaveni, R., & Ramkumar, N. (2008). Revalidation process for established instruments: A case of Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment scale. *ICFAI Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 7(2), 7–17.

Krueger, J., & Killham, E. (2005). At work, feeling good matters: Happy employees are better equipped to handle workplace relationships, stress, and change—According to the latest GMJ survey. *Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved from <https://news.gallup.com/businessjournal/20311/work-feeling-good-matters.aspx>

Kupers, W., & Weibler, J. (2006). How emotional is transformational leadership?: Some suggestions for a necessary extension. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 27(5), 368–383.

Lambert, L., Lomas, T., van de Weijer, M. P., Passmore, H. A., Joshanloo, M., Harter, J., Ishikawa, Y., Lai, A., Kitagawa, T., Chen, D., Kawakami, T., Miyata, H., & Diener, E. (2020). Towards a greater global understanding of wellbeing: A proposal for a more inclusive measure. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, *10*(2), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v10i2.1037>

Lamers, S. M. A., Westerhof, G. J., Bohlmeijer, E. T., ten Klooster, P. M., & Keyes, C. L. M. (2011). Evaluating the psychometric properties of the Mental Health Continuum—Short Form (MHC–SF). *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *67*(1), 99–110. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20741>

Lamude, K. G., & Scudder, J. (2000). Perceptions of Leader-Member Exchange: Comparison of Permanent and Temporary Employees. *Psychological Reports*, *87*(2), 689. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.2000.87.2.689>

Las Heras, M., Grau Grau, M., & Rofcanin, Y. (2023). *Human flourishing: A multidisciplinary perspective on neuroscience, health, organizations and arts* (p. 234). Springer Nature.

Laszlo, C., Brown, J. S., Sherman, D., Barros, I., Boland, B., Ehrenfeld, J., Gorham, M., Robson, L., Saillant, R., & Werder, P. (2012). Flourishing: A vision for business and the world. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, *(46)*, 31-51. <https://doi.org/10.9774/GLEAF.4700.2012.sp.00006>

Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behaviour: The target similarity model. *Journal of Management*, *33*(6), 841-866.

Layard, R. (2010). Measuring subjective well-being. *Science*, *327*(5965), 534–535. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1186315>

Lee, J., Chiang, F. F., Van Esch, E., & Cai, Z. (2018). Why and when organizational culture fosters affective commitment among knowledge workers: The mediating role of perceived psychological contract fulfilment and moderating role of organizational tenure. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *29*(6), 1178–1207. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1237767>

Lee, K. S., & Ono, H. (2012). Marriage, cohabitation, and happiness: A cross-national analysis of 27 countries. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 74(5), 953–972. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2012.01001.x>

Lee, M. T., & Mayor, I. (2023). Health and flourishing: An interdisciplinary synthesis. *Human flourishing: A multidisciplinary perspective on neuroscience, health, organizations and arts*, 49-68.

Lee, M. T., Kubzansky, L. D., & VanderWeele, T. J. (Eds.). (2021). *Measuring well-being: Interdisciplinary perspectives from the social sciences and the humanities*. Oxford University Press.

Lee, M. T., Weziak-Bialowolska, D., Mooney, K. D., Lerner, P. J., McNeely, E., & VanderWeele, T. J. (2021). Self-assessed importance of domains of flourishing: Demographics and correlations with well-being. *Journal of Positive Psychology*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2020.1716050>

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2005). *Practical research: Planning and design* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.

Lenoir, F. (2016). *Happiness: A philosopher's guide*. Brooklyn, NY: Melville House Publishing. ISBN 978-1-61219-520-9.

Levin, D. Z., & Cross, R. (2004). The strength of weak ties you can trust: The mediating role of trust in effective knowledge transfer. *Management Science*, 50(11), 1477–1490. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.1030.0150>

Levinson, W., Roter, D. L., Mullooly, J. P., Dull, V. T., & Frankel, R. M. (1997). Physician-patient communication: The relationship with malpractice claims among primary care physicians and surgeons. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 277(7), 553–559. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.277.7.553>

Lewis, L. K., Hamel, S. A., & Richardson, B. K. (2001). Communicating change to nonprofit stakeholders: Models and predictors of implementers' approaches. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 15(1), 5–41. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318901151001>

Li, Y., Tong, K. K., Tao, V. Y. K., Zhang, M. X., & Wu, A. M. S. (2020). Testing the associations among social axioms, school belonging, and flourishing in university students: A two-year longitudinal study. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, *12*(3), 749–769. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.12205>

Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 15, pp. 47-119). JAI Press.

Liu, J., Siu, O. L., & Shi, K. (2010). Transformational leadership and employee well-being: The mediation role of trust in the leader and self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *59*(3), 454–479. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2009.00414.x>

Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. S. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: A preliminary reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research*, *46*(2), 137–155. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006824100041>

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*(1), 3–30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2007.0002.x>

Madlock, P. (2008). The link between leadership style, communicator competence, and employee satisfaction. *Journal of Business Communication*, *45*(1), 61–78. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0021943607309350>

Maheshwari, S., & Vohra, V. (2015). Identifying critical HR practices impacting employee perception and commitment during organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *28*(5), 872–894. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-03-2014-0066>

Maio, A., Chambel, M. J., & Carmona, L. (2023). Transformational leadership and flourishing in Portuguese professional firefighters: The moderating role of the frequency of intervention in rural fires. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *14*, 1076411. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1076411>

Máirín Glenn, & Suresh Nanwani. (2023). Book Review: DeLong, J. & Whitehead, J. (2023) *You and Your Living-Educational Theory: How to conduct a values-based inquiry*

for human flourishing. *Educational Journal of Living Theories*, 16(1), 69–71. <https://doi.org/10.62314/09782204>

Manga, G. (2008). Interbeing autonomy and economy: Toward enduring social and ecological justice. *Human Architecture: Journal of the Sociology of Self-Knowledge*, 6(3), 113–127.

Manyak, T., & Mujtaba, B. (2013). Task and relationship orientations of Ugandans and Americans. *International Business and Management*, 6(1), 12–20. <https://doi.org/10.3968/j.ibm.1923842820130601.263>

Marks, M. A., Zaccaro, S. J., & Mathieu, J. E. (2000). Performance implications of leader briefings and team interaction training for team adaptation to novel environments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(6), 971–986. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.6.971>

Martela, F., & Sheldon, K. M. (2019). Clarifying the concept of well-being: Psychological need satisfaction as the common core connecting eudaimonic and subjective well-being. *Review of General Psychology*, 23(4), 458–474. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1089268019880886>

Martin, D. M. (2004). Humor in middle management: Women negotiating the paradoxes of organizational life. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 32(2), 147–170. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0090988042000212174>

Mathews, G., & Izquierdo, C. (2009). *Pursuits of happiness: Wellbeing in anthropological perspective*. Berghahn Books.

Mathieu, J. E., & Taylor, S. R. (2006). Clarifying conditions and decision points for mediational type inferences in organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 1031–1056. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.419>

McCartney, W. W., & Campbell, C. R. (2006). Leadership, management, and derailment: A model of individual success and failure. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 12(4), 70–80. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190601200408>

McGregor, I., & Little, B. R. (1998). Personal projects, happiness, and meaning: On doing well and being yourself. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2), 494–512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.74.2.494>

McLaren, R. M., & Pederson, J. R. (2014). Relational communication and understanding in conversations about hurtful events between parents and adolescents. *Journal of Communication*, 64(1), 145–166. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcom.12079>

McLaren, R. M., Solomon, D. H., & Priem, J. S. (2012). The effect of relationship characteristics and relational communication on experiences of hurt from romantic partners. *Journal of Communication*, 62(6), 950–971. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2012.01777.x>

McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Brashears, M. E. (2006). Social isolation in America: Changes in core discussion networks over two decades. *American Sociological Review*, 71(3), 353–375. <https://doi.org/10.1177/000312240607100301>

McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2010). *Organizational behavior: Emerging knowledge and practice for the real world* (5th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Mesurado, B., Crespo, R. F., Rodríguez, O., et al. (2021). The development and initial validation of a multidimensional flourishing scale. *Current Psychology*, 40(1), 454–463. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9957-9>

Michaelson, J., Abdallah, S., Steuer, N., Thompson, S., & Marks, N. (2009). *National accounts of wellbeing: Bringing real wealth onto the balance sheet*. New Economics Foundation. <http://www.nationalaccountsofwellbeing.org/learn/download-report.html>

Michie, S. F., West, R., Campbell, R., Brown, J., & Gainforth, H. (2014). *ABC of behaviour change theories*. Silverback Publishing.

Mikkelsen, A. C., York, J. A., & Arritola, J. (2015). Communication competence, leadership behaviors, and employee outcomes in supervisor/employee relationships. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*, 78(3), 336–354. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2329490615584715>

Mikkelsen, A. C., Sloan, D., & Hesse, C. (2019). Relational Communication Messages and Leadership Styles in Supervisor/Employee Relationships. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 56(4), 586–604. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2329488416687267>

Mills, M. J., Fleck, C. R., & Kozikowski, A. (2013). Positive psychology at work: A conceptual review, state-of-practice assessment, and a look ahead. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(2), 153–164. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2013.779580>

Mishra, M., & Mund, P. (2024). Fifty-two years of consumer research based on social exchange theory: A review and research agenda using topic modeling. *INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CONSUMER STUDIES*, 48(4). <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.13074>

Mo, S., & Shi, J. (2017). Linking ethical leadership to employee burnout, workplace deviance, and performance: Testing the mediating roles of trust in leader and surface acting. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 144, 293–303. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2821-z>

Morgeson, F. P., DeRue, D. S., & Karam, E. P. (2010). Leadership in teams: A functional approach to understanding leadership structures and processes. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 5–39. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309353934>

Muldoon, J., Liguori, E. W., & Bendickson, J. (2013). Sailing away: The influences on and motivations of George Caspar Homans. *Journal of Management History*, 19(2), 148-166. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17511341311307363>

Nel, E. (2019). Person-centred characteristics as predictors of flourishing and well-being. In *Thriving in digital workspaces* (pp. 265–284).

Neufeld, D. J., Wan, Z., & Fang, Y. (2010). Remote leadership, communication effectiveness, and leader performance. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 19(3), 227–246. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10726-009-9197-0>

Neufeld, D. J., Wan, Z., & Fang, Y. (2010). Remote leadership, communication effectiveness, and leader performance. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 19(3), 227–246. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10726-009-9197-6>

Nielsen, K., Nielsen, M. B., Ogbonnaya, C., Käsälä, M., Saari, E., & Isaksson, K. (2017). Workplace resources to improve both employee well-being and performance: A

systematic review and meta-analysis. *Work & Stress*, 31(2), 101–120. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2017.1304463>

Noels, K. A., Clement, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23–34. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1999.tb07798.x>

Noller, P., & White, A. (1990). The validity of the communication patterns questionnaire. *Psychological Assessment*, 2(4), 478–482. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1040-3590.2.4.478>

Northouse, P. G. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). SAGE.

Norton, R. W. (1978). Foundation of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research*, 4(2), 99–112. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1978.tb00667.x>

Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2000). Beyond sophisticated stereotyping: Cultural sensemaking in context. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 14(1), 65–79. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.2000.3919840>

Osland, J. S., De Franco, S., & Osland, A. (1999). Organizational implications of Latin American culture: Lessons for the expatriate manager. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 8(3), 219–237. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105649269983004>

Penley, L. E., & Hawkins, B. (1985). Studying interpersonal communication in organizations: A leadership application. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(2), 309–326. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256052>

Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*. Oxford University Press.

Pradhan, S., & Pradhan, R. K. (2015). An empirical investigation of the relationship among transformational leadership, affective organizational commitment, and contextual performance. *SAGE Open*, 19(3), 227–235. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0972262915597089>

Purvanova, R. K., & Bono, J. E. (2009). Transformational leadership in context: Face-to-face and virtual teams. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20(3), 343–357. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.010>

Putnam, L. L., Nicotera, A. M., & McPhee, R. D. (2009). Introduction: Communication constitutes organization. In L. L. Putnam & A. M. Nicotera (Eds.), *Building theories of organizations: The constitutive role of communication* (pp. 1–19). Routledge.

Putnam, L. L., Nicotera, A. M., & McPhee, R. D. (Eds.). (2009). *Building theories of organizations: The constitutive role of communication* (pp. 1–19). Routledge.

Putnam, R. D. (1995). Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy*, 6(1), 65–78. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jod.1995.0002>

Quick, J. C., & Macik-Frey, M. (2004). Behind the mask: Coaching through deep interpersonal communication. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 56(1), 67–74. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1061-4087.56.1.67>

Ramirez, A., Sumner, E. M., Fleuriel, C., & Cole, M. (2015). When online dating partners meet offline: The effect of modality switching on relational communication between online daters. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 20(1), 99–114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcc4.12084>

Rautenbach, C. (2015). *Flourishing of employees in a fast moving consumable goods environment* (Doctoral dissertation). Vanderbijlpark: North-West University.

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.698>

Richardson, F. C. (2012). On psychology and virtue ethics. *Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Psychology*, 32(1), 24–34.

Ritchie, L. D., & Fitzpatrick, M. A. (1990). Family communication patterns—Measuring intrapersonal perceptions of interpersonal relationships. *Communication Research*, 17(4), 523–544. <https://doi.org/10.1177/009365090017004003>

Rosa, H. (2015). *Social acceleration: A new theory of modernity* (New directions in critical theory). Columbia University Press.

Rost, J. (1993). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Bloomsbury Publishing USA.

Rost, J. C. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Praeger.

Rothmann, I., & Cooper, C. L. (2015). *Work and organizational psychology* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Rowden, R. W. (2000). The relationship between charismatic leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21(1), 30–35. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730010307778>

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68–78. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141–166. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.141>

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). To be happy or to be self-fulfilled: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. In S. Fiske (Ed.), *Annual review of psychology* (Vol. 52, pp. 141–166). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. In *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (pp. 2–33). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069–1081. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.57.6.1069>

Ryff, C. D. (2014). Psychological well-being revisited: Advances in the science and practice of eudaimonia. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 83(1), 10–28. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000353263>

Ryff, C. D. (2023). In Pursuit of Eudaimonia: Past advances and future directions. *Human flourishing: A multidisciplinary perspective on neuroscience, health, organizations and arts*, 9-31.

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. (1998). The contours of positive human health. *Psychological Inquiry*, 9(1), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli0901_1

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9(1), 13–39. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9019-0>

Ryff, C. D., Boylan, J. M., & Kirsch, J. A. (2021). Eudaimonic and hedonic well-being: An integrative perspective with linkages to sociodemographic factors and health. In M. T. Lee, L. D. Kubzansky, & T. J. VanderWeele (Eds.), *Measuring well-being: Interdisciplinary perspectives from the social sciences and the humanities* (pp. 92–135). Oxford University Press.

Ryff, C., & Keyes, C. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719–727.

Salama-Younes, M. (2011). Validation of the Mental Health Continuum Short Form and Subjective Vitality Scale with Egyptian adolescent athletes. In I. Brdar (Ed.), *The human pursuit of well-being* (pp. 221–234). Springer Netherlands. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1375-8_19

Scandura, T. A., & Dorfman, P. W. (2004). Leadership research in an international and cross-cultural context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(2), 277–307. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.003>

Schmid Mast, M., Hall, J. A., & Roter, D. L. (2007). Disentangling physician sex and physician communication style: Their effects on patient satisfaction in a virtual medical visit. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 68(1), 16–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2007.01.008>

Schultz, V. (2000). Life's work. *Columbia Law Review*, 100(6), 1881–1915. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1123546>

Seligman, M. E. (2006). *Learned optimism: How to change your mind and your life* (1st Vintage Books ed.). Vintage Books.

Seligman, M. E. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being* (1st Free Press hardcover ed.). Free Press.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2011). *Flourish: A new understanding of happiness and well-being—and how to achieve them*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Seligman, M. E. P., Railton, P., Baumeister, R. F., & Sripada, C. (2013). Navigating into the future or driven by the past. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8(2), 119–141. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691612474317>

Sellman, D. (2011). Professional values and nursing. *Medicine, Health Care and Philosophy*, 14(2), 203–208. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11019-010-9275-1>

Senol-Durak, E., & Durak, M. (2019). Psychometric properties of the Turkish version of the Flourishing Scale and the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience. *Mental Health, Religion & Culture*, 22(10), 1021–1032. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674676.2019.1689548>

Sferrazzo, R. (2021). The ‘agapic behaviors’: Reconciling organizational citizenship behavior with the reward system. *Humanistic Management Journal*, 6(1), 19–35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41463-019-00067-5>

Shockley-Zalabak, P., Morreale, S., & Hackman, M. (2010). *Building the high-trust organization: Strategies for supporting five key dimensions of trust*. Jossey-Bass.

Shor, E., Roelfs, D. J., & Yogeve, T. (2013). The strength of family ties: A meta-analysis and meta-regression of self-reported social support and mortality. *Social Networks*, 35(4), 626–638. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2013.08.004>

Sias, P. M. (2009). *Organizing relationships: Traditional and emerging perspectives on work relationships*. SAGE.

Silva, A. J., & Caetano, A. (2013). Validation of the flourishing scale and scale of positive and negative experience in Portugal. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(2), 469–478. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9938-y>

Silva, A. J., & Caetano, A. (2013). Validation of the Flourishing Scale and Scale of Positive and Negative Experience in Portugal. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(2), 469–478. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9938-y>

Silva, A. J., & Caetano, A. (2013). Validation of the Flourishing Scale and Scale of Positive and Negative Experience in Portugal. *Social Indicators Research*, 110(2), 469–478. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-011-9938-y>

Siminoff, L. A., & Step, M. M. (2011). A comprehensive observational coding scheme for analyzing instrumental, affective, and relational communication in health care contexts. *Journal of Health Communication*, 16(2), 178–197. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10810730.2010.536024>

Singh, S., Mahapatra, M., & Kumar, N. (2022). Empowering leadership and organizational culture: Collective influence on employee flourishing. *International Journal of Health Sciences*, 6(S1), 2983–2993. <https://doi.org/10.53730/ijhs.v6nS1.5112>

Sivanathan, N., Arnold, K. A., Turner, N., & Barling, J. (2004). Leading well: Transformational leadership and well-being. In E. A. Linley & S. Joseph (Eds.), *Positive psychology in practice* (pp. 241–255). Wiley.

Skakon, J., Nielsen, K., Borg, V., & Guzman, J. (2010). Are leaders' well-being behaviors and style associated with the affective well-being of employees? A systematic review of three decades of research. *Work and Stress*, 24(2), 107–139. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2010.495262>

Slife, B. D., & Richardson, F. C. (2008). Problematic ontological underpinnings of positive psychology: A strong relational alternative. *Theory and Psychology*, 18(5), 699–723. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0959354308095870>

Sonja, de Klerk, & Stander, M. W. (2014). Leadership empowerment behaviour, work engagement, and turnover intention: The role of psychological empowerment. *Journal of Positive Management*, 5(3), 28–45. <https://doi.org/10.12775/JPM.2014.018>

Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. I. (2003). Impression management strategies and performance in information technology consulting: The role of self-other rating and agreement on

charismatic leadership. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 17(2), 233–268. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318903252025>

Srivastava, A., Bartol, K. M., & Locke, E. A. (2006). Empowering leadership in management teams: Effects on knowledge sharing, efficacy, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(6), 1239–1251. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2006.23478718>

Steger, M. F. (2012). Experiencing meaning in life: Optimal functioning at the nexus of well-being, psychopathology, and spirituality. In P. T. P. Wong (Ed.), *The human quest for meaning: Theories, research, and applications* (2nd ed., pp. 165–184). Routledge.

Steger, M. F., & Kashdan, T. B. (2007). Stability and specificity of meaning in life and life satisfaction over one year. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, 8(2), 161–179. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9011-8>

Stewart, G. L. (2006). A meta-analytic review of relationships between team design features and team performance. *Journal of Management*, 32(1), 29–55. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305277798>

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. Free Press.

Strong, C. (2022). Human flourishing through behaviour change. In *Human Flourishing: A Multidisciplinary Perspective on Neuroscience, Health, Organizations and Arts* (pp. 85-96). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Su, R., Tay, L., & Diener, E. (2014). The development and validation of The Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving and the Brief Inventory of Thriving. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 6(3), 251–279. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.12027>

Sue, L. (2016). Leadership is about caring for people (and being the best you can be). Retrieved from <https://langleygroup.com.au/leadership-is-about-caring-for-people-and-being-the-best-you-can-be/>

Taberner, C., Chambel, M. J., Curren, L., & Arana, J. M. (2009). The role of task-oriented versus relationship-oriented leadership on normative contract and group

performance. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37, 1391–1404. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2009.37.10.1391>

Tan, Q., Zhang, L., Li, W., & Kong, F. (2021). Longitudinal measurement invariance of the Flourishing Scale in adolescents. *Current Psychology*, 40(6), 5672–5677. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-01754-z>

Tarragona i Clarasó, J. M. (2022). Antoni Gaudí in Human Flourishing. In *Human Flourishing: A Multidisciplinary Perspective on Neuroscience, Health, Organizations and Arts* (pp. 211-223). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Tett, R. P., Brown, C., Walser, B., Simonet, D. V., Davis, J. B., Tonidandel, S., & Hebl, M. (2012). The 2011 SIOP IO Psychology graduate program benchmarking survey: Overview and selected norms. *TIP: The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist*, 50(2), 16–30.

Teven, J. T. (2007). Effects of supervisor social influence, nonverbal immediacy, and biological sex on subordinates' perceptions of job satisfaction, liking, and supervisor credibility. *Communication Quarterly*, 55(2), 155–177. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01463370701261843>

Theodoros Stavrinoudis, Christos Kakarougkas, & Chrysoula Vitzilaiou. (2022). Hotel Front Line Employees' Perceptions on Leadership and Workplace Motivation in Times of Crisis. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 257–276. <https://doi.org/10.20867/thm.28.2.1>

Thompson, G., & Vecchio, R. P. (2009). Situational leadership theory: A test of three versions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(5), 837–848. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.015>

Thoroughgood, C. N., Sawyer, K. B., Padilla, A., & Lunsford, L. (2018). Destructive leadership: A critique of leader-centric perspectives and toward a more holistic definition. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151(3), 627–649. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3230-0>

Thorsteinsen, K., & Vittersø, J. (2020). Now you see it, now you don't: Solid and subtle differences between hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 15(4), 519–530. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2019.1639794>

Tiberius, V. (2013). Recipes for a good life: Eudaimonism and the contribution of philosophy. In A. Waterman (Ed.), *The best within us: Positive psychology perspectives on eudaimonia* (pp. 231–248). American Psychological Association.

Toussaint, L., Worthington, E. L., Webb, J. R., Wilson, C., & Williams, D. R. (2023). Forgiveness in human flourishing. *Human flourishing*, 117.

Towler, A. J. (2003). Effects of charismatic influence training on attitudes, behavior, and performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(2), 363–381. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00150.x>

Triandis, H. C. (1993). *The contingency model in cross-cultural perspectives*. Academic Press.

Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. Nicholas Brealey.

Tsachouridi, I., & Nikandrou, I. (2020). The Role of Prosocial Motives and Social Exchange in Mediating the Relationship Between Organizational Virtuousness' Perceptions and Employee Outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 166(3), 535–551. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-04102-7>

United Nations. (2015). Goal 3: Ensure healthy lives and promote wellbeing for all at all ages. <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/health/>

Uzonwanne, F. (2015). Leadership styles and decision-making models among corporate leaders in non-profit organizations in North America. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 15(3), 287–299. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.1530>

V. Gavya, & R. Subashini. (2024). The Role of Leadership Styles in Fostering Organizational Commitment Among Nurses. *SAGE Open*, 14. <https://doi.org/10.1177/21582440241242531>

van Knippenberg, D., van Dick, R., & Tavares, S. (2007). Social identity and social exchange: Identification, support, and withdrawal from the job. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 37(3), 457-477. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2007.00168.x>

Van Wart, M. (2004). A comprehensive model of organizational leadership: The leadership action cycle. *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, 7(2), 173–208.

Vanderweele, T. (2021). *Human flourishing program*. Harvard University's Institute for Quantitative Social Science. Retrieved from <https://www.hsph.harvard.edu>

VanderWeele, T. J. (2017). On the promotion of human flourishing. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 114(31), 8148–8156. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1702996114>

VanderWeele, T. J., McNeely, E., & Koh, H. K. (2019). Reimagining health—flourishing. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 321(17), 1667–1668. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2019.3035>

Vittersø, J. (Ed.). (2016). *The handbook of eudaimonic well-being*. Springer.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of L. S. Vygotsky* (Vol. 1). In R. W. Rieber & A. S. Carton (Eds.), *Problems of general psychology*. Plenum Press.

Walumbwa, F. O., & Lawler, J. J. (2003). Building effective organizations: Transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes, and withdrawal behaviors in three emerging economies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), 1083–1101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0958519032000157334>

Waterman, A. S. (1993). Finding something to do or someone to be: A eudaimonist perspective on identity formation. In J. Kroger (Ed.), *Discussions on ego identity* (pp. 147–167). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Waterman, A. S. (1993). Two conceptions of happiness: Contrasts of personal expressiveness (eudaimonia) and hedonic enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(4), 678–691. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.64.4.678>

Waterman, A. S., Schwartz, S. J., Zamboanga, B. L., Ravert, R. D., Williams, M. K., Agocha, B., Kim, S. Y., & Donellan, M. B. (2010). The Questionnaire for Eudaimonic Well-Being: Psychometric properties, demographic comparisons, and evidence of validity. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 5(1), 41–61. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760903435208>

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063>

Watters, E. (2010). *Crazy like us: The globalization of the American psyche*. Free Press.

Waugh, C. E. (2023). An Affective Neuroscience Perspective on Psychological Flourishing: How the Brain Believes that Things Are Going Well. *Human Flourishing*, 33.

Weijers, D., & Jarden, A. (2013). The science of happiness for policymakers: An overview. *Journal of Social Research & Policy*, 4(2), 21–40.

Weziak-Bialowolska, D., McNeely, E., VanderWeele, T. J., & Topa, G. (2019). Flourish Index and Secure Flourish Index – Validation in workplace settings. *Cogent Psychology*, 6(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2019.1598926>

Wiese, C. W., Tay, L., Su, R., & Diener, E. (2018). Measuring thriving across nations: Examining the measurement equivalence of the Comprehensive Inventory of Thriving (CIT) and the Brief Inventory of Thriving (BIT). *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 10(1), 127–148. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.12119>

Wikaningtyas, S. U., Tjahjono, H. K., Suprihanto, J., & Muafi. (2023). Turnover intention model: Self-determination theory approach. *Quality - Access to Success*, 24(194), 166–176. <https://doi.org/10.47750/QAS/24.194.20>

Williams, J. (2004). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In *Sloan work and family encyclopedia*. Retrieved from <https://workfamily.sas.upenn.edu/glossary/j/job-satisfactiondefinitions>

Wikaningtyas, S. U., Tjahjono, H. K., Suprihanto, J., & Muafi. (2023). Turnover Intention Model: Self-Determination Theory Approach. *Quality - Access to Success*, 24(194), 166–176. <https://doi.org/10.47750/QAS/24.194.20>

Wolf, S. (2012). *Meaning in life and why it matters*. Princeton University Press.

Yalden, B. J., & McCormack, B. (2010). Constructions of dignity: A pre-requisite for flourishing in the workplace? *International Journal of Older People Nursing*, 5, 137–147. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-3743.2010.00229.x>

Yedidia, M. J., Gillespie, C. C., Kachur, E., Schwartz, M. D., Ockene, J., Chepaitis, A. E., et al. (2003). Effect of communications training on medical student performance. *JAMA: Journal of the American Medical Association*, 290(9), 1157–1165. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.290.9.1157>

Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2013). Positive leadership: Meaning and application across cultures. *Organisational Dynamics*, 42, 198–208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2013.06.005>

Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G., Gordon, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: Integrating a half century of behavior research. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9, 15–32. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200900302>

Zittoun, T., & Gillespie, A. (2015). *Imagination in human and cultural development*. Routledge.

Zohar, D., & Tenne-Gazit, O. (2008). Transformational leadership and group interaction as climate antecedents: A social network analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 744–757. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.4.744>

Zhou, C., Xia, W., & Feng, T. (2024). Adopting relationship trust and influence strategy to enhance green customer integration: a social exchange theory perspective. *JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & INDUSTRIAL MARKETING*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JBIM-06-2022-0236>

Zoller, Y. J., & Muldoon, J. (2019). Illuminating the principles of social exchange theory with Hawthorne studies. *Journal of Management History*, 25(1), 47-66. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMH-05-2018-0026>

9. Appendix

Appendix 1

The Study Questionnaire Design

Dear Participant,

I would like to thank you for taking the time to be a part of this Master's thesis research study.

This questionnaire aims to understand the influence of the leader's communication approach on followers' self-perception of well-being, growth, and engagement. The questionnaire takes the followers' perspective.

The questionnaire is anonymous, and the results are used for this master thesis only. Nowhere throughout the questionnaire are names and contact information required, being confidential. Since there are no right or wrong answers, kindly ask you to provide your sincere opinions.

Thank you very much in advance !

Section 1

Demo&Geo&General Info

Are you older than 18 years old?

Tem mais de 18 anos?

Yes.

No.

If yes, how old are you?

Se sim, quantos anos tem?

Where are you from?

Qual é a sua nacionalidade?

In what country do you live in?

Em que país vive?

Do you work?

É trabalhador?

Yes

No

How many years of professional experience do you have?

Quantos anos de experiencia profissional tem?

What's your professional field?

Qual é a sua área de trabalho?

To what role within the organization do you report to? (Ex. Top management; follower/employee; middle management;)

A que posição de líder dentro da empresa é que reporta?

Section 2

Leadership Style

Please select the answer to each phrase that states your opinion, considering a 5-point Linkert scale, where 1 represents "I completely disagree" and 5 "I completely agree". Please consider the leadership behaviors you are experiencing and observing from your leader.

Transformational

-P1 (II-A)

My leader promotes a confident and respectful environment.

O meu líder promove um ambiente de respeito e confiança.

-P2 (II-B)

My leader communicates and ensures a collective sense of mission.

O meu líder transmite e implementa um sentimento de missão colectiva.

-P3 (IM)

My leader communicates in a positive and encouraging manner, motivating team members.

O meu líder comunica de forma positiva e estimulante, motivando os membros da equipa.

-P4 (IS)

My leader promotes critical thinking and values inputs.

O meu líder incentiva o espírito crítico e valoriza as sugestões dos membros da equipa.

-P5 (IC)

My leader acts like a coach and/or mentor, helping team members to learn and develop strengths.

O meu líder, como mentor, ajuda os membros da equipa a aprender e desenvolver capacidades.

Transactional

-P6 (CR)

My leader recognizes when I achieved the intended goals and offers rewards as well.

O meu líder reconhece quando alcanço os meus objetivos, e oferece recompensas.

-P7 (MBEA)

My leader is actively looking for mine and my colleagues' mistakes.

O meu líder procura ativamente por erros meus e dos restantes membros da equipa.

-P8 (MBEP)

My leader only acts when it is serious – he's somewhat inactive until he's forced not to be.

O meu líder age apenas quando necessário - mantém-se longe do problema em questão, até ser essencial intervir.

Laissez-Faire

-P9

My leader avoids making decisions and expressing points of view – He's an absent leader.

O meu líder evita tomar decisões e partilhar opiniões - É um líder ausente.

Section 3

Flourishing Level

Please select the answer to each phrase that states your opinion, considering an 11-point Linkert Scale, where 0 represents “Never” or “Not at all” and 10 represents “Always” or “Completely”. Please consider your own well-being level.

Positive Emotions

-P1

I often feel joyful.

E sinto-me frequentemente alegre.

-P2

I often feel positive.

Eu sinto-me frequentemente positivo.

-P3

I often feel a sense of content.

Eu sinto-me frequentemente satisfeito.

Engagement

-P1

I tend to get absorbed in things that I'm doing.

Eu tendo a ficar consumido no que faço.

-P2

I usually get excited and interested in things.

Eu tendo a ficar entusiasmado pelo que faço.

-P3

I often lose track of time while doing something I enjoy.

Eu tendo a perder noção do tempo quando estou a fazer algo que gosto.

Relationship

-P1

I feel supported and aided by those around me when I need it.

Sinto-me apoiado pelas pessoas que me rodeiam, sempre que necessito.

-P2

I feel cared for and loved by those around me.

Sinto-me amado e cuidado pelas pessoas que me rodeiam.

-P3

I feel satisfied with my personal relationships.

Sinto-me satisfeito com as minhas relações pessoais.

Meaning

-P1

I feel like my life is purposeful and meaningful.

Eu sinto que a minha vida tem um propósito e significado.

-P2

I feel that my life choices, so far, have been valuable and worthwhile.

Eu sinto que as minhas escolhas de vida, até agora, foram de grande valor e significativas.

-P3

I feel like I have a sense of direction in my life.

Eu sinto que tenho um sentido de propósito na minha vida.

Accomplishment

-P1

I feel like I use my time appropriately to accomplish my goals.

Eu sinto que uso o meu tempo de forma eficaz para atingir os meus objetivos.

-P2

I often achieve the goals I have set for myself.

Eu atingo os objetivos que defino, frequentemente.

-P3

I feel like I'm successful at handling my responsibilities.

Eu sinto que sou bem-sucedido a gerir as minhas responsabilidades.

Section 3

Employee Self-Perceptions of Leader's Communication

Please select the answer to each phrase that states your opinion, considering a 5-point Likert scale, where 0 represents "I completely disagree" and 5 "I completely agree". Please consider the communication behaviors you are experiencing and observing from your leader.

Knowledge

-P1

My leader knows how to carry himself, embodying the organizations' culture.

O meu líder sabe como comunicar e estar, incorporando e implementando a cultura organizacional.

-P2

My leader has the necessary resources and expertise to achieve expectations, while aiding others fulfilling tasks.

O meu líder tem os recursos e capacidades necessárias para atingir expectativas, enquanto apoia outros a cumprir tarefas/objetivos.

-P3

My leader has the capacity to consider cultural aspects, like beliefs and values, when communicating.

O meu líder tem em consideração aspetos culturais, como crenças e valores, quando está a comunicar.

Skills

-P1

My leader can build engaging and flowing conversations, paying attention to timing, interruptions, and topic transitions.

O meu líder tem em consideração aspetos culturais, como crenças e valores, quando está a comunicar.

-P2

My leader pays attention to the team's verbal and non-verbal communication, by listening, being empathic, questioning, observing and supporting.

O meu líder é atento à comunicação verbal e não verbal da equipa, traduzido na sua capacidade de ouvir, questionar, observar, apoiar e de ser empático.

-P3

My leader effectively expresses emotion using verbal and non-verbal communication, using facial expressions, gestures, humor, change of tone, or specific vocabulary.

O meu líder é eficaz a mostrar emoção quando comunica verbal e não verbalmente, recorrendo a expressões faciais, gestos, humor, mudança de tom, ou uso de vocabulário específico.

-P4

My leader effectively uses verbal and non-verbal communication to transmit a confident and controlled portrayal, by not avoiding eye contact or having a good posture.

O meu líder é eficaz no uso de comunicação verbal e não verbal, transmitindo uma imagem confiante e controlada, mantendo contacto visual e uma boa postura.

Motivation

-P1

I feel motivated by my leader's communication

Sinto-me motivado com a comunicação do meu líder.

-P2

My leader values open and clear communication, clarifying role expectations.

O meu líder valoriza comunicação aberta e transparente, especificando as expectativas profissionais.

-P3

My leader values recognition and rewards attribution when effectively completing tasks and performance levels.

O meu líder valoriza o reconhecimento e a atribuição de recompensas ao completar de forma eficaz as tarefas e ao atingir níveis de desempenho.

Section 4

Turnover Rates/Organizational commitment

Please select the answer to each phrase that states your opinion, considering a 5-point Likert Scale, where 1 represents “strongly disagreed” and 5 represents “strongly agreed”. Please consider your own organizational commitment.

Affective Commitment

P1 - I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.

Eu ficaria muito feliz a ficar até ao fim da minha carreira nesta organização.

P2 - I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

Eu sinto que os problemas da organização também são meus.

P3 - I do not feel like 'part of my family' at this organization.

Eu não me sinto "parte da família" nesta organização.

P4 - I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.

Eu não me sinto "ligado emocionalmente " a esta organização.

P5 - This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Esta organização tem um grande significado pessoal para mim.

P6 - I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.

Eu não tenho um sentimento de pertença forte a esta organização.

Continuance Commitment

P7 - It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this organization right now even if I wanted to.

Seria muito difícil para mim neste momento sair do meu trabalho nesta organização, mesmo que eu quisesse.

P8 - Too much of my life would be disrupted if I leave my organization.

Se eu saísse da minha organização, a minha vida ficaria demasiado perturbada.

P9 - Right now, staying with my job at this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

Neste momento, ficar no meu trabalho é igualmente uma necessidade e um desejo.

P10 - I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Eu acredito que tenho poucas opções a considerar ao sair desta organização.

P11 - One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organization would be the scarcity of available alternative elsewhere.

Uma das únicas consequências negativas de sair do meu trabalho nesta organização seria a falta de opções noutras organizações.

P12 - One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice.

Uma das maiores razões para eu continuar nesta organização é que sair, requer um sacrifício pessoal considerável.

Normative Commitment

P13 - I do not feel any obligation to remain with my organization.

Eu não sinto uma obrigação ficar na minha organização.

P14 - Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave.

Mesmo que fosse para vantagem própria, não sinto que sair seria o correto.

P15 - I would feel guilty if I left this organization now.

Sentiria-me culpada se saísse agora da minha organização.

P16 - This organization deserves my loyalty.

Esta organização merece a minha lealdade.

P17 - I would not leave my organization right now because of my sense of obligation to it.

Eu não sairia da minha organização agora, devido ao meu sentido de obrigação para com a mesma.

P18 - I owe a great deal to this organization.

Eu devo muito a esta organização.

Section 6

On a concluding thought, to what extent does your leader's communication relate to your professional growth and development? Possible answers can be a history that

happened, or an example of how your leader's communication impacts your day-to-day in your work environment.

Para concluir, em que medida a comunicação do seu líder impacta com o seu crescimento e desenvolvimento profissional? (Possíveis respostas: Uma história entre ti e o teu líder que te tenha marcado; Um exemplo de atividades diárias que influenciam o ambiente de trabalho.)