Between obligations and privileges

Managers' job resources and demands as determinants of their job satisfaction and mental health

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ABSTRACT

Based on Bakker and Demerouti’s Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, the present study hypothesized that the job demands of role conflict, work pace and downsizing, and the job resources of participative decision-making and constructive leadership behaviour, are systematically related to job satisfaction and mental health complaints among a representative sample of Norwegian managers with personnel responsibilities (n=472). Furthermore, in line with the JD-R model, it was hypothesized that the two job resources would act as buffers upon the relationships between the three job demands and the managers’ job satisfaction and mental health. Regression analysis revealed that role conflict was positively related to mental health complaints and negatively related to job satisfaction. Moreover, participative decision-making was negatively related to mental health complaints, while positively related to job satisfaction. Constructive leadership behaviour was not systematically related to mental health complaints, but positively related to job satisfaction. In contrast to our hypotheses, neither work pace nor downsizing were significantly related to the two outcomes. Two out of 12 hypothesized buffering effects were confirmed. Participative decision-making buffered the relationship between role conflict and mental health complaints, and between role conflict and job satisfaction. Hence, the importance of efforts aimed at preventing and managing role conflicts and at involving managers in decision-making processes is emphasized. Future research should investigate alternative job demands and job resources in the work situation of managers and apply longitudinal research designs in order to explore casual relationships. Finally, future studies should examine different groups of managers at different organizational levels.

Keywords: Job Demands-Resources model, managers, role conflict, work pace, downsizing, participative decision-making, constructive leadership behaviour, mental health complaints, job satisfaction
SAMMENDRAG


Nøkkelord: Jobbkrav-Ressurs-modellen, ledere, rollekonflikt, arbeidstakt, nedbemanning, deltagende beslutningstakning, konstruktiv lederatferd, mentale helseplager, jobbtilfredshet
The background for an investigation of job demands and job resources and their relationships with mental health and job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities was a personal interest in the field of leadership as well as in the research literature related to stress and motivation among employees in contemporary organizations. At the same time, the specific focus of the present study was largely inspired by suggestions from our supervisor, Professor Anders Skogstad, and from our secondary supervisor, Guy Notelaers. Throughout the whole process of writing this thesis, our supervisors have been of crucial importance by engaging in constructive discussions and providing continuous feedback.

Working on the present thesis has been inspiring and educational, but, at times, the work has been demanding and challenging. Nevertheless, the quality of our collaboration has been very satisfactory. We have had room for debates and disagreements, but, at the same time, we have preserved and developed our personal friendship.

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INTRODUCTION

Various studies have shown that managers in contemporary working life are confronted with a broad number of stressors and challenges. For instance, managers often have the overall responsibility for overseeing the achievements of their respective departments and subordinates, making sure that various criteria of performance are met (Stewart, 1982). Furthermore, several scholars substantiate that new markets, major advances in communications and technology, and the emergence of an educated, multicultural and skilled workforce pose new demands on contemporary managers (e.g., Cartwright & Boyes, 2000; Sutherland & Cooper, 1995). Hence, in describing previous research on managerial work, Yukl (2010) identifies a total of nine categories of behaviors frequently required by managers at different levels, namely supervising, planning and organizing, decision-making, monitoring indicators, controlling, representing, coordinating, consulting and administering.

In light of these developments, it is relevant to question how this variety of challenges and demands may influence managers’ health and job satisfaction. According to the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), demanding aspects of the work situation may contribute to severe stress and health problems among employees, not the least managers. In line with this, Yukl (2010) argues that factors such as long working hours, hectic work pace, attending numerous meetings and pressure to make important decisions are intrinsic characteristics of the leadership role, and moreover, that such factors may result in high levels of stress among managers. Similarly, Worrall and Cooper (1995), in their study of UK senior managers, conclude that “the level of executive stress is significant with one respondent in six citing that executives in their business are subject to extreme levels of stress” (p. 11). They also found that competitive pressures, the volume of work and performance targets were the major stress drivers among the examined managers (Worrall & Cooper, 1995). Moreover, Noblet, Rodwell and McWilliams (2001) point out that the number of managerial stressors, such as those mentioned above, has increased as a result of the major social, organizational and economic changes that have occurred during recent years. Specifically, they argue that longer working hours, higher levels of work-family conflicts and frequent threats of downsizing and delayering are main characteristics of the organizational context confronting contemporary managers (Noblet, et al., 2001). In line with this Colbjørnsen, Drake and Haukedal (2001) found that among Norwegian managers the average
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workload was 47 hours per week, while 40 per cent worked more than 50 hours a week. Correspondingly, in a study conducted by Strand (2001), managers reported that they spent as much as 85 per cent of their personal energy on their work during the week, leaving only 15 per cent for activities on the family and leisure arena. In line with these descriptions, it is reasonable to assume that being a manager often implies a very demanding job.

However, at the same time, being a manager also implies various privileges and resources. Stewart (1982) points out that managers often possess flexibility and autonomy in terms of how to execute their work tasks, which work tasks to prioritize and prioritizations regarding whom to work with. For instance, it is argued that managers can emphasize certain aspects of their work, while ignoring or delegating other aspects. Furthermore, managers may influence important decision-making processes in their organization as a result of their position in the organizational hierarchy (Stewart, 1982). Correspondingly, in their examination of the Fourth European Working Conditions Survey, a survey which is conducted in 31 European countries, Parent-Thirion, Macias, Hurley and Vermeylen (2007) concluded that employees in managerial jobs were the only ones who enjoyed high levels of job control and at the same time as having very demanding jobs.

In the research literature on stress and health problems among managers, several studies have been concerned with managers at senior and top levels of the organization, thereby overlooking managers at middle and lower levels interacting on a daily basis with subordinates and the production processes (e.g., Cooper, 1984; McNally, 2000; Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007; Worrall & Cooper, 1995). Furthermore, little research has been conducted to examine the degree to which demands and resources are related to job satisfaction and health among managers, and if interaction between demands and resources influences such outcomes. Hence, the aim of the present study is to investigate the degree to which managers’ job demands and job resources predict job satisfaction and mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities. Further, according to the JD-R model, different kinds of job resources may buffer the negative effects of job demands upon employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Thus, the interactions between managers’ demands and resources may be important predictors of their job satisfaction and health. In line with this assumption, we will investigate if managers’ job resources buffer the relationship between job demands and manager’s job satisfaction and mental health. The job characteristics applied in
the present study are selected by their relevancy for managers as substantiated by existing theory and research.

**The Job Demands-Resources model**

The JD-R model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) describes two different categories of working conditions relevant to the experience of job stress and motivation among employees, namely job demands and job resources. Job demands are defined as “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). On the other hand, job resources refer to “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, stimulates personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). In the following, when describing the JD-R model, we will refer to the model as it is presented in this “state of the art” article by Bakker and Demerouti (2007).

The JD-R model is influenced by previously established theories of work-related stress and motivation, but at the same time, it extends those theories. For instance, the demand-control model (DCM) developed by Karasek (1979) also focuses on the role of job demands and resources as predictors of job strain, psychological health, learning and motivation among employees. However, the DCM is, primarily, restricted to decision latitude as an important job resource among employees in general (see Van Der Doef & Maes, 1999 for a review). An explicit assumption in the JD-R model, however, is that employees within different occupational groups experience different demands and resources as a result of their specific job characteristics (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Thus, according to the JD-R model, there may be occupations in which decision latitude is not an important predictor of the health and job satisfaction of employees and alternative job resources may be more relevant for such outcomes. The JD-R model thereby offers a theoretical framework frequently applied in order to explain and understand a broad range of job characteristics and their relationships with outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).
A second core assumption in the JD-R model is that there are two different processes through which job strain and motivation may be developed at work. In the health impairment process, poorly designed jobs consisting of high levels of demands can lead to constant overtaxing and energy depletion among employees. In turn, such destructive patterns may develop into exhaustion and burnout. Hockey (1993) explains this development by describing how the influence of environmental demands leads to performance-protection strategies, characterized by sympathetic activation in the autonomic and endocrine systems and increased subjective effort. This type of increase in activation and effort may elicit a variety of compensatory responses, such as narrowing of attention, increased selectivity, risky choices and high levels of subjective fatigue, which in the long run may lead to the draining of an individual’s energy, eventually resulting in a breakdown (Hockey, 1993).

In the motivational process, it is generally assumed that job resources have a motivational potential and are therefore positively related to outcomes such as work engagement, job satisfaction, learning, development and performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The scholars explain this constructive role of job resources by pointing out that the resources fulfill basic human needs. For instance, job resources such as decision latitude and social support may, in specific contexts, influence motivational aspects by satisfying the need for autonomy and the need to belong (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1985). The JD-R model, further, states that job resources may play an extrinsic motivational role because “work environments that offer many resources foster the willingness to dedicate one’s efforts and abilities to the work task” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 314).

As a result of the two described processes, job demands and (lack of) job resources have shown to be significantly related not only to burnout, which is the outcome originally investigated in the model, but also to a wide variety of outcomes such as work-to-family conflict, job satisfaction, work engagement, absenteeism, turnover intentions, learning, poor performance and health problems (see Bakker & Demerouti, 2007 for a review). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) also point out that the majority of previous studies have applied negative outcome variables, such as burnout, repetitive strain and ill health. The inclusion of job satisfaction as an outcome variable in the present study of managers with personnel responsibilities may therefore contribute to the understanding of relationships with positive work-related outcomes and the motivational potential of the managers’ job.
The JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), further states that job resources may buffer the negative impact of job demands on various outcomes, an assumption which is consistent with Karasek’s (1979) DCM. Buffering refers to an interaction effect in which a job resource protects individuals from potentially negative consequences, such as reduced job satisfaction and/or increased health problems, of stressful events (e.g. role conflict, work pace and/or downsizing; S. Cohen & Wills, 1985). The JD-R model extends the DCM by postulating that there is a wide range of possible job resources which may act as buffers. Hence, as mentioned earlier, the type of job resources which are important in a specific work situation will depend on the job characteristics that prevail (Van Emmerik, Bakker, & Euwema, 2009). It is relevant to emphasize that there may be different explanations for why different resources function as buffers. For instance, support and appreciation from one’s supervisor may put demands in another perspective for the focal person, help him/her in coping with the demands, as well as facilitate his/her performance and function as a protector for health impairment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Väänänen, et al., 2003).

In the following, theory and research relevant to the job demands, job resources and outcome variables applied in the present study of managers with personnel responsibilities will be presented, and proposed relationships will be described.

**Job demands among managers**

**Role conflict**

The research literature substantiates that several contingencies of managers may be characterized as job demands in terms of the JD-R model. Among these, role conflict has been frequently emphasized, and may defined as the “simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other” (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964, p. 19). Floyd and Lane (2000) point out that the constant need for modern organizations to align their strategies with changing environmental circumstances forces managers at higher levels to take on a wide variety of roles and responsibilities. More specifically, it is substantiated that top managers often experience role conflicts as a result of “inconsistent behavioral expectations based on
the need to efficiently deploy existing competencies and the need to experiment with new ones” (Jackson & Schuler, 1985, p. 154). As for managers at lower and middle levels, Balogun (2003) has found that they tend to experience a particular type of role conflict in the sense that they are both agents and targets of change initiatives and strategic decisions from the top. Hence, the managers are constantly juggling between four roles, namely those of undertaking personal change, keeping the business going, helping others through change and implementing changes to departments (Balogun, 2003).

Role conflicts may also occur among managers at middle and lower levels as a result of their responsibilities for both superiors and subordinates. For example, owners and CEOs may wish to initiate strategic actions and restructuring processes that employees at lower levels consider as undesirable and threatening. Colbjørnsen (2002) states that managers with personnel responsibilities have to take into account the demands and suggestions fronted by employees through participation in bottom-up processes. At the same time, they are obliged to implement decisions made by owners and top managers about the future of the organization. Further, they are also responsible for ensuring that laws and regulations are followed. In a study of Norwegian managers Colbjørnsen, Drake and Haukedal (2001) show that about 70 per cent of the respondents report that they often end up in such role conflicts as a result of different expectations among superiors and subordinates. This was documented for managers located at both lower, middle and higher organizational levels.

As for the potential consequences of role conflicts, various studies have revealed adverse outcomes. In a representative study of the Norwegian workforce, high levels of role conflict were found to be the common characteristic of those work environments where bullying and harassment occurred (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007). A reasonable explanation is that poor clarification of expectations and demands related to roles, tasks and responsibilities may lead to interpersonal conflicts as a result of disagreement concerning rights, duties, privileges and positions (e.g., Einarsen, et al., 2007). Furthermore, Coverman (1989) found that high levels of role conflict was systematically related to a decrease in job satisfaction, psychophysical health and well-being among employees in her study. Similar associations were found in Fisher and Gitelson (1983) meta-analysis of 43 studies, where role conflict showed consistent negative relationships with organizational commitment, involvement and job satisfaction. Another meta-analysis reviewing ninety-six studies revealed that role conflict
was positively associated with health problems such as tension and anxiety, while negatively related to six different aspects of job satisfaction (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

Despite the fact that various studies have investigated the prevalence and consequences of role conflict, there are, to our knowledge, no studies applying the JD-R model in order to examine the relationships between role conflict and the mental health complaints and job satisfaction of managers with personnel responsibilities. Hence, given that role conflict seems to be a notable job demand for managers, we hypothesize that:

\textit{Hypothesis 1a: Role conflict will be positively related to mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities.}

\textit{Hypothesis 1b: Role conflict will be negatively related to job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities.}

\textbf{Work pace}

The fourth \textit{European Working Conditions Survey}, carried out in 31 European countries, describes how shifts in the economical structure, with the services sector growing at the expense of manufacturing sector, have resulted in changes in the constraints or determinants of work (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). More specifically, based on longitudinal survey indicators, it is argued that market constraints have become predominant and that the importance of mechanized industrial constraints is decreasing. For example, according to more than 68 per cent of the respondents, direct demands from people is the most important determinant of the pace of work, referring to “the speed with which task-related decisions must be made” (Harrington & Beard, 1996, p. 141). Only 19 per cent consider the most
visible industrial constraint – pace of work determined by the automatic speed of a machine – to be the most important (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). Furthermore, emergent determinants of work pace such as direct demands from people seem to be most frequently reported by senior managers, followed by other high-skilled occupational groups such as professionals and technicians (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). These scholars point out that pace of work most directly impact working conditions via the perception of intensity of work, a concept which is reflected by such variables as “working to tight deadlines” and “working at a very high speed”. It is concluded that “One of the clearest trends since the first European Working Conditions Survey was carried out 15 years ago is a rise in the levels of perceived work intensity” (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007, p. 58).

Studies have found systematic relationships between high levels of work pace and various outcomes. Among these, a longitudinal study of work stressors with survey data collected in 1977, 1983 and 1986 from 5865 employees found that high work pace was one of the most important risk dimensions, positively correlated with both psychosomatic complaints and musculoskeletal problems (Houtman, Bongers, Smulders, & Kompier, 1994). Similarly, the results from the Fourth European Working Conditions Survey show that employees whose work pace is mostly predicted by direct demands from other people, which probably also is the case for many managers, report higher levels of psychologically related health problems. Moreover, senior managers and professionals report the highest levels of psychological health problems compared to other occupational groups. The study also showed that high levels of work intensity, which is strongly correlated with the pace of work, were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction among the participants (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007).

Correspondingly, in a study of midlevel managers from a Dutch industrial organization, very high levels of workload and work pace were negatively related to the job satisfaction of those managers (Janssen, 2001).

In line with the results presented above, it is substantiated that the work situation of many managers is characterized by high levels of work pace, and, moreover, that work pace may represent a significant stressor among this particular group of employees. Hence, we define work pace as a job demand in our investigation of managers with personnel responsibilities and hypothesize that:
**Hypothesis 2a:** Work pace will be positively related to mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Work pace will be negatively related to job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities.

**Downsizing**

Studies have shown that organizational changes may represent a significant source of stress associated with negative outcomes such as work-family conflicts, job dissatisfaction, turnover, reduced status and threats to employees' psychological health and well-being (see Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999 for a review). According to Porras and Silvers (1991), changes are often initiated as a result of shifts in the environment, eliciting an intentional response from the organization. Jimmieson, Terry and Callan (2004) point out that organizational changes may be characterized as critical incidents in the life of employees with the potential to trigger stress reactions and other negative outcomes (Jimmieson, et al., 2004). Furthermore, many studies highlight especially harmful effects of changes involving downsizing, referring mainly to the planned elimination of positions or jobs with intent to improve organizational efficiency, productivity and/or competitiveness (Cascio, 1993). For instance, in their study of UK managers, Worrall, Parkes and Cooper (2004) found that changes involving redundancy and delayering, which are frequently main elements of downsizing programs, were considered to have more detrimental effects than other forms of change. More specifically, such downsizing characteristics were negatively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, motivation and loyalty as reported by the managers (Worrall, et al., 2004). Cascio (2002) concluded that the majority of downsizing projects are unsuccessful in terms of the
original goals, and, moreover, that they have the potential to be injurious to both the victims and survivors of the downsizing.

Downsizing also seems to be a type of job demand with particular relevance for managers at middle and lower levels. For example, the study of Worrall and colleagues (2004) revealed that managers’ at middle and lower levels (non-directors) reported significantly more negative perceptions of downsizing programs than did managers at higher levels (directors). In a longitudinal study comparing the reactions of executive-level managers and middle managers during large-scale downsizing process, middle managers reported a greater sense of powerlessness and more threat of job loss, lower levels of job performance and significantly more health problems than did senior managers (Armstrong-Stassen, 2005). Similarly, as pointed to earlier, Balogun (2003) argues that managers responsible for implementing changes in their respective departments and for helping their subordinates through the change process, especially in relation to downsizing and restructuring initiatives from above, experience a particularly stressful situation with multiple challenges and obligations.

Based on the assumptions of the JD-R model and the research presented above, it is assumed that downsizing may have destructive effects on managers in modern organizations. To our knowledge, little research has been conducted to examine the relationships between downsizing and the job satisfaction and health of managers with personnel responsibilities, and, moreover, whether such relationships may be influenced by various job resources in terms of the JD-R model. We, hereby, propose downsizing to be a job demand within the JD-R model and hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 3a: Downsizing will be positively related to mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities.**
Hypothesis 3b: Downsizing will be negatively related to job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities.

Job resources among the managers

Participative decision-making

Participative decision-making (PDM) is a central dimension of control in the workplace (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989), a concept which have been frequently applied as a job resources in the research literature on the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Heller and colleagues (1998) define participative decision-making as “the totality of forms, i.e. direct (personal) or indirect (through representatives or institutions) and of intensities, i.e. ranging from minimal to comprehensive, by which individuals, groups, collectives secure their interests or contribute to the choice process through self-determined choices among possible actions during the decision process” (p. 42).

Several studies have shown positive associations between PDM and employees’ health and job satisfaction. Among these, a meta-analysis of 101 samples from studies investigating the role of participation at work shows high levels of participation to be systematically related to high levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, performance and motivation, and low levels of physical symptoms, emotional distress, role stress and turnover among employees (Spector, 1986). Another longitudinal study found that PDM was a strong predictor of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees from five medium-sized organizations in Australia (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, & Marshall, 2006). Furthermore, Slate and Vogel (1997) found that when participative decision-making increased among correctional officers in criminal justice organizations, the level of physical and occupational stress decreased. Similarly, a study among nursing and clerical employees reveals a negative relationship between PDM and emotional strain, and positive relationships between perceived influence and job satisfaction and turnover (Jackson, 1983).

As a possible theoretical explanation for the apparent influence of PDM on various outcomes in the workplace, self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) posits that human beings are
proactive organisms whose natural functioning can be facilitated by satisfaction of certain basic needs such as the need for autonomy. More specifically, when employees are provided with reasons and choices regarding the content and execution of their work tasks, they are generally more interested and engaged in them, even after forms of surveillance and control are removed (Gagné, Koestner, & Zuckerman, 2006). Other scholars, such as Black and Gregersen (1997), point to the concept of “value attainment” as an explanation for the role of PDM in the workplace. This concept implies that PDM increases the opportunity of employees to influence important outcomes of their work, and, in this manner, employees are able to obtain what they desire from their work environment. Moreover, it is argued that employees who perceive the outcomes of their work as desirable, experience increased levels of job satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1997). This argument is supported by the findings of Obradovic, French and Rodgers (1970), which indicate that the positive association between PDM and job satisfaction is stronger when employees believe that high levels of PDM will result in desired outcomes.

Stewart (1982) argues that a central characteristic of the work situation of managers is the opportunity to influence important decision-making processes as a result of their position in the organizational hierarchy. This notion is supported by the findings from the Fourth European Working Conditions Survey (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007), in which managers reported higher levels of influence over several aspects of their job, such as the ability to choose or change their methods of work and to influence the choice of working partners, than did any other occupational group in the survey (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). Hence, PDM may be considered as a job resource highly relevant for managers, and, therefore, PDM is included as a job resource in the present examination of the JD-R model in relation to managers with personnel responsibility. We hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4a: Participative decision-making will be negatively related to mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities.
Hypothesis 4b: Participative decision-making will be positively related to job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities.

Constructive leadership behaviour

A wide range of studies have showed that the actions of superiors and the quality of their leadership is systematically related to the health and job satisfaction of subordinates (see Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Nyberg, Bernin, & Theorell, 2005 for reviews). Moreover, studies have shown that leadership behavior may promote positive emotions and prevent stress reactions among subordinates. For example, a study of employees in local government agencies revealed that participative management styles, characterized by strong cooperative relationships with employees, were highly related to the job satisfaction of subordinates (Kim, 2002). This study also showed that subordinates’ perception of effective communication with their supervisors was important predictors of their satisfaction. Furthermore, by application of the DCM, Karasek, Triantis and Chaudhry (1982) generally found that higher levels of both instrumental and emotional support from supervisor were associated with weaker relationships between various stressors and job strain among subordinates, measured by different indicators related to psychological health, job dissatisfaction and life dissatisfaction. In a 360 degree investigation of 343 leaders, involving both superiors and subordinates in addition to the leaders themselves, Offermann and Hellmann (1996) found that leadership behaviors characterized by work facilitation, approachability, team building, interest in subordinates growth and development of trust were negatively related to subordinates stress. Hence, they concluded that leaders may function as agents for employee stress reduction (Offermann & Hellmann, 1996).

Research focusing on the positive influence of constructive and supportive leadership behaviour upon subordinates and organizations, such as the studies described above, may to a large degree be traced back to the classical leadership studies conducted in Michigan and Ohio which describe leadership behaviour by application of two different dimensions (Arvonen, 1995). The first dimension, task-oriented leadership, is related to the degree to which the manager focuses on organizational tasks, while the second dimension, relations-
oriented leadership, refers to how the manager attends to the employees in the organization. However, during the recent decades, several researchers point to other leadership dimensions which may also be of importance in modern organizations. For instance, the full range leadership model, as the name implies, attempts to describe a whole range of leadership styles from non-leadership, which involves that responsibilities of leadership are ignored, to the more transformational styles, characterized by ability to produce change in groups and organizations through idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation or individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Similarly, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) find support for a third dimension, in addition to employee-centered and production-centered leadership, which has to do with promoting organizational change. They also argue that the need for change-oriented leaders "may have developed in today's companies as a consequence of the accelerating rate of change in many areas, which affects both products and processes" (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, p. 17). In a study examining the possible effects of leadership behaviors upon employees, Arvonen (1995) found that employee-oriented, production-oriented and change-oriented leadership styles were positively related to job satisfaction among the respondents. Change-oriented leadership was also negatively related to employee’s psychosomatic health problems when the employees reported low organizational commitment. Further, employee-oriented and production-oriented leadership were negatively related to psychosomatic health problems regardless of the level of organizational commitment among the subordinates (Arvonen, 1995).

Some studies have indicated that white-collar workers, and among them managers, may have other needs and preferences concerning supervisory behaviour than blue-collar workers as a result of different work tasks and situations. For instance, in discussing the findings of his study, Arvonen (1995) points out that “A manager who is supportive, who trusts his co-workers and is tolerant of their opinions is an asset for white-collar workers and managers in a different way than is the case in production, where the design of the technical system and the work situation dictate that co-workers want a manager who plans, controls and instructs” (1995, pp. 18-19). Similar notions have been made by Skogstad and Einarsen (1999), who found that Norwegian managers working in developmental cultures, referring to cultures which are flexible and external in their orientation and emphasize dynamic creativity and adaptability, assessed change-oriented leadership as an important predictor of the leader’s competence while subordinates did not. This study also showed that change-oriented
leadership behaviour was positively related to the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of the employees in general (Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999).

Based on the above description, we will apply constructive leadership behaviour, operationalized by employee-centered, production-centered and change-centered leadership (Ekvall & Arvon, 1991), as a job resource in the present study. More specifically, we will examine the relationships between constructive leadership behaviour, mental health complaints and job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities, hypothesizing that:

**Hypothesis 5a:** Constructive leadership behaviour will be negatively related to mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities.

**Hypothesis 5b:** Constructive leadership behaviour will be positively related to job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities.

**The buffering effect of job resources**

As previously pointed to, a central assumption of the JD-R model is that job resources may buffer the negative effect of job demands upon various outcomes such as job satisfaction and health among employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Buffering refers to an interaction effect in which a job resource protects an individual from the potentially negative influence (e.g., reduced job satisfaction and/or increased health problems) of stressful demands (e.g. role conflict, work pace and/or downsizing; S. Cohen & Wills, 1985). Several empirical studies have confirmed this assumption by application of a wide variety of demands and
resources relevant for different occupational groups and work situations (see Bakker & Demerouti, 2007 for a review). For instance, Sargent and Terry (2000) found that supervisor support had a buffering effect upon the negative relationships between various job demands and job satisfaction among the university employees in their study. Similarly, in a study of 807 employees from six different organizations, participative decision-making was found to be a significant buffer of the negative relationships between job insecurity and satisfaction with coworkers, supervisors and the work itself (Probst, 2005). In a longitudinal study of German blue-collar workers, Frese (1999) found that social support had a buffering effect upon the positive relationships between various physical, psychological and social stressors and psychosomatic complaints, depression, irritation/strain and anxiety. However, to our knowledge, there is a lack of research studying the work situation of managers in light of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). An essential premise of the JD-R model is that different demands and resources will be relevant for different occupations and in different work situations. Therefore, occupation-specific approaches are necessary in order to identify factors that are important for different groups of employees, and, furthermore, to understand how the interaction between these factors influence employees’ health and job satisfaction (McClenahan, Giles, & Mallett, 2007).

Some studies indicate that the situation of managers is a particularly interesting domain for investigating the buffer hypothesis of the JD-R model. For instance, by applying Karasek’s job strain model (1979), which has several characteristics in common with the JD-R model, Parent-Thiron and colleagues (2007) examined which type of work organization that was predominant among the respondents from different occupational groups and countries in the Fourth European Working Conditions Survey. In their description of the results from this investigation, Parent-Thiron and colleagues (2007) conclude that “Only workers in managerial positions fall into the ‘active work organization’ category; these are the only workers who, in general, enjoy high levels of control and at the same time have demanding jobs” (p. 60). Furthermore, the study also revealed that participants from the Nordic countries included in the study (Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland) were to the highest degree approaching “the active work organization”, in which “greater demands on the worker are counterbalanced by greater control over the content of work” (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007, p. 60). Hence, Norwegian managers, who are the targets of the present investigation, seem to be part of a unique group in the sense that they tend to experience high levels of both demands
and resources, something which makes an examination of the buffer hypothesis of the JD-R model highly relevant. At this point, it is important to highlight that the study of Parent-Thiron and colleagues (2007) focused on managers at higher levels of the organization, while the present study focuses on managers with personnel responsibilities from all levels of the organization. We investigate the following hypothesis:

_Hypothesis 6a: Job resources will buffer the positive relationships between job demands and mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities._

_Hypothesis 6b: Job resources will buffer the negative relationships between job demands and job satisfaction among managers with personnel responsibilities._
METHOD

Procedure
The present study is based on data material collected from a representative sample of the Norwegian workforce (Høstmark & Lagerstrøm, 2006). The sample is drawn from the Norwegian Central Employee Register, which is the official register of all Norwegian employees, by Statistics Norway (SSB). Questionnaires were randomly distributed by mail during the spring of 2005. Out of 4500 employees, 2539 returned the questionnaires, yielding a response rate of 56.4 per cent. The number of respondents who reported to be managers with personnel responsibilities, thus representing the sample investigated in the present study, was 472. The questionnaire measured demographic variables, leadership behaviour, job satisfaction, different aspects of the psychosocial work environment and mental health complains. The survey which provides the basis for the present study is approved by the Regional Ethics Committee (REC) in Norway, which means that the ethical guidelines and criteria of REC have been followed. Hence, informed consent, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality have been ensured by Statistics Norway (SSB) through standard procedures.

Sample
Participants have been registered in the Norwegian Central Employee Register for at least six months, ranged from 18 to 67 years of age, worked in a company with five or more employees, and spent in average more than 15 hours at work per week. The mean age of the sample was 45.3, with ages ranging from 20 years to 66 years. The sample consisted of 59.1 per cent men and 40.9 per cent women. The majority (89.9 %) of the sample was full-time employees, 5.9 per cent were part-time employees, 2.7 per cent were on sick leave, 1.1 per cent were on occupational rehabilitation and 0.5 per cent were under full-time education. Mean working hours per week was 42.1 (sd = 9.6). A total of 67.5 per cent of the participant were employed in departments with less than 20 employees, while 21.9 per cent were
employed in departments with 20 to 49 employees, and 10.6 per cent were employed in departments with 50 employees or more. The respondents reported to have personnel responsibilities for an average of 10.8 employees, ranging from 1 to 60 (sd = 11.2).

**Instruments**

Demographical data of the respondents was collected. Age and span of control were measured as continuous variables. Managers with personnel responsibilities were identified by use of the question: “Are you a manager with personnel responsibilities?” Response categories were “Yes” and “No”. The number of employees for which the respondents have personnel responsibilities, labeled span of control, was assessed by use of the question: “For how many do you have personnel responsibility?”

Role conflict was measured by eight items from a scale developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970). The items consist of different statements about the work experiences of the respondents (e.g., “I experience incompatible desires and demands from two or more persons” and “I have to do things which I feel should have been done differently”). The response categories constitute a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “Completely correct” to “Completely incorrect”. Internal consistency of the scale as measured by Cronbach’s alpha was .84.

Work pace was measured by four items from a scale developed by Van Veldhoven and Meijman (1994). Examples of the items are “I have to work very fast” and “I work under time pressure”. Response categories were “Never”, “Sometimes”, “Often” and “Always”. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .87.

Downsizing was assessed by use of a modified and culturally anchored version of Baron and Neuman’s (1996) scale measuring the prevalence of various organizational changes. Based on a study by Skogstad, Matthiesen and Einarsen (2007), the present study includes a subscale measuring downsizing consisting of four items. The respondents were asked whether different forms of downsizing had taken place in their organization during the last 12 months (e.g.,
“Budget cuts”, “Reduction in the number of employees”). The response categories were “Never”, “To a small degree”, “To some degree” and “To a high degree”. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .70.

**Participative decision-making** was measured by four items from the scale of Van Veldhoven & Meijman (1994). Examples of items are “Can you influence the division of work between you and your colleagues?” and “Do you participate in decision-making which affects your area of work?” The response categories were “Never”, “Sometimes”, “Often” and “Always”. Internal consistency of the scale as measured by Cronbach’s alpha was .74.

**Constructive leadership behaviour** was assessed by six items from a revised version of Ekvall and Arvonen’s instrument (1991) measuring employee-, production- and change-centered leadership. In line with a study conducted by Hauge and colleagues (2007), and based on an exploratory factor analysis of the present sample (see Appendix I), six items were included in a composite scale measuring constructive leadership behaviour. Examples of the items are “Have your immediate superior given recognition for good performance during the last six months?”, “Have your immediate superior clearly defined and explained the work assignments for you and your coworkers?” and “Have your immediate superior encouraged innovative thinking during the last six months?” Response categories were “Never”, “Sometimes”, “Quite often” and “Very often”. Cronbach’s alpha was .88.

**Mental health complaints** were investigated by means of the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (HSCL-25) developed by Parloff, Kelman and Frank (1954) at the John Hopkins University. HSCL-25 is a short-version of the HSCL, and contains 25 items measuring the most common symptoms of anxiety and depression. The respondents were asked to report the degree to which they experienced various symptoms (e.g., “Anxiety”, “Headache”) and the response options were “Not at all”, “A little”, “Quite a bit” and “A lot”. Cronbach’s alpha was .91.

**Job satisfaction** was measured by five items from the scale of Brayfield and Rothe (1951). The items consisted of several allegations related to the respondents work situation. Examples of items are “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job” and “I find real enjoyment in my work.” Five response categories ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” were applied. Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .76.
Statistical procedures and analyses

The data were analyzed using PASW Statistics (Predictive Analytics Software, former Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 17.0. Frequencies analyses, descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, factor analyses, reliability analyses, and multiple regression analyses were conducted. In order to meet the assumptions for conducting these analyses, data screening was administered prior to the analyses according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). As a result of this screening, 27 outliers were identified and, thus, 27 cases were excluded from the analyses.

In the regression analyses, age, gender and span of control were to be included as control variables. Because correlation analysis revealed that age was the only control variable which was significantly related to any of the two outcomes, mental health complaints and job satisfaction (see Table I), the two other control variables were excluded from the subsequent regression analyses. Thus, in the hierarchical regression analyses, age was included as a control variable in step 1. In step 2, all of the job demands were included, while all job resources were added in step 3. Furthermore, all interaction terms were included in step 4. Interaction terms were tested in a two-step procedure. Firstly, all interactions were tested simultaneously. As this is a conservative test, we thereby removed the insignificant interactions and repeated the analysis in order to obtain more trustworthy estimates for the main and interaction effects and to avoid an inflation of variables in our model. This procedure was, firstly, conducted with mental health complaints as the criterion variable, and, secondly, with job satisfaction as the criterion variable. The level of significance was set to $p < .05$. 

RESULTS

Table I shows the means, standard deviations and Pearson’s correlation coefficients for the variables in the study. All correlation coefficients between the job demands, job resources and the two criteria, mental health complaints and job satisfaction, were significantly different from zero ($p < .05$), except for the relationship between work pace and participative decision-making, work pace and constructive leadership behaviour and for the relationship between constructive leadership behaviour and downsizing, respectively.
Table I. Means, standard deviations, and Pearson’s correlations for the measured variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>45.26</td>
<td>9.97</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Span of control</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>10.76</td>
<td>11.22</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Role conflict</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.11*</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Work pace</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Downsizing</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.13**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Participative decision-making</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.31**</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.24**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Constructive leadership behaviour</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.23**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Job satisfaction</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
<td>-.14**</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Mental health complaints</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>-.12*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.10*</td>
<td>.14**</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
<td>-.42**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *p < .01, * p < .05. Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female.
Hypothesis 1a, stating that role conflict will be positively related to mental health complaints among the managers, was confirmed by a significant positive relationship between role conflict and mental health complaints as shown in Table II ($\beta = .39, p < .001$). Hypothesis 1b states that role conflict will be negatively related to job satisfaction among the managers. This is confirmed by our regression analysis, which reveals a significant negative relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.24, p < .001$). In contrast to hypothesis 2a, stating that work pace will be positively related to mental health complaints among the managers, no significant relationship was found between work pace and mental health complaints. Furthermore, no significant relationship was found between work pace and job satisfaction. Hence, no support is provided for hypothesis 2b. Hypothesis 3a states that downsizing will be positively related to mental health complaints among the managers. This is not supported by our regression analysis, which revealed no relationship between downsizing and mental health complaints. Hypothesis 3b, stating that downsizing will be negatively related to job satisfaction among the managers, was not supported since no systematic relationship was found between downsizing and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 4a, stating that participative decision-making will be negatively related to mental health complaints, was confirmed by a significant negative relationship between participative decision-making and mental health complaints ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$). A significant positive relationship was also found between participative decision-making and job satisfaction ($\beta = .25, p < .001$). This confirms hypothesis 4b, stating that participative decision-making will be positively related to job satisfaction among the managers. No significant relationship was found between constructive leadership behaviour and mental health complaints, thereby no support was found for hypothesis 5a. In support of hypothesis 5b, stating that constructive leadership behaviour will be positively related to job satisfaction among the managers, a significant positive relationship was found between constructive leadership behaviour and job satisfaction ($\beta = .22, p < .001$).

Hypothesis 6a, stating that job resources will buffer the positive relationships between job demands and mental health complaints among the managers, is only partially supported by the results of the regression analysis (see Table II). The analyses revealed that only participative decision-making had a significant moderating effect ($\beta = -.18, p < .001$) upon the relationship between role conflict and mental health complaints. The five remaining interaction terms did not contribute significantly to the prediction of mental health complaints among the managers.
Similarly, only partial support is found for hypothesis 6b, stating that job resources will buffer the negative relationships between job demands and job satisfaction among the managers. Participative decision-making had a weak but significant moderating effect ($\beta = .14, p < .01$) upon the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. The five remaining interaction terms did not contribute significantly to the prediction of job satisfaction among the managers. In sum, from a total of 12 possible interactions, only two significant interaction effects were found.
Table II. Multiple regression analysis with job demands and job resources as predictors of mental health complaints and job satisfaction. Linear and interaction effects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mental health complaints (n=409)</th>
<th>Job satisfaction (n=394)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>R²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.12*</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict</td>
<td>.37***</td>
<td>- .32***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work pace</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downsizing</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict</td>
<td>.31***</td>
<td>- .18***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work pace</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downsizing</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative decision-making</td>
<td>-.17***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructive leadership behaviour</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.10*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict</td>
<td>.39***</td>
<td>- .24***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work pace</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Downsizing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participative decision-making</td>
<td>-.12*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructive leadership behaviour</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role conflict*Participative decision-making</td>
<td>-.18***</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p < .001, ** p < .01, * p < .05
Following the recommendations of Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (1983), we created graphical displays based on a convention for plotting interactions (see www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm), which revealed that respondents experiencing high levels of participative decision-making report lower levels of mental health complaints when exposed to high levels of role conflict than did respondents with low levels of participative decision-making (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Graphical presentation of the moderating role of participative decision-making on the relationship between role conflict and mental health complaints.
Figure 2. Graphical presentation of the moderating role of participative decision-making on the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction.

An examination of the moderating effect of participative decision-making upon the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction revealed that respondents experiencing high levels of participative decision-making report higher levels of job satisfaction when exposed to high levels of role conflict than did respondents with low levels of participative decision-making (see Figure 2). In sum, the interactional plots in Figure 1 and Figure 2 confirm that the significant moderating effects of participative decision-making can be characterized as buffering effects (see S. Cohen & Wills, 1985).
Managers in contemporary organizations experience a wide range of job demands, but, at the same time, their work situation is often characterized by certain privileges and job resources (e.g., Cartwright & Boyes, 2000; Stewart, 1982; Yukl, 2010). In the research literature, job demands and job resources are frequently found to be important predictors of the job satisfaction and health of employees (see Bakker & Demerouti, 2007 for a review). More specifically, as emphasized by the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), consideration for how employees in various occupations may experience their specific job resources and job demands is necessary in order to develop knowledge about the antecedents of their health and job satisfaction. Hence, the aim of the present study is to investigate the degree to which job demands and job resources are related to job satisfaction and mental health complaints among managers with personnel responsibilities, and, in accordance with the JD-R model, to examine whether job resources buffer the relationships between job demands and the manager’s job satisfaction and mental health complaints. In the following, our findings will be discussed in light of previous theory and research.

When comparing the three job demands included in the present study, role conflict is the only job demand which is significantly related to mental health complaints, as well as to job satisfaction, among the examined managers with personnel responsibilities. More specifically, the results show that managers who report higher levels of role conflict also report higher levels of mental health complaints, while managers who report higher levels of role conflict report lower levels of job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with several studies within the research literature. For instance, in a meta-analysis of ninety-six studies, role conflict was consistently found to be positively associated with health problems such as tension and anxiety, while negatively related to six different aspects of job satisfaction (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Moreover, in a study of managers of International Joint Ventures, Mohr and Puck (2007) found that higher levels of role conflict were strongly associated with both higher levels of job stress and lower levels of job satisfaction among the managers. In explaining their results, Mohr and Puck, point out that “it can be argued that role conflicts reduce job satisfaction and increase job stress as they cause information overload for the role incumbent” (Mohr & Puck, 2007, p. 28). In other words, the experience of role conflict,
referring to the “simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other” (Kahn, et al., 1964, p. 19), represents a situation in which multiple role senders provide a variety of contradicting information concerning the duties and responsibilities of managers in organizations. When role information gets too inconsistent and contradictory, information overload may occur resulting in decreased job satisfaction, demotivation, elevated levels of stress, confusion and cognitive strain (see Eppler & Mengis, 2004 for a review). It is also reasonable to assume that multiple role involvements and continuous effort aimed at satisfying the expectations and demands of different groups and individuals is time-consuming and may result in exhaustion of the energy and cognitive capacity of managers in organizations (Coverman, 1989).

By applying a motivational perspective, it can be argued that managers are particularly sensitive to the exposure to role conflict due to motivation for contributing to the development and productiveness of the organization. For instance, the opportunity to create visible improvements and to be part of an organization in the forefront of its industry with regard to technology and production, were considered to be some of the most important motivational factors among a majority of managers in a Norwegian study (Colbjørnsen, et al., 2001). However, in an organization where owners, superiors, colleagues, subordinates and clients disagree about what needs to be done and who needs to do what, it is reasonable that managers operating in the mid-level may frequently experience role conflicts, and, furthermore, may have problems with deciding how to contribute to the growth and development of their organization. In this manner, role conflicts may function as a barrier for important motivational factors among managers with personnel responsibilities.

There are several aspects of the work situation of managers with personnel responsibilities which may explain why role conflict is a strong predictor of the two outcomes applied in the present study. For instance, as pointed out by Balogun (2003), managers at lower levels in the organization, being both agents and targets of change and strategic initiatives from the top, may frequently have to juggle between four different activities, namely undertaking personal change, keeping the business going, helping others through change and implementing changes to departments (Balogun, 2003). Furthermore, Colbjørnsen (2002) describes how managers experience different and often contradictory demands and expectations from subordinates,
superiors and owners. In support of this notion, Colbjørnsen, Drake and Haukedal (2001) found that about 70 per cent of the Norwegian managers in their study frequently experienced role conflicts as a result of different expectations from different subordinates as well as superiors. Hence, managers at lower levels are responsible for implementing various decisions from the top, but, at the same time, they are obliged to respect the demands and expectations fronted by employees through democratic structures. It may be argued that the latter is especially relevant in the Norwegian society, which represents the context of the present study. For instance, in Norway, employee interests are particularly influential as a result of strong and well-established trade unions and because workers’ rights are, generally, very well protected by the juridical system (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 1998). Such democratic mechanisms force managers to take the interests of multiple groups into consideration, and, hence, managers at lower levels are not limited to being executioners of decision from the top, which may be the case in countries with higher power distance (e.g., UK and the USA, see Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Further, in a globalized economy with high levels of competition, it is also necessary for managers to monitor the interests of customers and clients, which may yield even more role pressure. In sum, as pointed out by Colbjørnsen, Drake and Haukedal (2001), many managers find themselves at the intersection of a wide variety of expectations and demands, a situation which most probably affect their health and satisfaction, as shown in the present study.

In contrast to our hypotheses, the results show that work pace is neither related to mental health complaints nor job satisfaction among the studied managers. These findings differ from results obtained in some previous studies. For instance, high work pace was found to be one of the most important risk dimensions positively related to both psychosomatic complaints and musculoskeletal problems among employees in a longitudinal study conducted by Houtman, Bongers, Smulders and Kompier (1994). However, their study did not differentiate between employees in different occupations. Thus, the specific working conditions of managers, often characterized to differ from those of other employees in the working population as a result of their power and their unique responsibilities (e.g., Bernin, Theorell, & Sandberg, 2001), is not taken into consideration. In line with this, Kristensen, Bjørner, Christensen and Borg (2004) criticize how many researchers within the field of psychosocial work environment fail to recognize that the items used in scales measuring various job demands may function very differently for different jobs in the population. For example, they
point out how an assembly line worker may respond to high quantitative job demands, such as time pressure, by working faster, while “his boss will have little to win by talking faster on the phone” (Kristensen, et al., 2004, p. 308). Hence, work pace may have a quite different effect upon managers then upon other occupational groups, and, therefore, it may be problematic to compare the results of the present study of managers with studies focusing on the effects of work pace on employees in general.

Parent-Thirion and colleagues (2007) differentiate between managers and other occupational groups in their study, and their results reveal that senior managers experience particularly high levels of work pace compared to other employees. The study also revealed that high levels of work intensity, which in turn were strongly predicted by the pace of work, were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction among the employees in general (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). However, these researchers did not examine the direct effects of work pace upon the job satisfaction of managers specifically, and, therefore, the actual effect of work pace on satisfaction among these managers was not examined. Moreover, their study only focused on managers at senior and top levels of the organization, and thereby ignores managers with personnel responsibilities at lower levels of the organization who have more direct contact with employees and production processes.

At first sight, it may seem counter-intuitive that work pace, involving factors such as work tempo and time pressure, is not related to the mental health complaints and the job satisfaction of the managers with personnel responsibilities. However, a possible explanation is that managers with personnel responsibilities represent a group characterized by certain personal attributes which may help them cope with high levels of work pace. For instance, in his review of major findings concerning the nature of managerial work, Yukl (2010) describes the work pace of managers as hectic and unrelenting, and conclude that “In part, this work load can be traced to the preferences of people in managerial positions” (p. 23). In other words, people seeking managerial positions are likely to be aware of the high tempo and continuous time pressure which are intrinsic characteristics of such occupations, and, moreover, these characteristics may appeal to their type of personality and individual preferences. In line with this, Colbjørnsen, Drake and Haukedal (2001) found that although a majority of the Norwegian managers in their study experienced very high levels of workload and constant time pressure in their jobs, only five per cent of the managers reported symptoms of burnout
by reporting that they often consider going to work as a chore. Hence, high levels of work pace do not necessarily, in general, affect the health and satisfaction of managers as an occupational group. In line with this, hardiness, defined as “a generalized ability to use all available personal and environmental resources to most effectively perceive, interpret, and cope with stressful events”, (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983, p. 839) has shown to help managers cope with stress. For instance, in a study of managers working in particularly stressful environments, hardiness was nearly twice as effective in reducing the subsequent risk of health problems than were physical exercise and social support (Kobasa, Maddi, Puccetti, & Zola, 1986). Similarly, Luszczynsk and Cieslak (2005) argue that high levels of hardiness may protect managers from the negative impact of work stress on their well-being because of their appreciation of challenges.

The hypothesized relationships between downsizing and mental health complaints and between downsizing and job satisfaction among the managers in our study were not supported by our results. These findings are in contrast to some studies focusing on the role of downsizing in predicting the health and job satisfaction of managers at lower levels. For instance, in a longitudinal study conducted by Armstrong-Stassen (2005) in Canada, middle managers reported a greater sense of powerlessness and more threat of job loss, lower levels of job performance and significantly more health problems during downsizing than did senior managers. In the discussion of her results, Armstrong-Stassen (2005) point out that “Clearly, organizations considering downsizing their work force need to consider the impact on their middle managers and to take steps to address the issues of job insecurity, workload demands, coping strategies, job performance, and well-being” (p. 136). Similarly, Worrall, Parkes and Cooper (2004) found that downsizing processes involving redundancy and delayering were negatively related to aspects such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, motivation and loyalty as reported by the managers in their study. These researchers, further, concluded that changes involving redundancy and delayering often have more detrimental effects than other forms of organizational changes (Worrall, et al., 2004).

However, as a possible explanation for the lack of relationships between downsizing and the managers’ mental health complaints and job satisfaction in the present study, some researchers have pointed out that employees may experience downsizing as an opportunity instead of a threat (e.g., Svensen, Neset, & Eriksen, 2007). In line with this, a study by Collett
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(2004) revealed that many employees who have been targets of redundancy got other jobs as well as redundancy pay. Thus, in addition to receiving economic compensation, many employees may experience downsizing processes as an opportunity to choose a less stressful job or a job which provide new challenges. Moreover, in their study of 467 Norwegian employees working in a global oil company, Svensen and colleagues (2007) found that several aspects of the working environment, such as high levels of employee involvement and perceived corporate social responsibility, were associated with more positive attitudes towards organizational changes and redundancy among the respondents. Hence, in line with the results of the present study, downsizing procedures do not necessarily evoke health problems and job dissatisfaction among employees in organization.

Another possible explanation is the specific context in which this study has taken place. The Norwegian working life is unique in many ways, and Norwegian companies planning to downsize are confronted with a variety of laws, regulations and norms, aspects which have been largely neglected in many studies on downsizing (Østhus, 2007). For example, the purpose of the Norwegian Working Environment Act is to ensure equal treatment and safe working conditions for all employees, and, furthermore, to make sure that the working environment forms a basis for a meaningful and health-promoting work situation. More specifically, Dahl and Nesheim (1998) point out how the Working Environment Act imposes strict constraints on organizations that are planning to downsize. Similarly, Greenhalgh, Lawrence and Sutton (1988) argue that in countries and states where enacted legislation regulate organizations in such a manner as the Working Environment Act, less severe strategies for downsizing and workforce reduction will more frequently be used. This is illustrated in a study of Norwegian personnel managers from 23 different organizations, where interviews revealed that, for instance, one-third of the managers reported that “the Working Environment Act influenced downsizing through the choice of early retirement schemes rather then layoffs” (Dahl & Nesheim, 1998, p. 246). In other words, the legislation regulates layoffs by imposing various conditions and costs, and this often results in less brutal downsizing procedures. This may explain why Norwegian managers with personnel responsibilities, being both executioners and potential targets of downsizing, do not experience downsizing processes as health-impairing and antecedents of job dissatisfaction. However, as discussed earlier, such regulations may also function as antecedents of role conflict among the managers.
In line with the description above, some Norwegian studies have also found downsizing to be unrelated to such outcomes as health problems and job satisfaction. For instance, in his study of 1944 Norwegian employees, Østhus (2007) found that downsizing was neither related to occupational health problems nor job satisfaction when other relevant factors were controlled for. Additionally, his results revealed that, in general, highly educated people such as managers, senior officials, professionals and technicians were the occupational groups with the lowest levels of work related health problems and were the most satisfied with the nature of work (Østhus, 2007). This may further explain why several of the job demands and job resources applied in the present study are unsystematically related to the outcome variables examined. If Norwegian managers are generally more satisfied and experience less work related health problems than other occupational groups, it may be more difficult to identify aspects of their work situation which function as antecedents of health problems and dissatisfaction.

In line with our hypotheses, participative decision-making (PDM) was found to be negatively related to mental health complaints, while positively related to job satisfaction among the managers with personnel responsibilities. The findings are supported by several studies within the research literature. For instance, in a meta-study conducted by Spector (1986), high levels of participation at work were consistently found to be associated with lower levels of physical health problems, emotional distress and role stress, while positively related to job satisfaction among employees. Similarly, Slate and Vogel (1997) found that when the levels of participative decision-making increased among correctional officers in criminal justice organizations, the level of physical and occupational stress decreased. PDM was also found to be a strong predictor of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a longitudinal study by Scott-Ladd and colleagues (2006) among employees from five medium-sized organizations in Australia. As for managers with personnel responsibilities, the research literature seems to be rather limited with regard to the role of PDM as a job resource, and, moreover, few studies have specifically focused on PDM as a predictor of the mental health complaints and job satisfaction of this occupational group. Nevertheless, as supported by the present results, PDM seems to be a job resource of particular relevance for managers. In line with this notion, the *Fourth European Working Conditions Survey* revealed that individuals in managerial positions reported higher levels of influence over several aspects of their job, such as the ability to choose or change their methods of work and influence the choice of working
partners, than in any other occupational group in the survey (Parent-Thirion, et al., 2007). Moreover, in describing the results from their study of Norwegian managers, Colbjørnsen and colleagues (2001) point out that autonomy, control and the ability to influence their work situation and the functioning of the organization are aspects of managerial positions which are most highly valued by the managers.

As previously substantiated, a plausible explanation for the apparent influence of PDM in the workplace may be found in the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (1985), which emphasize that human beings have a basic need of autonomy. Similarly, when describing the JD-R model, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argue that the constructive role of job resources may often be explained by their potential to fulfill basic human needs. Thus, when employees are provided with reasons and choices concerning their work tasks, they are more interested and engaged in them, even after forms of surveillance and control are removed (Gagné, et al., 2006). Another explanation may be found in the concept of “value attainment”, which implies that PDM increases the opportunity of employees to influence the outcomes of their work, and, in this manner, they are able to obtain what they desire from their work environment. Moreover, it is argued that employees who perceive the outcomes of their work as desirable experience increased levels of job satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1997). In support of this notion, the findings in a study conducted by Obradovic, French and Rodgers (1970) indicate that the positive association between PDM and job satisfaction is stronger when employees believe that high levels of PDM will result in desired outcomes.

Contrary to our hypothesis, non-significant relationships were found between constructive leadership behaviour and the mental health complaints of the managers with personnel responsibilities. This is in contrast with the findings of some studies in the research literature which have found that leadership behaviour can prevent stress reactions and health impairment among subordinates. For instance, Karasek, Triantis and Chaudhry (1982) found that higher levels of both instrumental and emotional support from supervisor were associated lower levels of job strain among subordinates, measured by different indicators related to psychological health. Moreover, in a 360 degree investigation of 343 leaders, Offermann and Hellmann (1996) found that leadership behaviors characterized by work facilitation, approachability, team building, interest in subordinates growth and development of trust were negatively related to subordinates stress. However, despite the fact that several studies have found leadership behaviour to have an impact on the health of subordinates, other studies
indicate no such relationships (see Nyberg, et al., 2005 for a review). Hence, the research literature appears to be somewhat contradictory in relation to the importance of leadership in this respect, and, in line with our results, it seems that managers with personnel responsibilities do not experience constructive leadership behaviour as a health-promoting aspect of their work situation.

Nevertheless, the findings supported our hypothesis regarding a positive relationship between constructive leadership behaviour and job satisfaction among the managers in the study. Hence, the present study is in line with the notion of Nyberg and colleagues (2005), who, after reviewing previous research on the impact of leadership on employees, conclude that leadership behaviour seems to be an important predictor of subordinates’ job satisfaction across different countries, organizations and occupational groups. For instance, in his study of 1020 employees from two Swedish production plants, Arvonen (1995) found that those who perceived high levels of employee-oriented, production-oriented and change-oriented leadership styles among their superiors, which are the leadership dimensions measured in the present study, reported lower levels of job dissatisfaction than the other employees. Furthermore, in a study of Swedish nurses, employee-, production- and change-oriented leadership were found to be positively related to the nurses’ job satisfaction (Sellgren, Ekvall, & Tomson, 2008). Similarly, in a Norwegian study of 1201 employees from four organizations operating in different industries, Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) found that employees who perceived their superiors as exhibiting change-centered leadership reported higher levels of job satisfaction than did other employees in these organizations.

A possible explanation for the importance of constructive leadership behaviour in relation to the present managers’ job satisfaction is that managers may experience a particular preference for supervisors who are supportive, tolerant of their opinions and trust their abilities as contributors to the development of the organization. For example, as pointed out by Arvonen (1995), such constructive leadership behaviour may function as an important asset for managers “in a different way than is the case of production, where the design of the technical system and the work situation dictate that co-workers want a manager who plans, controls and instructs” (pp. 18-19). Similar notions have been made by Skogstad and Einarsen (1999), who found that Norwegian managers working in developmental cultures, referring to cultures which are flexible and external in their orientation and emphasize dynamic creativity and adaptability, assessed change-oriented leadership as an important predictor of a leader’s
competence while subordinates did not. More specifically, managers’ appreciation for superiors who are oriented towards change and production may, for example, reflect their strong motivation for contributing to the development and productiveness of the organization. As mentioned earlier, opportunity to create visible improvements and to be part of an organization in the forefront of its industry with regard to technology and production were considered very important motivational factors among a large majority of the managers in a Norwegian study (Colbjørnsen, et al., 2001). Hence, in contrast to the probable consequences of role conflicts, superiors enacting constructive leadership behaviours may satisfy the motivational needs of managers with personnel responsibilities.

Before discussing the hypothesized interaction effects, it should be mentioned that one of the control variables, namely age, was negatively related to mental health complaints, while positively related to job satisfaction among the studied managers. Similar results were found in the study of Norwegian managers conducted by Colbjørnsen and colleagues (2001), indicating that older managers at the midlevel of the organization tend to be more satisfied with their job than younger managers. As thoroughly substantiated in the present thesis, the work situation of managers is often very demanding and involves a wide variety of challenges and responsibilities. Given that younger managers have less experience and are more likely to face a variety of difficulties which they have never dealt with before, and, hence may have problems coping with, it can be argued that their health and satisfaction are more at risk than is the case for their senior colleagues. As pointed out by Colbjørnsen and colleagues (2001), older managers are likely to be well-adjusted to these work situations and to the expectations which define their role in the organization. Hence, they may feel more confident and knowledgeable, and therefore they are able to enjoy their situation and feel satisfied about the nature of their work. However, another likely explanation is that managers who experience health problems and job dissatisfaction as a result of their work situation are likely to leave their positions in order to find something else to do, while managers who do not experience such deteriorating consequences are the ones who continue in their positions. Hence, it may be rarer to find older managers who struggle with health problems and dissatisfaction in their work.

Regarding the hypothesized buffer effects of PDM and constructive leadership, only one of the six interactions tested in the present study showed significant contributions, namely the
interaction between role conflict and participative decision-making on managers’ mental health complaints and job satisfaction. In other words, the only support found for the buffering hypothesis postulated in by the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) is the buffering effect of participative decision-making upon the negative relationships between role conflict and the managers’ health complaints and job satisfaction. At first sight, it may be tempting to conclude that these results provide limited support for the buffering effect of job resources. However, when evaluating the confirmations, and disconfirmations, of the buffering hypothesis, it is important to take into consideration the lack of direct relationships between several of the job demands and the outcome variables in the present study. As previously mentioned, buffering refers to an interaction effect in which a job resource protects an individual from the potentially negative influence (e.g., reduced job satisfaction and/or increased health problems) of stressful events (S. Cohen & Wills, 1985). Similarly, in their “state-of-the-art” presentation of the JD-R model, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) point out that job resources may buffer the impact of job demands upon various adverse outcomes. Following this line of reasoning, a specific job demand should have an adverse effect on the outcome in the first place, which job resources, in the second place, may protect the employees from. In the present study, work pace as well as downsizing showed non-significant relationships with mental health complaints as well as job satisfaction. Hence, applying the same logic as presented above, the managers most probably cannot be protected by the actual job resources because there is “nothing or little” to be protected from. In compliance with this logic, significant interaction effects were found between role conflict and participative decision-making, being the job demand and the job resource showing the strongest direct relationships with the two outcomes in the present study. In sum, it is therefore reasonable to conclude that our results to a considerable degree support the buffering role of job resources as proposed in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

As for the significant interaction effect of role conflict and PDM upon managers’ job satisfaction and health, other studies have found similar results. For instance, Schuler (1977) found a moderating effect of PDM on the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction among 391 employees in a manufacturing factory. In describing this finding, Schuler (1977) point out that both role conflict and PDM are particularly important in relation to the information and feedback which employees have about the organization in which they work in and about the specific function they have as members of this organization. More
specifically, by participating in decision-making processes and influencing the goals and strategies which form the basis of their working conditions, employees may gain insight into prevalent expectations in the organization, and, moreover, may develop a clearer understanding for the rationale behind their work tasks. In line with this, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) point out that aspects in the work situation which make the reasons for the presence of a stressor more understandable or make stressors more controllable to employees have the potential to act as buffers in terms of the JD-R model. Hence, PDM may have a clarifying function upon the contradictory demands and expectations which often characterize managerial positions, and, thus, may reduce the uncertainty produced by high levels of role conflict (e.g., Morris, Steers, & Koch, 1979). As indicated by the results of the present study, role conflict represent a particularly influential job demand among managers with personnel responsibilities, and, therefore, knowledge about aspects in the work environment which may act as buffer in relation to this job demand may be of particular relevance for this occupational group.

**Limitations**

The present study is based on a representative sample of Norwegian managers with personnel responsibilities which strengthens the robustness and generalizability of the findings. Moreover, the study applies internationally recognized instruments with satisfactory psychometric properties (e.g., Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Rizzo, et al., 1970; Sandanger, et al., 1999), which to a large degree strengthen the validity of our findings and conclusions. However, some caution is needed when interpreting the results. For example, the study is based on cross-sectional data. Hence, one cannot draw conclusions about causal relationships, and a longitudinal study should be conducted to substantiate causal relationships between predictors and the criteria. Moreover, the present study is based on self-reports on predictors as well as outcomes, and, thus, common method variance is plausible (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). It should also be noticed that the response rate of 56.4 per cent might limit the generalizability of the findings, although the response rate falls well within the norm of 40 to 80 percent (Baruch, 1999). Furthermore, the study is based on data collected in Norway, and, as discussed previously, it is reasonable that several of our findings are strongly influenced by the Norwegian context. Hence, national and cultural variations between
contingencies of managers with personnel responsibilities in different countries are likely to exist, and therefore, generalization of the findings to international settings should be done with caution. Additionally, some caution should be taken when generalizing about managerial jobs. For instance, there are, of course, differences between the work environments and situations of the studied managers with, and, thus, the perceived importance of various job demands and job resources will vary among our respondents. Similar notions are made by Stewart (1982), who point out that managerial jobs may have several characteristics in common, such as some form of flexibility and influence over work-tasks, but, at the same time, there are important differences. In line with this, future studies should investigate managers with personnel responsibilities at different levels of the organization, because, as mentioned previously, the perceptions and realities of managers at higher and lower organizational levels are not necessarily identical (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen, 2005; Worrall, et al., 2004). Moreover, from our point of view, it would be fruitful to compare the experiences of managers with and without personnel responsibilities in relation to the job demands and job resources which are relevant for their health and job satisfaction.

**Implications**

The findings of the present study may have practical as well as scientific implications. In line with previous research, role conflict appears to be a particularly influential job demand among managers with personnel responsibilities, and, therefore, various efforts aimed at preventing and managing such conflicts should be emphasized in contemporary organizations. Such efforts may be implemented at both the individual and organizational level. For instance, in their study of managers in international joint ventures, Mohr and Puck (2007) emphasize that all structural measures aimed at improving communication and mutual trust between organizational members can reduce the levels of role conflict. More specifically, improved communication may increase the level of mutual understanding among various role senders, and, in this manner, demands and expectations among different organizational members and groups may become less ambiguous and contradictory. In reality, however, contradictory demands and expectations will always exist in organizations, irrespective of high levels of communication and mutual understanding. Therefore, it is also essential for managers with personnel responsibilities to acquire the skills and abilities needed to cope with role conflicts.
in their work situation. In a study of 410 managers and their responses to discrepant expectations, Tsui, Ashford, St. Clair and Xin (1995) found that effective managers apply a wide range of self-regulating strategies when confronted with contradictory demands. In line with their description, it may be fruitful for organization to offer training for managers related to adaptive self-regulation strategies.

According to the present results, PDM can have a direct positive influence upon the mental health and job satisfaction of managers with personnel responsibilities. Additionally, PDM appears to act as a buffer of the adverse effects of job demands such as role conflict. In light of this, it seems reasonable to suggest that organizations should, as far as possible, strive to involve their managers in decision-making processes and offer them influence over several aspects of their work situation. However, Kanter (1983) has proposed three necessary elements of a favorable participative situation. Firstly, employees themselves must want to be involved in the decision-making process. Participation in decision-making processes may be time-consuming and require a lot of the manager’s personal energy, and, thus, if the manager is not interested in participating, PDM may very well be considered as a burden rather than a resource. Secondly, employees must have the requisite skills and knowledge for making and influencing decisions. For example, in order for an offshore installation manager to participate in decisions regarding the work tasks and functions of employees, he or she must be familiar with relevant security procedures and policies. Thirdly, Kanter (1983) emphasizes that there must be sufficient time for discussion of issues and concerns. As an example, for obvious reasons, generals in high-risk military operations may not consult their soldiers about every decision, but need to provide clear orders and guidelines for their subordinates. In sum, it is therefore necessary for organizations to evaluate the specific situation and to consider these guidelines before increasing the levels of PDM for employees.

Finally, our results show that some of the applied job demands and job resources did not relate to the outcome variables as hypothesized. Hence, it is relevant to question whether alternative factors in managers’ work environment are more relevant in relation to their mental health and job satisfaction. For example, given that Norwegian managers experience high levels of workload and spend a majority of their personal energy on their job during the week (Colbjørnsen, et al., 2001; Strand, 2001), the role of work-family conflict as a potential job demand among managers with personnel responsibilities seems highly relevant.
Furthermore, there are several dimensions of leadership behaviour among superiors, other than the employee-production and change-oriented dimensions applied in the present study, which may function as job resources for managers with personnel responsibilities. For instance, leadership behaviour focusing on emotional support, involving empathic listening and genuine concern for the well-being of employees, may have quite a different effect upon subordinates than more instrumental styles leadership (e.g., Glasø & Einarsen, 2008; Van Emmerik, et al., 2009). Therefore, future studies may differentiate between various leadership dimensions in order to investigate the role of superiors’ behaviour upon the satisfaction and mental health of the type of managers investigated in the present study.

**Conclusion**

The present study contributes to the leadership literature by documenting job resources and job demands among managers with personnel responsibilities and their relationships with mental health complaints and job satisfaction within a JD-R model framework. The presented results substantiate that role conflict is a particularly significant job demand among managers as regards mental health and job satisfaction. Our study also shows that managers experience participation in decision-making processes as an important job resource which is related to their mental health and job satisfaction, both directly and as a buffer of the adverse relationships between role conflict and the two examined outcomes. Superiors’ constructive leadership behaviour was positively related to the managers’ job satisfaction, while not significantly related to their mental health complaints. Work pace and downsizing were neither related to managers’ mental health complaints nor to their job satisfaction. Hence, organizational efforts aimed at preventing and managing role conflicts and at involving managers in decision-making processes should, particularly, be emphasized.

The work situation of managers with personnel responsibilities can be both demanding and characterized by several resources, and, as illustrated by the present study, the JD-R model provides a useful theoretical framework for the examination of the investigated predictors and criteria. Given that managers represent a relatively large occupational group, knowledge about the factors related to their mental health and job satisfaction could be of value to numerous people. In line with this, research focusing on job demands and job resources in managerial
occupations and their direct effect upon managers, and plausible indirect effects upon other organizational members, should be encouraged. The present study yields several directions for future studies. Among these, research should examine a wider range of job demands and job resources among managers, and apply longitudinal research designs in order to conclude on causal relationships. Finally, future studies should examine different groups of managers within a JD-R model framework.
References


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### APPENDIX I

**Summary of Items and Factor loadings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constructive leadership behaviours of immediate superior during the last six months</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Encouraged innovative thinking</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Given recognition for good performance</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Been a driving force for development</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Clearly defined goals and objectives for the work</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Clearly defined and explained the work assignments for you and your coworkers</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Been flexible and open to new ways of thinking</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Summary of items and factor loadings for Oblimin exploratory factor analysis (Eigenvalue > 1) of the six items measuring constructive leadership behaviour.
APPENDIX II

Questionnaire
Hvilke type handlinger eller klanderverdige forhold gjorde det nødvendig å varsle? Flere kryss mulig.

1. Brudd på sikkerhet ..............................................
2. Grove økonomiske misligheter/tyveri ...............
3. Trakasserende atferd mot andre ....................... 
4. Grov illojalitet mot organisasjonen/driften .........
5. Grov omsorgssvikt, vanskjevel eller feilbehandling 
6. Annet .................................................................

Hvem utførte den kritikkverdige handlingen? Velg ett alternativ.

1. En kollega ...........................................................
2. En underordnet ..................................................  
3. En overordnet ....................................................
4. Flere kolleger ....................................................
5. Flere underordnede ...........................................
6. Flere overordnede .............................................
7. Flere under- og overordnede ...............................

Ble den kritikkverdige eller ulovlige handlingen varslet innad i organisasjonen, eller til en utenforstående person/instans?

1. Kun innad ...........................................................
2. Kun utad ...........................................................
3. Først innad, så utad ...........................................
4. Først utad, så innad ...........................................

Hvordan varslet du?

1. Tok initiativ og varslet på egen hånd ...................
2. Vi var flere som varslet sammen ........................

Hva skjedde med de kritikkverdige eller ulovlige forholdene etter at de var blitt varslet? Velg ett alternativ.

1. Ble avsluttet umiddelbart ....................................
2. Ble midlertidig avsluttet ....................................
3. Ble reduert .....................................................
4. Forble uendret .................................................
5. Økte .............................................................
6. Vet ikke ........................................................

Hva skjedde med personene som stod bak de kritikkverdige eller ulovlige forholdene? Flere kryss mulig.

1. Fikk irettesettelse fra organisasjonens styre/ledelse
2. Omplasset/degradert ...........................................
3. Forlot organisasjonen ........................................
4. Oppsagt/avskjediget ...........................................
5. Ingenting ........................................................
6. Ble forfremmet .................................................
7. Vet ikke ........................................................

Hva skjedde med deg etter at du varslet? Flere kryss mulig.

1. Ingenting ........................................................
2. Ble belønnet ....................................................
3. Ble straffet av arbeidskollegaer ...........................
4. Ble straffet av ledelse/styre ............................... 

Informasjon om spørreskjemaet

I dette spørreskjemaet skal du vurdere hvordan du opplever ditt arbeidsmiljø, din helse og deg selv som person.


Bruk blå eller svart penn. Skriver du feil, sverter du ut svaret som ikke gjelder slik: [ ]

Lykke til med uttyllingen!

Takk for intervjuet!
Om deg

1. Alder □ □ □ år
2. Kjønn
   1. Mann  □
   2. Kvinne □
3. Sivilstand
   1. Ugift ..........................................................
   2. Gift ...........................................................
   3. Samboer ....................................................
   4. Enkelt/kommet ...........................................
   5. Skilt ..........................................................
   6. Separert ....................................................

Om yrke og arbeidstid

Utvalget i denne undersøkelsen er trukket fra Statistisk sentralbyrås yrkesregister, men fordi registeret kan inneholde feil ønsker vi likevel å spørre deg om yrket ditt. Vennligst fyll inn informasjon og kryss av for det svaralternativet som best beskriver din situasjon.

4. Er du for tiden i arbeid?
   1. Ja, i full stilling .............................................
   2. Ja, i deltidsstilling ...........................................
   3. Ja, men jeg er sykemeldt .................................
   4. I lønnet permisjon ..............................................
   5. Er på attføring .................................................
   6. Nei, jeg er ufaretrygdet .....................................
   7. Nei, jeg er arbeidsledig ......................................
   8. Nei, jeg er pensionert .......................................  

Takk for intervjuet!

Om seksuell oppmerksomhet og seksuelle tilnærmelser

Beskriv dine erfaringer fra din arbeidsplass eller andre steder der ansatte i din virksomhet har vært samlet (for eksempel julebord, fester, kurs osv.) de siste 6 månedene.

Hvor mange ganger har du i løpet av de siste 6 månedene blitt utsatt for:

1. Uønskede kommentarer angående din kropp, din klesdrakt eller livsstil       
2. Andre uønskede verbale kommentarer med seksuelt innhold, f.eks. vitser eller kjønnsdiskriminerende uttalelser .................................................................
3. Bilder eller objekter av seksuell art som var uønsket fra din side eller opplevdes ubehagelig for deg .................................................................
4. At det er spredt seksuelle rykter om deg ......................................................
5. Seksuelt ladet stirring eller andre ubehagelige blikk ....................................
6. Uønskede telefonopprinnings eller brev med seksuelt innhold ..................
7. Uønsket fysisk kontakt med seksuelle undertoner, som f.eks. klappende, klyping, klåing eller ofteavføljen...........................................................
8. Uønskede seksuelle tilnærmelser som du opplevde som ubehagelig, men som ikke inneholdt løfte om belønninger eller trusler om straff eller sankjoner ..............................................
9. Uønskede forespørsler/krav om seksuelle tjenester med løfte om belønning ...
10. Uønskede forespørsler/krav om seksuelle tjenester med trusler om straff eller sankjoner ved avvisning .................................................................

11. Seksuelt overgrep, forskåp på voldtekts eller faktisk voldtekts ...........................................................

Hvor mange ansatte er det i din avdeling/enhet?

1-3 ansatte □
4-19 ansatte □
20-49 ansatte □
50 eller flere ansatte □

Hvor mange timer arbeider du vanligvis per uke? □ Timer

Hvilken yrke har du?

1. Dagarbeid (mellom kl. 6 og 18) ...........................................................
2. Fast kveldsarbeid (mellom kl. 18 og 22) .............................................
3. Fast nattarbeid (mellom kl. 22 og 6) ..................................................
4. Turnusordning ..............................................................................
5. To-skiftsarbeid ...........................................................................
6. Tre-skiftsarbeid, helkontinuerlig ...................................................
7. Tre-skiftsarbeid, dagkontinuerlig ...................................................
8. Annen arbeidstidsordning, spesifiser: ...........................................

Alder

1. Alder □ □ □ år
2. Kvinne □
3. Mann □

Hvordan føler du deg når du varsler?

1. Veldig sannsynlig  □
2. Ganske sannsynlig □
3. Nåværende, men ingenhet □
4. Aldri □

Med utgangspunkt i definisjonen over, har du en eller flere ganger tatt på deg som varsler?

1. Nei □
2. Ja, i høy grad □
3. Ja, i viss grad □
4. Aldri □

Om varsling på jobben


Med utgangspunkt i definisjonen over, har du en eller flere ganger tatt på deg som varsler?

1. Nei □
2. Ja, ved en anledning □
3. Ja, ved to eller flere anledninger □

Hvor lenge er det siden varslingen fant sted?

1. Aldri □ □ □ år □ □ □ måned
2. En gang □ □ □ år □ □ □ måned
3. 2-5 ganger □ □ □ år □ □ □ måned
4. 6-ganger eller mer □ □ □ år □ □ □ måned

Takk for intervjuet!
Om endringer i din organisasjon

I hvor stor grad har følgende hendelser forekommet i din organisasjon i løpet av de siste 12 månedene? Krys av for det svaralternativet som best beskriver din virksomhet:

1. Nedskjæringer i antall arbeidstakere ................................................................. Aldri 1 I liten grad 2 I noen grad 3 I stor grad 4
2. Permitteringer ........................................................................................................ 1 2 3 4
3. Budgetnedskjæringer ............................................................................................ 1 2 3 4
4. Teknologiske endringer (f.eks. endringer i utstyr, verktøy eller metoder som benyttes i arbeidet) ............................................................. 1 2 3 4
5. Endringer mht. hvem som utfører hvilke arbeidsoppgaver ................................ 1 2 3 4
6. Innføring av nye systemer for lønn og belønningsplaner ................................ 1 2 3 4
7. Endringer i ledelsen (dvs. nye personer i viktige stillinger) ................................. 1 2 3 4
8. Endringer på eiersiden (dvs. nye eiere, oppkjøp av eierandeler mv.) .............. 1 2 3 4
9. Omstrukturering (sammenslåing/oppsplitting av afdelinger og divisjoner innad i virksomheten) ............................................................... 1 2 3 4
10. Sammenslåing med andre virksomheter (fusjon) eller oppsplitting i flere nye virksomheter .......................................................... 1 2 3 4
11. Omskifting av overordnede mål og strategier ..................................................... 1 2 3 4
12. Lønnskutt eller lønnsstopp .................................................................................. 1 2 3 4
13. Endringer i sammensetning av arbeidstokken (flere deltidsansatte, flere innelede etc.) ................................................................. 1 2 3 4

Om usikkerhet i jobben

I hvilken grad er du enig i følgende påstander vedrørende din jobb?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stemmer helt</th>
<th>Stemmer stort sett ikke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aldri</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeg ønsker meg for å måtte forlate jobben min før jeg havneke tenkt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det er en sjanse for at jeg vil måtte forlate jobben min i løpet av det kommende året</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeg er redd for at jeg kommer til å miste jobben min i nærmeste framtid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeg synes at mine framtidsutviklinger innen organisasjonen er gode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mine muligheter for å finne nye og utviklende arbeidsplasser innen organisasjonen er gode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeg tror at organisasjonen kommer til å trene min kompetanse også i framtiden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Den lønnsutvikling jeg kan se fram mot i organisasjonen er lovende</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Det er sannsynlig at jeg i løpet av de neste 12 måneder vil prøve å skaffe meg en ny jobb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Om trivsel og arbeidsoppgaver

Kryss av for det svaralternativet som best beskriver din situasjon:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aldri</th>
<th>Uenig</th>
<th>Verken enig eller uenig</th>
<th>Enig</th>
<th>Helt enig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Må du arbeide svært raskt?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Må du arbeide ekstra hardt for å bli ferdig med dine oppgaver?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arbeidsdagene ser aldri ut til å ha noen ende</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Jeg opplever virkelig glede i mitt arbeid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Jeg synes jobben min er ganske ubehagelig</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Jeg tror at organisasjonen kommer til å trene min kompetanse også i framtiden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. At man har kritisert deg som person (for eksempel dine vaner eller førerkunnskap)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. At det er blitt spreidt sladder eller rykter om deg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. At man har kritisert deg som person (for eksempel dine vaner eller førerkunnskap)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Får du delta i beslutninger som får innvirkning på områder som berører din arbeid?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Om uønskede handlinger

Hvilken uønskede handlinger eller negative situasjoner har du blitt utsatt for på arbeidsplassen de siste 6 månedene? Kryss av for det svaralternativet som best beskriver din situasjon:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aldri</th>
<th>Av og til</th>
<th>Månedlig</th>
<th>Ukentlig</th>
<th>Daglig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Tilbakeholdelse av nødvendig informasjon slik at jobben ble vanskeliggjort</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Blitt ydmykt eller ettergitt i forbindelse med jobben</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Blitt satt til arbeid under ditt kompetansesivå</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Blitt frattet ansvarsfull arbeidsplass, eller satt til å gjøre trivielle eller ubehagelige arbeidsplasser</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. At det er blitt spredt sladder eller rykter om deg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Blitt oversatt eller utsatt på grunn av et sosiale forskjell</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. At man har kritisert deg som person (for eksempel dine vaner eller førerkunnskap)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Blitt utskjelt eller utsatt for spontane raseriutbrudd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Krenkende oppførsel (som at du blir pekt på, dyttet, hindret i din fordel, &quot;vist fingelen&quot; o.s.v.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Hint eller henvisninger fra andre om å slutte i jobben</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Gjentatte påminnelser om tabber eller feil du har gjort</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(forts.) Hvilke uønskede handleringer eller negative situasjoner har du blitt utsatt for på arbeidsplassen de siste 6 månedene?

1. Kun noen uker ......................
2. En sjelden gang ....................
3. Av og til ................................
4. Omtrent en gang i uken ..........
5. Flere ganger pr. uke ..............

Over hvor lang periode har mobbningen foregått?

1. Kun noen uker..............
2. 2-3 måneder ....................
3. 4-5 måneder ....................
4. Mellom 6 mind. og 1 år .........
5. Mellom 1 og 2 år ..............
6. Mer enn 2 år ...................

Hvor mange var det som mobbet deg?

Antall menn: Antall kvinner: .........

Hvem mobbet deg?

1. Din nærmeste overordnede ..............
2. Andre ledere i virksomheten ..........
3. Arbeidskollega(er) ....................
4. Underordnede ........................
5. Kunder/klienter/pasienter, elevene osv.
6. Andre ...................................

Om mobbing på arbeidsplassen

Mobbing (for eksempel trakasserering, plagning, utfrykting eller sårede erting og fleping) er et problem på en del arbeidsplasser og for en del arbeidstakere. Vi vil gjerne vite hvordan dette er på din arbeidsplass. For at vi skal kunne kalle noe mobbing, må det forekomme gjentatte ganger over en viss tidsperiode, og den som blir mobbet har vansker med å forsvare seg. Vi snakker ikke om mobbing dersom to omtrent like "sterke" personer kommer i konflikt eller det kun dreier seg om en enkeltstående episode. Kryss av for det svaralternativet som best passer din situasjon:

1. Nei .....................................
2. En sjelden gang .................
3. Av og til ..............................
4. Omtrent en gang i uken .........
5. Flere ganger pr. uke .............

Har du selv vært utsatt for mobbing på arbeidsplassen i løpet av de siste 6 månedene?

→ Hvis nei, gå til 15a

1. Nei .....................................
2. Ja .....................................

Kan du anslå hvor mange dager av dette fraværet som skyldes stress og belastninger i arbeidet?

1. Gjennomfarts-perioden har du vært borte fra arbeidet i løpet av de siste 6 månedene på grunn av stress og belastninger.
2. Antall dager: .........

Om helse og velvære

Nedenfor er det en liste over vanlige symptomer eller helseproblemer. Vurder hvor mye hvert av de følgende symptomer har vært til plage eller ulempe for deg siste syv dager, til og med i dag.

1. Plutselig skremt uten grunn .................................................
2. Engstelig .................................................................
3. Svimmelhet eller en fornemmelse av at du skal besvime .........
4. Nervøs eller urolig ......................................................
5. Hjertebank ..............................................................
6. Skjelvning ..............................................................
7. Anspret eller opphisset ..................................................
8. Hodepine ..............................................................
9. Anfall av redsel eller oppfarenhet ....................................
10. Rastløshet, kan ikke sitte rolig ......................................
11. Slapp og uten energi ...................................................
12. Anklager deg selv for ting .............................................
13. Har lett for å gråte ....................................................
14. Tap av seksuell interesse eller opplevelse .....................
15. Dårlig appetitt ...........................................................
16. Vansklig for å sove .....................................................
17. Følelse av hårløshet for fremtiden ..............................
18. Nedfor .................................................................
19. Følelse av ensomhet ...................................................
20. Har tanker om å ta ditt eget liv .....................................
21. Følelse av å være fanget .............................................
22. Bekymre deg for mye ................................................
23. Får ikke interesse for noe ............................................
24. Får alt krer stor anstrengelse ........................................
25. Ikke noe verdtværlas

Hvor mange dager har du vært borte fra arbeidet siste 12 månedene pga. sykdom?

1. Antall dager: .........

Kan du anslå hvor mange dager av dette fraværet som skyldes stress og belastninger i arbeidet?

1. Antall dager: .........
Vurder påstandene under om kontakt med andre mennesker:

Del 2: Ting du er eller gjør for mye overfor andre:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likke i det hele tatt</th>
<th>Lit</th>
<th>Moderat</th>
<th>Ganske mye</th>
<th>Veldig mye</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28. Jeg holder folk for mye på avstand...........</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Jeg er for mistenksom overfor andre........</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Jeg er for redd for andre mennesker.........</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Jeg stoler for mye på andre mennesker.......</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Jeg er for åpen overfor andre mennesker....</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Jeg argumenterer for mye med andre..........</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Jeg fører meg for ofte til å utnytte andre mennesker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Jeg lar meg for lett overlate av andre mennesker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Jeg lar for ofte andres behov gå foran mine egne</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Jeg prøver i for høy grad å forandre andre mennesker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Jeg ønsker for mye å bli lagt merke til.......</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Jeg krangler for mye med andre mennesker...</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Jeg er overdrevent sjenerøs mot andre mennesker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Jeg er sterkt overfor andre mennesker.......</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Jeg er for sterkt overfor andre mennesker..</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Jeg er for sterkt å tekkes andre mennesker</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Jeg argumenterer for mye for å oppnå det jeg vil</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Jeg forteller for mye om personlige ting til andre</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Jeg er for åpen overfor andre mennesker....</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Jeg er for åpen overfor andre mennesker....</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Jeg troller og tøyrer for mye ...............</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kryss av for det svaralternativet som best passer din

Om konflikter på arbeidsplassen

Med konflikt mener vi at man føler seg forhindret av eller frustrert over en annen person eller gruppe. Dette kan dreie seg om alt fra uenigheter om saker til sterke personlige motsetninger, eller at man synes noen opptrer slik at de ødelegger din

Med konflikt mener vi at man føler seg forhindret av eller frustrert over en annen person eller gruppe. Dette kan dreie seg om alt fra uenigheter om saker til sterke personlige motsetninger, eller at man synes noen opptrer slik at de ødelegger din

Hvor mange år/måneder er det siden mobbningen forekom? 

Hvor lenge varte dette? 

Har andre blitt utsatt for mobbing på din arbeidsplass de siste 6 månedene?

Har du de siste 6 månedene opptrådt slik at andre kan ha følt seg mobbet på din arbeidsplass?

Vi vet at mange barn i dag blir mobbet og plaget på skolen. Hvordan var dette da du var barn? Ble du selv utsatt for mobbing over lengre tid (minst en måned) da du gikk i grunnskolen?

Om nærmeste ledere

Har du opplevd at din nærmeste overordnede i løpet av de siste 6 månedene...
Om kontakt med andre mennesker

I dette spørsmålet finner du en rekke påstander som knytter seg til problemer folk kan oppleve å ha i kontakt med andre mennesker. Påstandene er delt i to deler: Den første delen knytter seg til ting man kan ha vanskelig for overfor andre, og den siste delen knytter seg til ting man kan gjøre eller er for mye av for overfor andre. Vurder hver påstand og krys av for det svaralternativet som best beskriver deg som person.

Vurder påstandene under om kontakt med andre mennesker:

Del 1: Ting du har vanskelig for:

1. Gi direkte uttrykk for mine følelser overfor andre ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
2. Holde ting hemmelig for andre mennesker ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
3. La en annens behov komme foran mitt eget ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
4. Vise andre mennesker at jeg er glad i dem ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
5. Be en person om å sluette å plage meg ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
6. Tillate meg å kjønne meg sint på noen jeg liker ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………...
7. Delta i gruppe 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