Summer 8-24-2024

Grieving Workers, Leadership Support, and Organizational Commitment

Zachary N. Ngo
DePaul University, zngo@depaul.edu

Grieving Workers, Leadership Support, and Organizational Commitment

A Thesis Defense

Presented in

Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

By

Zachary Norman Ngo

July 8, 2024

Department of Psychology

College of Science and Health

DePaul University

Chicago, Illinois

Thesis Committee

Shelly Rauvola, PhD, Chair

Verena Graupmann, PhD

Table of Contents

Abstract

Grief is a universal experience, yet the industrial-organizational psychology literature is sparse with research on bereavement at work. When individuals do undergo the loss of a loved one, research has shown that support is instrumental in recovery outside of workplace contexts. The present study examined the relationship between an individual's level of grief and their commitment to their organization while also investigating how the level of supervisor support moderates the aforementioned relationship. I hypothesized that there would be a significant, negative relationship between level of grief and organizational commitment. Further, I also hypothesized that perceived supervisor support would moderate the effect of level of grief on organizational commitment. Using 297 participants recruited from DePaul University's SONA system, social media snowball sampling, and Prolific, the study adopted a cross-sectional survey design to test these hypotheses. However, neither of my hypotheses were supported and instead, an exploratory analysis found that supervisor support significantly predicted organizational commitment. The study helps expand the minimal research done on grieving at work and helps us better understand the importance of leadership support.

Keywords: grief, bereavement, organizational commitment, supervisor support, leadership support

Grieving Workers, Leadership, and Organizational Commitment

Since the start of the Covid-19 Pandemic in 2020, 1,123,836 individuals have tragically lost their lives in the United States alone (CDC, 2024; John Hopkins University, 2023), leaving the lives of bereaved individuals (i.e., surviving relatives and loved ones; Cutcliffe, 2002) fundamentally changed. The staggering loss of life because of COVID-19 does not include the approximately three million individuals who die annually in unrelated deaths (e.g., gun violence, car accidents; CDC, 2024). Although it is difficult to put that immense loss of life into perspective, these numbers are far more than just a statistic. Instead, these statistics comprise the loved ones of many individuals, where each death leads to an average of five bereaved individuals (Hensley & Clayton, 2008). Loss can leave behind emotional and mental scars in bereaved individuals along with significant financial stress and physiological issues (Corden & Hirst, 2013). In terms of the economy, bereavement in the workforce costs the United States an estimated $75 billion annually (James & Friedman, 2003). Despite undergoing a significant loss, most companies (88%) only offer three to five days of paid bereavement leave with no federal laws mandating bereavement policies in the workplace (Mallick, 2020). Research suggests that this amount of bereavement leave is highly inadequate and inflexible, which does not consider the fluidity of grieving across cultures and religions (James & Friedman, 2003; Rezenbrink, 2002). Even with the widespread salience of death and related outcomes, grief is still very taboo in the United States (Harris, 2010).

In the following sections, I present an overview of the research that has been done and theories that have been established to offer context for the present project. First, I begin by defining grief and bereavement followed by a discussion of grief-related research in social contexts. Next, I outline related research regarding negative emotions in the workplace,

emotional labor, and work-life spillover, given their relevance to the subjects of grief and work. I then examine the limited research that has been done regarding grief in workplace contexts. After a review of the literature around workplace leadership, leadership support, and organizational commitment, I describe my hypothesized results and offer a model that shows how leadership support may protect against a grieving individuals' decrease in organizational commitment.

Literature Review

Grief and Bereavement

Grief is a highly variable construct with many interwoven and diverse perspectives. Grief is often defined as the emotional response an individual has to a loss (Stroebe, 1993), which can vary across cultures (Stroebe & Schut, 2010) and between individuals (Bonanno & Kaltman, 2001). Further, like James and Friedman (2003), emphasize that grief is an emotional rather than an intellectual process. Akin to Stroebe and Schut (2010), Rosenblatt (1988) highlights the importance of understanding the context where we see grief. Recently, some authors have proposed extensions to the conceptualization of grief purely as an emotional response. For example, grief could also be conceptualized as the behavioral and cognitive responses one has after a loss (Maitlis, 2019). Using principles of cognitive neuroscience, O'Connor and Seeley (2022) propose that grief is a form of learning in which memories in the hippocampus (i.e., area of the brain responsible for memory) are in conflict. Ultimately, these definitions of grief are not in opposition, but are instead complimentary to one another.

Given the variability of grief across cultural contexts, the present study utilized a sample of United States residents. In addition, grief was defined as an emotional, behavioral, and cognitive response to a loss. Recently, in the field of clinical psychology, prolonged grief was

added to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM), identified as grief lasting over a year (APA, 2021). Given how dynamic and adaptive of a process grief can be, there is pushback against clinical diagnoses related to grief. For example, Engel (1994) and Stroebe et al. (2001) argue that grief should not be considered a disease or illness and encourage clinicians to be cautious about DSM labels of grief. In fact, research has shown that relationships can continue with a deceased loved one, with bereaved individuals holding onto these connections (Klass et al.,1996). With these arguments in mind, the present study examined general grief as opposed to specific, grief-related disorders.

Where grief is seen as a response, bereavement has been defined as the experience of adjusting one's identity and lifestyle in response to undergoing the grieving process (Cutcliffe, 2002). There is little consensus in the industrial and organizational psychology literature on how long grief lasts, which is due to the variability of bereavement. However, the estimated time for recovery is one to two years for grieving individuals (Bonanno & Kaltman, 2001; Zhang et al., 2006). To add further context, the amount of time one grieves appears to be dependent on one's coping techniques, coinciding stressors, cultural membership, and loss history (Klass et al., 1996; Stroebe et al., 2001; Worden, 2009). Further, bereavement does not have a discrete endpoint and could go on indefinitely after loss at varying intensities (Parkes, 1997). As one author puts it, bereavement is a continuity break that fundamentally changes our sense of self and the world around us (Renzenbrink, 2002).

Grief in Social Contexts

Grief has been studied in a variety of social contexts. Rosenblatt (1998) emphasizes the importance of how one's social reality and family dynamics shape the way the grieving process occurs. In a study with college students, the analyses uncovered that grief had significant and

detrimental effects on students' sleep, self-esteem, academic performance, job performance and interpersonal relationships (Balk et al., 2010; Hardison et al., 2005; Servaty-Seib & Hamilton, 2006; Taub & Servaty-Seib, 2008). However, perceived social support was shown to be a buffer for these adverse effects. A related study found that college student's level of closeness and sense of college community significantly predicted the length of their grief (McNally et al., 2021).

Grief highlights one's individualism, creating boundaries from others (Balk et al., 1993). When an employee is grieving, the employee may face stigmatization due to being seen as an outsider or having their differences highlighted by others (Link and Phelan, 2001). Harris (2010) describes the phenomenon of the constriction of grief experiences in Western society where social pressure stifles the expression of grief. When grieving the loss of a loved one, researchers describe the grieving process as a threat to one's attachment network (Parkes, 1981, 1997; Weiss, 2001). Individuals seek out social support from others for comfort following a loss to their social system. To maintain their social system, individuals may feel forced to conform to social norms to avoid exclusion in a concept referred to as social pain (MacDonald & Leary, 2005). Social pain motivates norm compliance in both partner and group relationships because deviating from these norms could result in ostracism (Wurmser, 1981). The amount of social adjustment following a loss depends on the nature of the relationship. For example, co-dependent relationships like the loss of a spouse may require a significantly greater amount of readjustment (Holmes and Rahe, 1967). The idea of social pain and Western attitudes of grief work in tandem to promote disenfranchised grief, which may prolong the bereavement process further.

Negative Emotions and Moods in the Workplace

Although grief as an emotion has not been studied thoroughly in the industrial and organizational psychology literature, emotions in the workplace have garnered a lot of attention. Emotions interfere with an individual's thoughts and are usually tied to specific events and stimuli (Frijda, 1993; Zajonc, 1998). In contrast, moods are more generalized and do not disrupt cognition (Clark & Isen, 1982; Thayer, 1989). Additionally, affective events theory explains that workplace events elicit emotional reactions from employees (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Further, affect spin describes that there are individual differences that affect emotional reactions and their variability over time (Beal et al., 2013). General findings have demonstrated that emotions (e.g., grief) have significant effects on one's job satisfaction and performance (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Specifically, individuals with negative emotions may tend to isolate themselves from coworkers (George & Jones, 1996), react with more extreme emotions (Brief et al., 1995), show increased absenteeism (Pelled & Xin, 1999), and have higher turnover intentions (George, 1989).

Different occupations have varying levels of exposure to occupational hazards, including negative emotional events. In a study looking at nurses working with AIDS patients, the amount of exposure nurses had with AIDS patients was related to how negative their mood was at work (George et al., 1993). However, both organizational and social support moderated the relationship between exposure to AIDS patients and nurses' negative mood. This previous study is a great illustration of Ashkanasy's (2003) model, which outlines how changes in an individual over time (e.g., affect spin; Beal et al., 2013), interactions with others, team dynamics, leadership, and organizational factors are interrelated across varying levels. It also demonstrates

how emotional requirements may be inherent to one's position, which I discuss in the following sections (Grandey, 2003).

Emotional Labor

Emotional labor is a broad term that encapsulates mental processes, environmental factors, and behaviors related to the expression of emotion (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Many occupations enforce emotional requirements, which ask employees to display certain, desired emotions (e.g., happiness) while avoiding other, undesired emotions (e.g., sadness, anger) around others (Grandey, 2003). Emotional requirements are one aspect of emotional labor, the idea that discrepancies between one's felt emotions and organizational emotional display rules (Ekman, 1973) are compared and then regulated by an individual to mitigate discrepancies (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Grandey 2000). Emotional labor, originally identified by Hochschild (1983), was described as the management of observable facial and bodily displays of emotions to be in accordance with public and wage expectations in the workplace. Hochschild was inspired by cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), a seminal theory in social psychology that outlines how behaviors incongruent with one's personal attitudes result in psychological conflict. The purpose of emotional labor is to sway the feelings of others to get a desired workplace outcome and in the effort to persuade, one may use emotional regulatory strategies to put on a façade of an unfelt emotion or suppress emotions that are unprofessional or ill-suited (Gross, 1998). Research has shown that when emotional labor increases, so does job dissatisfaction and employee burnout (Diefendorff et al. 2006; Erickson & Wharton, 1997; Mesmer-Magnus et al., 2012). Emotional labor can also be seen as consuming or enhancing mental and emotional resources (Brotheridge & Lee 2002). Emotional labor is not an inherently negative concept, as there are benefits to engaging in emotional labor such as monetary resources, improvements to

mood, and social capital (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). From the perspective of conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), individuals desire to gain and maintain resources, which can be abstract (e.g., motivation) or tangible (e.g., money). When individuals lose these resources, the theory postulates that stress will result. Similarly, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) state that self-regulatory resources may become depleted when employees engage in emotional labor.

Emotion Regulation

Recently, researchers in the industrial and organizational psychology literature have turned their attention to emotion regulation, defined as the process of controlling the emotions they experience (Gross, 1998). Stemming from social psychology, emotion regulation involves conscious and effortful and unconscious and effortless tactics of individuals to control emotion (Gross & Thompson, 2007). When individuals engage in emotional labor, they choose between emotion regulation tactics (Hochschild, 1983). First, surface acting involves feigning emotional expressions without attempting to change one's internal feelings (e.g., forcing a smile). In contrast, deep acting involves a genuine attempt to create congruent feelings to align with their displayed emotions in what is more commonly referred to as method acting (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Differences in emotion regulation strategies become more apparent in daily occurrences overtime. In a two-week daily diary study, surface acting was shown to be related to worsening psychological and physical health, but deep acting did not lead to adverse effects (Riforgiate et al., 2022).

Emotion regulation is complex and dynamic, not only in individuals but its theoretical foundation. In a review of the control theory model of emotional labor, Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) identified twelve propositions to advance the literature and offer a more dynamic and contextual model of emotional labor. In their propositions, they outline how

emotion regulation is related to low job performance, low job satisfaction, low intrinsic motivation, and high burnout. Further, unanticipated events (e.g., the sudden passing of a loved one) are related to further emotional discrepancies than anticipated events. Subsequent research has offered more nuanced understandings of emotion regulation. Referring to the misconceptions around emotional labor and consequently emotion regulation, a meta-analysis found that deep acting lead to stronger emotional performances (i.e., observable emotions that align with emotional requirements; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015) and customer satisfaction (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Surface acting was still shown to be negatively related to well-being and job attitudes. Notably, the findings of the meta-analyses support the later findings of Refrigerate et al. (2022). Adding further complexity to the concept of emotion regulation, Grandey and Melloy (2017) point out that how one engages in emotional labor is additionally affected by individual differences and workplace contexts.

Work-Life Spillover

The research on emotional labor often focuses on emotion regulation as an outcome to demands in and around the workplace. However, emotion regulation is not limited to the workplace, with possible antecedents stemming from stimuli outside of work. Emotional experiences from other life domains, such as marital conflict, have been shown to spill over into the workplace (Hersey, 1932), signifying that events outside of work cannot simply be disregarded by organizations. Piotrowski (1978) goes on to say that these domains have a mutual effect and influence on one another with empirical support demonstrating that emotion regulation at work was correlated with work-family conflict (Wagner et al. 2014; Yanchus et al. 2010). Williams et al. (1991) observed that when employed mothers reported that they were simultaneously balancing multiple roles, they experienced immediate, negative effects on their

mood. Eventually, individuals became habituated to multiple role juggling overtime. Later when examining employed parents, Williams and Alliger (1994) found that negative moods spilled over from family to work, with positive moods rarely spilling over. More often, stressors (e.g., death of a loved one), lead to reduced performance in the workplace (Bhagat, 1983).

In the National Study of the Changing Workforce in 1997, working mothers reported experiencing more negative family-to-work spillover than working fathers (Dilworth, 2004). Interestingly, family life satisfaction was one of the largest predictors of family-to-work spillover whereas caring for children and household chores were not significant. Schmidt (2011), using data from the 2008 National Study of the Changing Workforce, found that personal and family life stress (e.g., grieving) was the most significant predictor of negative spillover in men and women. Recently, there has also been an increase in the amount of employed college students worldwide, presenting a unique challenge of balancing school, work, and their personal lives (Choo et al., 2021). In a review of the literature, Choo and colleagues found that contextual demands (e.g., workload) and contextual resources (e.g., support) from work, school, and family in conjunction with individual characteristics predicted satisfaction (across all three domains), performance (across all three domains), and overall well-being (e.g., psychological and physical health).

Grief in the Workplace

The societal taboo nature of grief in Western nations (Harris, 2010) is present in the workplace as well (Aoun, 2004; Petriglieri & Maitlis, 2019). The social taboo around grief is indicative of an emotional dialect, a term coined to describe affective differences between cultures (Elfenbein et al., 2007), which has also been applied to cultures within organizations (Schneider et al., 2010) referred to as an organizational emotional climate (Ashkasnasy & Dorris,

2017; Rivera, 1992). An organizational emotional climate encompasses the policies and procedures (e.g., bereavement leave) an organization has rather than the sum of individual emotional differences as with organizational culture (Schein, 2004). For example, emotional labor (Hochschild, 1983) in the form of policies (e.g., "serve with a smile") is an aspect of an organization's climate. However, there are organizations with climates of authentic emotional expression, which have been shown to mitigate the harmful effects of emotional labor (Grandey et al., 2012). These types of organizational climates are often uncommon in the United States.

As mentioned previously, the organizational policies concerning the amount of time allotted for bereavement leave is highly inadequate, usually only around three days (MacDonald et al., 2015), forcing employees back into the workplace when they are still experiencing significant emotional distress (Melhem et al., 2013). Wilson et al. (2021) suggest that organizations should assist bereaved employees further on their return to work due to the few days of bereavement time that employees are allotted. Similarly, the SAGE handbook for understanding organizational well-being (Wall et al., 2021) states that issues of grief go largely neglected by organizations and suggests that reasonable accommodations in a balanced approach can consider individual needs as well as organizational demands (Lattanzi-Licht, 1999). Further, Wilson et al. (2021) state that bereaved individuals as well as the organization would likely benefit from providing bereaved individuals with extra resources. The most notable and possibly the only model related to workplace grief is the C.A.R.E model of employee bereavement support that outlines how communication, accommodation, recognition, and emotional support are crucial in aiding bereaved employees (Gilbert et al., 2021). The model acknowledges being authentic about one's true feelings (i.e., minimizing emotional labor) and giving employees flexibility to grieve their own way.

If an organization does not have any formal bereavement leave in place, bereaved individuals have been known to use vacation days and sick time instead, which complicates bereavement leave estimates (Gilbert et al., 2021). As cited previously, the nature of one's relationship impacts the length of bereavement (Holmes and Rahe, 1967). Organizations have different bereavement policies depending on the kind of loss, such as an average of four days for the loss of a child or spouse and one to three days for parents and relatives (SHRM, 2016). Even more unfortunate is that many bereavement policies do not acknowledge a friend or colleague, leading workers to use up personal days when losing such loved ones. Ultimately, organizations need to recognize how varied grief can be and how complex of a process bereavement can be (Moss, 2017).

Grief and bereavement are classified as issues related to occupational health and safety. O'Connor et al. (2010) outline how grief can impair the judgment of employees, interrupting their task competence and concentration. From empirical analyses, Wilcox et al. (2015) found that bereaved employees took additional absences related to physical and psychiatric illnesses a year after their loss. Therefore, workplaces and employers are impacted by grief in terms of diminishing profits and productivity (American Hospice Foundation, 2000; James and Friedman, 2003).

Anecdotal evidence suggests that grief has had a profound impact on a bereaved individual's performance (James & Friedman, 2003). In a self-report study, in the weeks to months after a personal loss, 85% of management leaders noted making decisions that they categorized as very poor to fair. In the same study, 90% of blue-collar workers reported lower concentration which led them to have higher instances of injury. 75% of participants went on to comment how they felt hindered by their loss beyond their company's allotted bereavement time.

In addition to productivity issues, bereaved employees are also likely to struggle with engaging in social interactions (Kinder & Kooper, 2009). As noted previously, grief is an emotional response, yet workplaces often push their employees to hide or suppress their authentic emotions related to grief in favor of emotions in line with organizational requirements. Some authors such as Bento (1994), go as far to suggest that the workplace is simply incompatible with grieving individuals. Workplaces often encourage or require a professional demeanor, which prevents bereaved individuals from conveying intense emotions to their peers (Wall et al., 2021). Further, colleagues and leadership may not know how to properly support bereaved individuals (Sandberg and Grant, 2017). Bereaved individuals may even face consequences because of their diminished performance or productivity (Gilbert et al., 2021). Therefore, it is no surprise that previous work has established that bereaved individuals are more likely to quit their jobs (Gilmer et al., 2012) or inversely overwork to distract themselves from their grief.

Naturally, grief can also happen at work instead of outside of work as typically thought. Suicide and sudden death in the workplace introduce additional challenges to the grieving process such as increased distress from surviving employees (Kinder and Cooper, 2009). To complicate this further, accidents resulting in death are followed by long, arduous investigations resulting in survivors reliving trauma and grappling with psychological issues along with media coverage (Aitken, 2007). Additionally, some jobs in the healthcare industry involve workers routinely dealing with death. For example, Lathrop (2017) describes how physicians are faced with losses that can be cumulative and complex, which may lead to grieving and possible burnout. For nurses working in a nursing home where residents pass frequently, how much they recovered from their grief predicted their levels of burnout, overall well-being, and job

satisfaction (Anderson & Ewen, 2011). These results demonstrate that even grief related to one's occupation outside of interpersonal relationships can still have a profound impact on the quality of work they provide.

Still, work can be beneficial to employees under the right circumstances (Wall et al., 2021). Workplaces offer a familiar and stable environment, which may help bereaved employees regain a sense of normalcy (Hazen, 2009). Further, the workplace offers bereaved individuals with additional opportunities for social support through their coworkers (Charles-Edwards, 2009). Social support in general has helped grieving individuals recover from depression and anxiety stemming from their loss (Reed, 1998). Particularly, compassionate leadership has been shown to be a helpful resource in the recovery of bereaved employees (Dutton et al., 2002).

Workplace Leadership

Leadership can have significant, negative consequences for organizations at its worst (Owens et al., 2015) or transformational and innovative implications at its best (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Focusing on the value leaders add, they can increase productivity, job satisfaction, affect and foster their development in their subordinates (Judge et al., 2009; Dvir et al., 2002). Conversely, abusive and problematic leaders can contribute to job turnover, low productivity, and motivation (Owens et al., 2015). Leaders are also responsible for how subordinates interpret events and changes within organizations (Pescolido, 2002). In fact, the effects of leaders on subordinates can be so strong that followers' perceptions of a leader can extend to one's perception of their organization (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Leaders have significant effects on the emotions of the workers they manage (Brief & Weiss, 2002). To illustrate the effect of leadership on emotion, a style of leadership referred to as transformational leadership draws on strong emotions to elicit arousal in followers, which results in a decrease in negative moods that result from barriers to organizational success (Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002). Mood management and emotional intelligence have been identified as important elements of successful team leadership (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). In fact, George (2000) argues that leaders with high emotional intelligence can inspire and uplift their team members with empirical support demonstrating that effective leaders were ones that were best able to perform when faced with workplace incidents linked with strong emotion (Pescolido, 2002). In a review of the literature, Walter and colleagues (2011) found strong support linking emotional intelligence to leadership effectiveness.

Leadership Support

Charles-Edwards (2005) states that it is important for workplaces to foster a supportive environment to ease employees who are grieving into a sense of normalcy again. As stated previously, leaders are a massive driving force in determining the climate and culture of a workplace. According to the USA Last Acts Workplace Committee (1999) to facilitate effective support, managers need to understand how to respond to their subordinates seeking help, the resources available to assist them, and how to adapt schedules and responsibilities in response to a subordinate's issues. In 2005, the Last Acts Workplace Committee specified that managers need to be sensitive, confidential, and consistent in matters concerning an employee who is facing difficulties (e.g., bereavement). These ideas can be found in leader-member exchange (LMX), the idea of building high quality working relationships. LMX is a foundational theory in the leadership literature (Graen et al., 1982), which can help explain how leaders may be willing

to accommodate the needs of a bereaved employee and the extent to which a bereaved employee favors the leader and by extent an organization. For instances of workplace adjustment, Cancerbacup (2005) and Ranzenbrink (2002) suggest that regular meetings between managers and subordinates can help ease the difficulties with transitioning.

Compassionate leaders, leaders who demonstrate concern for the misfortune of others, have a greater likelihood of influencing workers and organizational consequences through their demonstration of empathy and authenticity (Shuck et al., 2019). These results were also found by Yukl (2012), who created a leadership taxonomy with relations-oriented behaviors as one of four categories of effective leadership behaviors. Specifically, behaviors of supporting, recognizing, and empowering subordinates were found to be effective leadership behaviors. Interestingly, the effects of compassionate leadership can transition beyond the workplace into non-work domains (Hammer et al., 2013). For instance, family-supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSBs) include discussing worker's lives outside of work, helping accommodate workers needs outside of work, and maximizing a worker's health in and out of the workplace. Hence, leadership support is an important aspect of leadership that has a large effect on workers and organizations above traditional aspects of leadership. FSSBs encourage workers to take time off work when needed, like for bereavement, prioritizing a worker's physical and psychological health and lives outside of work (Hammer et al., 2007). As a result, FSSBs can increase job satisfaction and decrease turnover (Crain & Stevens, 2018). Lastly, it is worth noting that worker perceptions of leadership behaviors are important to consider. Perceived leadership support is the sense of how much a leader cares for their employees and values their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Perceptions of workers are important to measure as interpersonal leadership support is a hard

behavior to study objectively, and leaders influence followers' support experiences through perceptual means.

When an employee experiences a loss, leaders and peers may need to negotiate how tasks are carried out to supplement the lack of productivity from the bereaved employee (O'Connor et al., 2010). In fact, Palmer (2004) states that leadership makes more of a difference in an employee's bereavement than organizational policies. Leaders and supervisors act as an intermediary role between a grieving worker and the organization they work under (Kinder & Cooper, 2009). Leaders can reallocate resources to aid bereaved employees in both formal (e.g., HR) and informal (e.g., interpersonal dialogue) processes (Hammer et al., 2009). Gilbert et al. (2021) state that managers are in a position where they can offer support and compassion that bereaved employees desperately need. Inversely, inconsiderate, and insensitive managers can exacerbate an individual's grief (Charles-Edwards, 2009).

Organizational Commitment

Job attitudes are affected by grief (Anderson & Ewen, 2011), and organizational commitment is a common job attitude variable in the industrial and organizational psychology literature. Organizational commitment is the view of one's identity in relation to one's place of employment in terms of the strength of the bond or connection an individual has with their organization (Mowday et al., 1979). In another definition of organizational commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) describe it as a three-dimensional construct that involves an emotional connection to, remaining involved with, and connection with norms of an organization. Allen and Meyer's definition of organizational commitment shares a significant amount of overlap with Mowday et al. (1979)'s construct, which also emphasizes emotional attachment to an organization as a core part of their construct. In relation to leadership, leaders have also been

shown to act as mediators between workers and the broader organization, even influencing worker's attitudes of an organization through the perception of their leader (Pescolido, 2002). Regarding bereavement, during the process of identity reconstruction one's organizational commitment may falter as shown by evidence of higher turnover in bereaved workers (Gilmer et al., 2012). These results may even be exacerbated with organizations that have inadequate bereavement policies (Wall et al., 2021).

Rationale

The prior literature review offers an overview of the work that has been done in the grief and broader emotional, occupational health, and leadership literature. In developing my hypotheses, I aimed to fill identified gaps by examining a yet to be tested outcome variable, organizational commitment, and through the consideration of workplace leadership support as an important contextual factor in understanding worker bereavement.

Leaders who value the well-being of their workers and demonstrate it with compassionate behaviors, result in workers feeling more valued and supported. By extension, the perceptions of a leader that one has then can impact one's perception of the organization they work under. Therefore, I predicted that increased leadership support was also likely to result in increased organizational commitment.

When working individuals lose loved ones, they are expected to have lower organizational commitment because there are likely to be adverse mental health effects that pull mental and sometimes physical resources away from their job. Work and personal lives have a mutual influence on one other, but both also draw resources away from an individual, often in variable amounts. The theory of conservation of resources states that workers hope to maintain the resources that they have, but when resources are lost, an individual's level of stress increases

(Hobfoll, 1989). Not only must workers meet the demands of their organization, but they must meet the demands of their personal lives as well (de Jonge & Dormann, 2006).

As a result of depleted resources, an individual's work is likely to suffer as their mind is occupied elsewhere. Grief is a long-term healing process and as such, takes a significant amount of work (i.e., therapy and after death arrangements) that are likely to take precedence over one's job. The model for this study explains that one's level of grief predicts how committed one is to their organization. In addition, perceived leadership support moderates the relationship between one's level of grief and organizational commitment. Low perceived leadership support was expected to result in even lower organizational commitment. Conversely, high perceived leadership support was predicted to result in higher levels of organizational commitment.

Model and Hypothesis Development

Main Effect

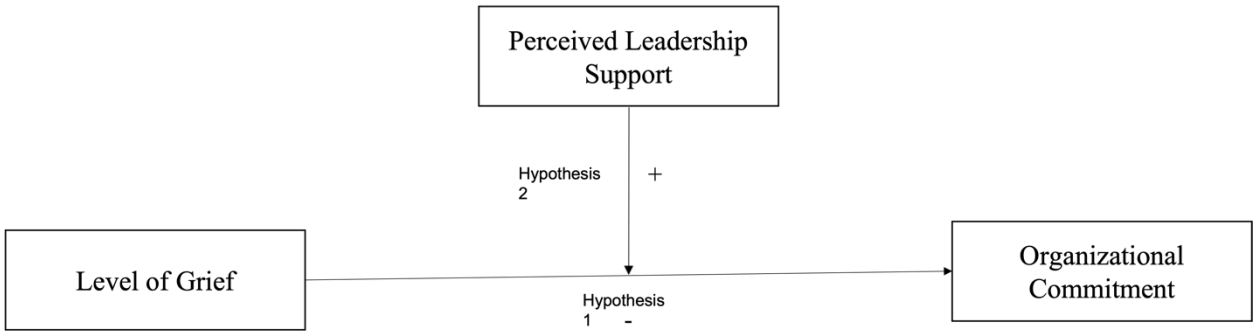
Hypothesis 1. There will be a significant, negative relationship between level of grief and organizational commitment.

Moderation

Hypothesis 2. The main effect of level of grief on organizational commitment will be moderated by perceived leader support such that the negative relationship between level of grief and organizational commitment will be strengthened (weakened) when perceived leader support is lower (higher).

Figure 1

Conceptual Model



Method

Participants

Participants were employed, United States residents who have had loved ones (i.e., friends, family members, or romantic partners) die in the past year. Employment included individuals who worked 10 or more hours per week in a paid position. In study 1a, voluntary participants were recruited through a convenience, snowball sampling technique using social media, specifically LinkedIn and Instagram. Individuals in this study were instructed to take the survey if they met the eligibility criteria and distribute the survey to others they know who matched the criteria. For study 1b, DePaul University's SONA system was used to recruit undergraduate psychology students who met the criteria. Undergraduate psychology students received research credit for their undergraduate courses. Lastly, study 1c used funding provided by DePaul University's Graduate Research Fund in the sum of $525. Additional participants were recruited Prolific and compensated at $3 each for their participation. Based on an *a priori* power analysis using G*Power software with a projected effect size of 0.1, a regression coefficient used in previous studies (e.g., Anderson & Ewen, 2011), and an alpha level of 0.05, a target sample size of 132 participants was expected to be sufficient to detect the hypothesized effects if present (Erdfelder et al., 1996). To account for missing data and participants who did not meet the inclusion criteria a minimum of $N = 162$ participants were recruited.

The average age of the participants was 27.59 (*SD* = 11.50). Most of the participants identified as women (*n* = 188, 73.15%), while the rest consisted of men (*n* = 102, 39.69%), non-binary individuals (*n* = 5, 1.95%), androgynous individuals (*n* = 1, 0.39%), or an undisclosed gender (*n* = 1, 0.39%). Participant's breakdown for race and ethnicity was as follows: non-Hispanic White (*n* = 145, 56.42%), Hispanic or Latino/a/x (*n* = 61, 23.74%), Black or African American (*n* = 32, 12.45%), Asian (*n* = 28, 10.89%), mixed or multiracial (*n* = 24, 9.34%), Middle Eastern (*n* = 3, 1.17%), and 1.56% (*n* = 4) who preferred not to say.

Many of the participants reported that they have never been married (*n* = 226, 87.94%) followed by 21.01% (*n* = 54) married, 5.06% (*n* = 13) divorced, 1.17% (*n* = 3) separated, and 0.39% (*n* = 1) widowed. In their families, participants reported the following number of family members in their household: two (*n* = 75, 29.18), four (*n* = 66, 25.68%), three (*n* = 66, 25.68%), five or more (*n* = 58, 22.57%), and one (*n* = 32, 12.45%). In addition, the participants reported their religious beliefs: Christianity (*n* = 123, 47.86%), Agnosticism (*n* = 60, 23.35%), Atheism (*n* = 39, 15.17%), 7.78% (*n* = 20) preferred not to respond, Islam (*n* = 19, 7.39%), Catholicism (*n* = 7, 2.72%), 3.11% (*n* = 8) practiced a religion not listed (e.g., Hermeticism, Paganism, Sikhism), Buddhism (*n* = 6, 2.33%), Hinduism (*n* = 5, 1.95%), and spiritual (*n* = 4, 1.56%).

On average, participants reported working 28.14 hours per week (*SD* = 13.28) with an average of 36.85 months (*SD* = 60.46) or 3.07 years of tenure at their organization. A little over half of the participants reported working part-time (*n* = 171, 66.54%) and 49.03% (*n* = 126) reported working full-time. The supervisors of the participants worked with them for an average of 21.07 months (*SD* = 30.26) or 1.76 years.

Further, the participants came from a wide variety of industries: retail (*n* = 54, 21.01%), hospitality (*n* = 51, 19.84%), healthcare (*n* = 45, 17.51%), education (*n* = 25, 9.73%), financial

services (*n* = 23, 8.95%), media (*n* = 12, 4.67%), manufacturing (*n* = 11, 4.28%), technology (*n* = 10, 3.89%), transportation (*n* = 7, 2.72%), construction (*n* = 7, 2.72%), information technology (*n* = 6, 2.33%), customer service (*n* = 6, 2.33%), care giving (*n* = 4, 1.56%), human resources (*n* = 4, 1.56%), law/legal (*n* = 4, 1.56%), government (*n* = 3, 1.17%), and 8.95% (*n* = 23) from other industries (e.g., Consulting, Sales, Cosmetology, Agriculture, Marketing).

In terms of education, the participants reported the following breakdown for their highest achieved education: 45.14% (*n* = 116) had some college experience, 28.02% (*n* = 72) received a high school diploma, 19.07% (*n* = 49) received a four-year degree, 8.56% (*n* = 22) received a master's degree, 7.78% (*n* = 20) received a two-year degree, 4.28% (*n* = 11) received a doctorate, 2.33% (*n* = 6) received a professional degree, and 0.39% (*n* = 1) did not graduate from high school.

The identity of participant's deceased loved ones were as follows: grandparent (*n* = 90, 35.02%), friend (*n* = 74, 28.79%), aunt or uncle (*n* = 58, 22.57%), parent (*n* = 34, 13.23%), cousin (*n* = 16, 6.23%), romantic partner (*n* = 7, 2.72%), sibling (*n* = 4, 1.56%), pet (*n* = 4, 1.56%), in-law (*n* = 3, 1.17%), child (*n* = 3, 1.17%), a loved one not listed (*n* = 3, 1.17%; e.g., both a friend and uncle, two friends, god parent), and spouse (*n* = 1, 0.39%).

At work, 70.04% (*n* = 180) chose to disclose their grief to their supervisor, 39.30% (*n* = 101) did not disclose their grief to their supervisor, 4.67% (*n* = 12) reported having someone else tell their supervisor of their loss, and 1.56% (*n* = 4) reported some other form of disclosure (e.g., both supervisor and participant lost the same loved one). Regarding their organization's bereavement policy, participants reported the following satisfaction with their bereavement policy: somewhat satisfied (*n* = 77, 29.96%), extremely satisfied (*n* = 49, 19.07%), neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (*n* = 48, 18.68%), somewhat dissatisfied (*n* = 34, 13.23%), and

extremely dissatisfied (n = 17, 6.61%). However, 22.57% (n = 58) of bereaved participants reported not being aware of their organization's bereavement policy and 5.45% (n = 14) reported that their organization did not have a bereavement policy.

Procedure

The present study used Qualtrics to create and distribute the materials to participants. The study was advertised over LinkedIn and Instagram, the university's SONA system, and Prolific. The cover story explained that the research team was looking to examine how individuals are coping with the loss of their loved ones at work. To be eligible for participation and included in the subsequent analyses, participants were required to be 18 years of age or older, employed, and have lost a loved one in the past year. To ensure participants meet the criteria, screening questions, prior to obtaining informed consent, were used to prevent ineligible individuals from proceeding further. The demographic questions asked for participants' gender identity, age, race/ethnicity, job tenure, supervisor tenure, industry of work, hours worked per week, employment status, satisfaction with their company's bereavement policy, whether or not they have disclosed their grief to their supervisor, religious beliefs, family characteristics (i.e., children and relationship status), and the identity (i.e., friend, family member, etc.) of their deceased loved one.

Within these sets of items, random attention checks were used to check for compliance with one attention check per item measure or block (e.g., "please select 'strongly agree' for this response"). Participants who failed two or more attention checks were removed from the primary analysis. In accordance with the IRB, participants were notified that they could withdraw their informed consent anytime with no compensation penalty, and participants were debriefed after. Further, the debrief contained mental health and grieving resources for participants.

Materials

Level of Grief. Level of grief was measured using the 21-item Texas Revised Inventory of Grief (TRIG) (Faschingbauer et al., 1987; see Appendix A). The TRIG features two subscales, Past Grief Behaviors and Present Emotional Feeling. The Past Grief Behaviors subscale contains eight items that measure an individual's perceptions of their own behaviors around the time of their loss of their loved one. The Present Emotional Feeling subscale, also referred to as current grief, asks participants to reflect on their own current, internal experiences related to grief to assess participants' current feelings, cognitions, and memories of their grief. The TRIG for its history of "respectable" to "very good" reliability (Devellis & Thorpe, 2022) for its two-factor structure (0.77 to 0.86; Faschingbauer et al., 1987; McNally et al., 2021) and generalizability (Montano et al., 2016).

The TRIG has a five-point scale ranging from "1 = Completely true" to "5 = Completely false". An example item is "I still cry when I think of the person who died." Traditionally, lower scores on this TRIG subscale indicate a higher level of present grief. However, the responses were be changed such that higher scores indicate higher levels of grief with the responses flipped to "1 = Completely false" to "5 = Completely true." Participants may not be used to the original unorthodox response scale as many scales usually begin with the most negative option and then transition to the most affirmative one. This change is in line with Anderson and Ewen (2011), who also reverse-coded responses. Participant's confusion could lead to error that would be easily avoidable by reversing the scales to be more in line with scale norms. Both the past behaviors and present emotional feelings subscales had Cronbach's alphas of .85 and .89 respectively in the present study. The reliability of the scale overall was $\alpha = .91$.

Perceived Leader Support. Perceived leader support was measured using the Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support (SPSS), a 16-item measure with a seven-point scale ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" to "5 = strongly agree" to rate how much individuals perceive their supervisor to value their well-being (see Appendix C; Eisenberger et al., 2002). The SPSS was adapted from the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Higher scores show a higher perception of supervisor support with an example item being "My supervisor really cares about my well-being." The SPSS was found to be highly reliable in the present study ($\alpha = .96$).

Organizational Commitment. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979; see Appendix D) is a 15-item measure with a seven-point scale ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" to "5 = strongly agree" to evaluate an individual's commitment to their organization. A sample item is "I really care about the fate of the organization." Higher scores indicate higher organizational commitment. In the present study, the OCQ had an impressive Cronbach's alpha of .91.

Results

Preprocessing

First, the data of the ($N = 475$) participants sampled across studies 1a, 1b, and 1c were downloaded from Qualtrics and examined in Microsoft Excel. Despite the criteria of the study being listed in the description, start of the study in the form of screener questions, and in the informed consent form, there were still a significant number of participants who had to be removed for not meeting the eligibility criteria. In sum, there were $N = 475$ participants sampled, but following the removal of participants who did not meet the criteria, $N = 257$ participants were retained for final data analyses. Although the final sample size was still far above the

necessary sample size for statistical power, 157 (i.e., n = 82 from SONA, n = *18* from social media sampling, and n = 57 from Prolific) were removed for not meeting the criteria of the study, n = 12 (n = 3 from SONA, n = 7 from Social Media, and n= 2 from Prolific) were removed for incomplete data (i.e., less than 30% completion), and n = 9 (all from SONA) participants were removed for failing two or more attention checks. Participants were still compensated for their time, even if they did not fit the criteria, so long as they completed the survey.

For each of the three measures, individual's scores were compiled into a single sum score for each measure, according to past scoring procedures. In addition, the two items in the SPSS and the five items in the OCQ were reverse coded in Excel prior to analysis in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2024). The missing and incomplete data (n = 12) were not retained for sensitivity analyses because there were too few participants.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Level of Grief. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) generally supported the two-dimensional structure of the TRIG. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was 0.812 and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was 0.79, just below the standard 0.9 cutoff (Hu & Bentler, 1999) for both indices. The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.094, just above the accepted cutoff score of 0.08 (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). Lastly, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) score was only slightly above the recommended cutoff score of 0.05 at 0.068. Since these indices did not deviate greatly from the accepted cutoff scores, exploratory factor analyses were not conducted. Although none of these measures met the established cut-off scores, all of them were close enough to the cutoffs that they offer some support for the TRIG's two-dimensional structure.

Perceived Supervisor Support. CFA analysis concluded that the unidimensional model of SPSS was largely the best fit for the data. The CFI and TLI yielded values of 0.960 and 0.953 respectively, above the desired 0.9 target (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Further, the RMSEA was slightly below the target value of 0.08 at 0.07 (Brown & Cudeck, 1993), indicating acceptable fit. Lastly, the SRMR was acceptable and below the cutoff score of 0.05 at 0.035. The SPSS met all the criteria for the cut-off scores and thus demonstrated strong evidence for the unidimensional factor structure.

Organization Commitment Questionnaire. The unidimensional model of the OCQ was supported by CFA analysis with minor discrepancies. The CFI and TLI were just below the chosen cutoff score of 0.9 at 0.862 and 0.839, which although lower than the criteria, were not low enough to cause concern (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The RMSEA slightly above the score of 0.08 at 0.111 and similarly, the SRMR was found to be above 0.05 at 0.076.

Descriptive Analyses

Responses to the TRIG ranged from 21 to 103, with an average score of 67.94 (*SD* = 15.5). The distribution mostly resembled a normal distribution with a slight negative skew (-0.3) but was well within the parameters of -2 and 2. The kurtosis was 2.63, which lies between -7 and 7 (Byrne, 2016).

On average, participants had a score of 61.29 (*SD* = 13.5) on the SPSS with values ranging from 16 to 80. The SPSS responses showed a slightly higher negative skew (-0.82) and a kurtosis of 0.41, which are well within the recommended ranges for these values (Byrne, 2016).

The average response to the OCQ was 50.40 (*SD* = 12.06) and responses ranged from 18 to 75. The OCQ had a minor, negative skew of -0.24 and a kurtosis of 2.78, which are acceptable under Byrne (2016)’s recommendations.

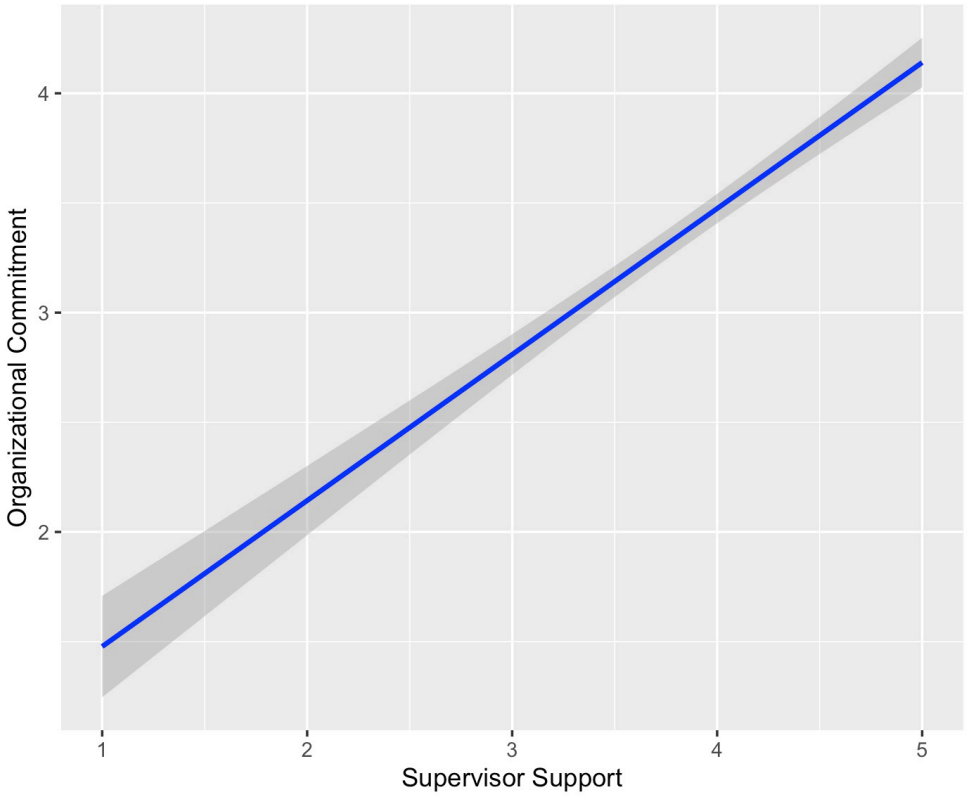
Regarding correlations, the TRIG and SPSS had a nonsignificant correlation of -0.09 ($p > .05$). There was also a nonsignificant correlation of -0.008 ($p > .05$) between the TRIG and OCQ. Lastly, the SSS and the OCQ were significantly correlated with one another, $r = 0.70$, $p < .01$).

Primary Analyses

Hypothesis 1: Main Effect. Using a simple, linear regression there was a non-significant, positive relationship between level of grief and organizational commitment ($R^2 = 0.476$, F (2, 293) = 133.1 $p = 0.0769$), with minor increases in level of grief associated with slight increases in organizational commitment ($B = 0.05590$). Although there were no hypotheses for this outcome, the results of the regression did show that there was a significant, positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and organizational commitment (see Figure 2) demonstrating that levels of supervisor support significantly predicted organizational commitment ($B = 0.59880$, $p < 0.001$).

Figure 2

Supervisor Support and Organizational Commitment



Hypothesis 2: Interaction. Multiple regression analysis using moderation found no significant interaction between level of grief and supervisor support on organizational commitment (R^2 = 0.4785, F (3, 292) = 89.32, $p < 0.001$), with a minor, negative relationship between the predictors and outcome (B = -0.00281, $p > .05$).

Assumption Testing. The models for both the main effect and interaction effect met all assumptions of multiple regressions. First, they both met the assumption of multicollinearity and homogeneity of residual variance (i.e., vif > 4), which was examined using the variance inflation factor (VIF) function and a non-constant error variance test (ncvTest). Additionally, both models met the assumptions of linearity and heteroscedasticity ($p > 0.05$).

Discussion

Summary and Interpretation of Results

The present study explored the relationship between grief, supervisor support, and organizational commitment. Disappointingly, neither of the study's hypotheses were supported with the primary analyses, with no significant effects for either the main effect or interaction effect. Grief was not found to have significantly predicted an individual's level or commitment to their organization. Further, supervisor and grief together did not explain a significant amount of variance in organizational commitment. Interestingly, there was a significant finding not previously hypothesized between supervisor support and organizational commitment.

For hypothesis 1, an individual's level of grief was found to be positively related to organizational commitment, albeit nonsignificant. Grief can significantly disrupt an individual's life and it may be the case that individuals are more likely to want to maintain their existing relationship with their organization rather than distance themselves from it or become more devoted to it. After all, grief is not only a significant emotional burden for many but also a financial one, which would explain why individual's commitment to their organization does not waver. Continued employment with an organization would help alleviate the potential financial burden that comes with the loss of a loved one, such as a spouse or parental guardian. An example of this would be the reverse-scored item "There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely" in the OCQ, which accounts for the possible financial, emotional, and cognitive gains that continued organizational membership would provide. Also, grief can be a potentially traumatic experience, it is possible that some individuals may to latch onto their existing relationships further, like their organization, instead of detaching themselves emotionally, cognitively, or physically. Further, past research has shown inconsistent findings in

terms of approaches to work with some evidence showing turnover being linked to grief and others showing individuals overworking themselves in response to grief (Gilmer et al., 2012).

In hypothesis 2, no evidence was found for the moderation of supervisor support on the relationship between level of grief and organizational commitment. The findings ultimately suggest that an individual's level of grief has no direct effect on an individual's level of commitment to their organization. Results of testing hypothesis 2 showed that the interaction between grief and supervisor support did not predict organizational commitment, indicating that these two variables in conjunction with one another did not explain the extent of one's organizational commitment. One explanation for the lack of significance may be that 40% of participant's supervisors were entirely unaware of their bereavement, which may be indicative of the taboo nature of grief at work and disenfranchised grief (Bento, 1994).

Although the interaction between grief and supervisor support was nonsignificant, a subsequent exploratory analysis uncovered that supervisor support did significantly predict an individual's organizational commitment. The positive correlation between these two variables has been documented in the literature before with research showing that worker's perceptions of their leader impact their attitudes toward the organization they work for (Pescolido, 2002). This finding contributes to the large body of evidence that demonstrates how important leaders are for retention and motivation.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study employed a cross-sectional, survey design, which prevents any inferences of causality. Therefore, observed and unobserved phenomena may have alternative explanations that are uncaptured in these analyses. Further, the quantitative nature of the survey meant that detailed, qualitative responses from participants were not included, which could help

add further depth and clarity to the participant's experiences. Given the unique experiences of grieving across individuals, even within the same wider culture, qualitative measures could allow researchers to more clearly understand their unique lived experiences.

Firstly, the use of participants sampled for convenience, psychology undergraduate students and social media participants, do not represent of the broader United States population. For example, most individuals in the United States do not hold advance degrees (Nietzel, 2024) unlike the current sample who either had an advanced degree or were in the process of receiving one. 63% of the participants were undergraduate students working part or full time in addition to taking courses at DePaul University. Therefore, they have other obligations in addition to their personal lives and place of employment, which may not be the case for many employed workers who are later in their careers focusing on work and their personal and family lives. DePaul undergraduate students taking psychology courses are also required to participate in SONA studies, unless they opt for an alternative assignment, and are therefore completing research studies under penalty of a full-letter-grade drop (DePaul University College of Science and Health, 2024). Consequently, the richness and accuracy of their responses could be called into question.

Despite the fact that attention checks were used and only nine individuals (4%) failed to pass them, self-report surveys are still subject to faking and inaccurate responses due to memory recall issues (Tehan & Millis, 2007). Similarly, common method variance (CMV), a measurement error that occurs when different variables are collected through the same method of data collection, can also affect the results of the study (Spector & Brannick, 2009). Since the present survey consisted entirely of self-report survey measures that were answered by each participant answered and that had similar response scales, the study is subject to common

method bias (CMB). Further, the participants may have felt the need to answer questions in a way that was socially desirable instead of honest. As a result, CMV and CMB can cause variable relationships to be inflated, artificially increasing the strength of the relationships between the variables. Issues with CMV and CMB could be alleviated through the use of longitudinal and multi-method studies to add additional and more varied forms of measurement.

Next, the timeline of one year was chosen for bereavement based on that of previous studies (Bonanno & Kaltman, 2001; Zhang et al., 2006), but this range could have contributed to response errors. There are a few possibilities on why the length requirement for bereavement of one year is potentially troublesome. On one hand, the time range can be seen too long for individuals to accurately rate how they felt at the moment of their loss, which could lead to memory recall issues (Tehan & Millis, 2007). On the other hand, the time range may be too limiting and may not accurately capture the full bereavement process in individuals. However, it is hard to find alternatives to self-report methodology, as discovering who is grieving based on records and documentation would be not only be an intrusion of privacy, but it ignores the inherent subjectivity of the grieving process. One alternative that could further inform the study's results would be to measure the time since an individual's loss and incorporate it into a new model of bereavement.

Based on the current study's limitations, future research should take a multi-method and longitudinal approach to analyzing grief at work to help address some of the study's shortcomings. Grief is a continuous, on-going process that does not fit into distinct stages and thus should be investigated overtime rather than at a single-time point. Therefore, longitudinal research would allow for the analysis of grief at multiple time points rather than having participants at a single time point reflect on their bereavement experience. Qualitative research is

largely absent in the industrial and organizational psychology literature and its use could add clarity to unique experiences that are otherwise uncaptured in a five-point scale.

In addition, future research looking to examine grief in the workplace should attempt to recruit participants who are working full-time or without obligations such as college that can complicate these findings. The mode of work is also worth examining, as these results may differ for remote and in-person occupations, especially with the general flexibility offered with remote work. Moreover, collecting data on the type and extent of support offered by organizations such as time off given or flexible work arrangements (e.g., hybrid or fully remote work) could help explain why individuals choose to remain a part of their organization. Lastly, there are other forms of grief worth examining such as the loss of a job or relationship. In the present study, without the option present, four participants or 1.56% stated that the identity of their lost loved one was a pet. Although this option was considered, it was ultimately cut to narrow the focus of grief, which appears to have been a mistake. For many people, pets are beloved family members and as such should be accounted for in future research examining grief.

Practical Implications

Of the n = 257 participants sampled in the final analysis 23% of participants were unaware of their organization's bereavement policy, despite personally grieving. Even more concerning, 5% participants responded that their organization did not have a bereavement policy in place. With no national guidelines for organizational bereavement policy (Mallick, 2020) and the taboo nature of grief in the United States (Harris, 2010), organizations may not be offering their workers enough time to grieve. Further, a lack of rapport or trust may be preventing workers from disclosing their grief to their managers and organizations with 40% of participants stating that their supervisor was unaware of their loss. Moreover, many organizations have

stipulations in their bereavement policy limiting time off to the loss of spouses, parents, siblings, and children, which would have excluded 86% of this study's sample. When individuals are not approved for bereavement leave, it is likely that they will instead use sick time and vacation days to recover (Gilbert et al., 2021; Wilcox et al., 2015). I implore organizations to expand their bereavement policy to include a wider range of loved ones (e.g., friends, aunts and uncles, grandparents) and to extend the allotted days for bereavement.

Leadership support is instrumental in retaining employees and fostering their commitment to organizations. The popular claim postulated by many is that "people don't leave bad jobs; they leave bad bosses" and the results of this study support that (Kelly, 2022). There is a business case that leaders should be encouraged to show compassion and support to their employees beyond the fact that it is the morally correct thing to do. Therefore, it may be worth incorporating knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) like compassion and empathy (Gilbert et al., 2021; Hammer et al., 2013; Shuck et al., 2019) to leadership competency frameworks and performance criteria. These KSAs may also help encourage the modeling of these behaviors in their subordinates as well as contribute to building stronger leader-follower relationships (Graen et al., 1982). In turn, workers may feel more comfortable disclosing their trauma (e.g., disenfranchised grief; Bento, 1994) and voicing their needs when their leader or supervisor is kind and understanding.

Conclusion

In conclusion, despite the disappointing findings of the study in the lack of significant findings, grief is nevertheless a worthwhile topic for further research and discussion. Although examining grief in the context of work is not a novel idea in of itself, it is nevertheless an important one and its relationship to organizations has not been investigated in great detail. As a

largely universal experience, it is important to better understand how we can best support each other during what can possibly be a traumatic and painful experience. For workers regardless of grief, leadership support is instrumental to organizations who wish to retain, help, influence, and motivate their workers.

References

Aitken A (2007) Work-related bereavement. *Bereavement Care 26*(3), 57.

Allen NJ, Meyer JP. 1990. The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 1–18.

Al-Gamal, E., Saeed, S. B., Victor, A., & Long, T. (2019). Prolonged Grief Disorder and Its Relationship With Perceived Social Support and Depression Among University Students. *Journal of Psychosocial Nursing and Mental Health Services*, *57*(2), 44–51. https://doi.org/10.3928/02793695-20181023-03

American Hospice Foundation (2000), Grief at Work Resource Manual, American Hospice Foundation, Washington, DC.

Anderson, K. A., Ewen, H. H. (2011). Death in the nursing home: An examination of grief and well-being in nursing assistants. *Research in Gerontological Nursing, 4*(2), 87-94.

Aoun, S. (2004), The Social Impact of Caring for Terminally Ill People in Australia, Palliative Care Australia, Canberra.

APA. (2021, September 22). APA offers tips for understanding prolonged grief disorder. Psychiatry.org - APA Offers Tips for Understanding Prolonged Grief Disorder. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from https://psychiatry.org/news-room/news-releases/apa-offers-tips-for-understanding-prolonged-grief

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dorris, A. D. (2017). Emotions in the workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *4*, 67-90.

Ashkanasy NM, Nicholson GJ. 2003. Climate of fear in organizational settings: construct definition, measurement and a test of theory. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 55*(1), 24–29.

Baka, Ł. (2015). How do negative emotions regulate the effects of workplace aggression on counterproductive work behaviours? *Polish Psychological Bulletin*, *46*(3), 326–335. https://doi.org/10.1515/ppb-2015-0040

Balk, D.E., Tyson-Rawson, K., & Colletti-Wetzel, J. (1993) Social support as an intervention with bereaved college students. *Death Studies, 17*, 427-450.

Balk, D.E., Walker, A.C., & Baker, A. (2010). Prevalence and severity of college student bereavement examined in a randomly selected sample. *Death Studies, 34,* 459-468.

Barge, J. K. & David Schlueter. (n.d.). *A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ...* 18.

Beal, D. J., Trougakos, J. P., Weiss, H. M., & Dalal, R. S. (2013). Affect spin and the emotion regulation process at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(4), 593–605. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032559

Bento, R. F. (1994). When the Show Must Go on: Disenfranchised Grief in Organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *9*(6), 35–44. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683949410070197

Bhagat RS (1983) Effects of stressful life events on individual performance effectiveness and work adjustment processes within organizational settings: A research model. *Academy of Management Review 8(*4), 660–671.

Bhowmick, N. (2021, October 6). *Why are we still not talking about grief?* BuzzFeed. https://www.buzzfeed.com/nilanjanabhowmick/why-are-we-still-not-talking-about-grief

Bonanno, G. A., & Kaltman, S. (2001). The varieties of grief experience. *Clinical Psychology Review, 21*(5), 705–734. https://doi.org/10.1016/ S0272-7358(00)00062-3

Bono, J. E., Foldes, H. J., Vinson, G., & Muros, J. P. (2007). Workplace emotions: The role of supervision and leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(5), 1357–1367. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.5.1357

Brief AP. 1998. Attitudes in and Around Organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Brief AP, Butcher AH, Roberson L. 1995. Cookies, disposition, and job attitudes: the effects of positive mood-inducing events and negative affectivity on job satisfaction in a field experiment. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 62*(1):55–62

Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational Behavior: Affect in the Workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*(1), 279-307.

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

Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Routledge.

Cancerbacup (2005), How Cancer Affects Working Lives, British Association of Cancer United Patients and Their Family and Friends, London, p. 10.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2022). *Coronavirus disease (covid-19)*. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/index.html

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2022, December 8). *Products - data briefs - number 456 - December 2022*. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/products/databriefs/db456.htm

Charles-Edwards, D. (2005), Handling Death and Bereavement at Work: A Practical Guide, Routledge, London.

Charles-Edwards D (2001) Responding to bereavement at work. Bereavement Care 20(3): 41–42. Charles-Edwards D (2009) Empowering people at work in the face of death and bereavement. Death Studies 33(5): 420–436.

Choo, C. E. K., Kan, Z. X., & Cho, E. (2021). A Review of the Literature on the School-Work-Life Interface. *Journal of Career Development*, *48*(3), 290–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845319841170

Clark MS, Isen AM. 1982. Toward understanding the relationship between feeling states and social behavior. In Cognitive Social Psychology, ed. A Hastorf, AM Isen, pp. 73–108. New York: Elsevier

Cockell, N. (2020). COVID-19 and Grief: A Chaplain's Reflection on the Experience of Supporting Bereaved Parents and Widows in Lockdown. *Health and Social Care Chaplaincy*, *8*(2), 251–264. https://doi.org/10.1558/hscc.41757

Commeiras, N., & Fournier, C. (2022). *Critical Evaluation of Porter et al.'s Organizational Commitment Questionnaire: Implications for Researchers*. 8.

Cooke, D. K. (1997). Discriminant Validity of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. *Psychological Reports*, *80*(2), 431–441. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1997.80.2.431

Crain, T. L., & Stevens, S. C. (2018). Family-supportive supervisor behaviors: A review and recommendations for research and practice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(7), 869–888. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2320

Cutcliffe, J. R. (2002). Understanding and working with bereavement. Mental Health Practice 6 (2), 29-36.

de Jonge, J., & Dormann, C. (2006). Stressors, resources, and strain at work: A longitudinal test of the triple-match principle. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 1359–1374.

DePaul University College of Science and Health. (2024). Intro Psych Research Participation. https://csh.depaul.edu/academics/psychology/research/Pages/intro-psych-research.aspx

Devellis, R. F. & Thorpe, C. T. (2022). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (5th ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Diefendorff, J. M., & Gosserand, R. H. (2003). *Understanding the emotional labor process: A control theory perspective*. 15.

Diefendorff JM, Richard EM, Croyle MH. (2006). Are emotional display rules formal job requirements? Examination of employee and supervisor perceptions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology. 79*(2):273–98.

Dilworth, J. E. L. (2004). Predictors of Negative Spillover from Family to Work. *Journal of Family Issues*, *25*(2), 241–261. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X03257406

Doka, K. J. (1989). Disenfranchised grief: Recognizing hidden sorrow. New York, NY and Toronto: Lexington Book

Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 735–744.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 500–507.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberge, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 565–573.

Ekman, P. (1973). Cross culture studies of facial expression. In P. Ekman (Ed.), *Darwin and facial expression: A century of research in review* (pp. 162–222). New York: Academic Press.

Elfenbein HA, Beaupr´ eMG,L´ evesque M, Hess U. 2007. Toward a dialect theory: cultural differences in the expression and recognition of posed facial expressions. *Emotion, 7*, 131–46.

Engel, G. L. (1994). Is grief a disease? In R.V. Frankiel (Ed.), Essential papers on object loss (pp. 10-16). New York: University Press.

Erdfelder, E., Faul, F., & Buchner, A. (1996). GPOWER: A general power analysis program. Behavior Research Methods, *Instruments & Computers, 28*(1), 1–11.

Erickson RJ, Wharton AS. 1997. Inauthenticity and depression: assessing the consequences of interactive service work. *Work and Occupations, 24*, 188–213.

Eyetsemitan, F. (1998). STIFLED GRIEF IN THE WORKPLACE. *Death Studies*, *22*(5), 469–479. https://doi.org/10.1080/074811898201461

Faschingbauer, T. R., Devaul, R.A., & Zisook, S. (1987). The texas revised inventory of grief. In S. Zisook (Ed.1), *Biopsychosocial aspects of bereavement,* 109 – 124.

Feinberg, M., Ford, B. Q., & Flynn, F. J. (2020). Rethinking reappraisal: The double-edged sword of regulating negative emotions in the workplace. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *161*, 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2020.03.005

Festinger L. 1957. *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Univ. Press

Frijda NH. 1993. The place of appraisal in emotion. *Cognition and Emotion, 7*(3-4), 357–87.

Futterman, A., Holland, J. M., Brown, P. J., Thompson, L. W., & Gallagher-Thompson, D. (2010). Factorial validity of the Texas Revised Inventory of Grief—Present scale among bereaved older adults. *Psychological Assessment*, *22*(3), 675–687. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019914

Gautam, T., Van Dick, R., & Wagner, U. (2004). Organizational identification and organizational commitment: Distinct aspects of two related concepts: Distinctive aspects of identification and commitment. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *7*(3), 301–315. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-839X.2004.00150.x

George JM. 1989. Mood and absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 317–324.

George JM. 2000. Emotions and leadership: the role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations, 53*, 1027–1055.

George JM, Jones GR. 1996. The experience of work and turnover intentions: interactive effects of value attainment, job satisfaction, and positive mood. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 81:31825

George JM, Reed TF, Ballard KA, Colin J, Fielding J. 1993. Contact with AIDS patients as a source of work-related distress: effects of organizational and social support. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(1):157–71.

Gilbert, P. (2007). "Nobody Noticed": Leadership and Issues of Workplace Loss and Grief. *Illness, Crisis & Loss*, *15*(3), 219–231. https://doi.org/10.1177/105413730701500304

Gilbert, R. B. (2007). The Workplace, the Chaplain, the Grief. *Illness, Crisis & Loss*, *15*(3), 197–204. https://doi.org/10.1177/105413730701500302

Gilbert, S. L., & Kelloway, E. K. (2021). Grief in the workplace. In T. Wall, C. Cooper, & P. Brough (Eds.), The SAGE Handbook of Organizational Wellbeing. SAGE Publishing

Gilbert, S., Mullen, J., Kelloway, E. K., Dimoff, J., Teed, M., & McPhee, T. (2021). The C.A.R.E. model of employee bereavement support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *26*(5), 405–420. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000287

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader–member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6(*2), 219–247.

Grandey, A. A. (2000). Emotion regulation in the workplace: a new way to conceptualize emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1), 95–110.

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When "the show must go on": Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 86 –96. doi:10.2307/ 30040678

Grandey A, Foo SC, Groth M, Goodwin RE. 2012. Free to be you and me: A climate of authenticity alleviates burnout from emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 17*, 1–14.

Grandey, A. A., & Gabriel, A. S. (2015). Emotional labor at a crossroads: Where do we go from here? A*nnual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2*, 323-349.

Grandey, A. A., & Melloy, R. C. (2017). The state of the heart: Emotional labor as emotion regulation reviewed and revised. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 22*(3), 407–422. https://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000067

Gross, J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: an integrative review. *Review of General Psychology, 2*, 271–299.

Hammer LB, Ernst Kossek E, Bodner T and Crain T (2013) Measurement development and validation of the Family Supportive Supervisor Behavior Short-Form (FSSB-SF). *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 18(3), 285.

Hammer LB, Kossek EE, Yragui NL, Bodner TE and Hanson GC (2009) Development and validation of a multidimensional measure of family supportive supervisor behaviors (FSSB). *Journal of Management, 35*(4), 837–856.

Hammer LB, Kossek EE, Zimmerman K and Daniels R (2007) *Clarifying the construct of family-supportive supervisory behaviors (FSSB): A multilevel perspective*. In Perrewé PL and Ganster DC (eds) Research in Occupational Stress and Well-being: Vol. 6. Exploring the Work and Non-work Interface. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group, pp. 165–204.

Harris, D. (2010). Oppression of the bereaved: A critical analysis of grief in western society. OMEGA-Journal of death and dying, 60(3), 241-253.

Hardison, H. G., Neimeyer, R. A., & Lichstein, K. L. (2005). Insomnia and complicated grief symptoms in bereaved college students. *Behavioral Sleep Medicine. 3*(2), 99.

Hazen, M. A. (2003). Societal and Workplace Responses to Perinatal Loss: Disenfranchised Grief or Healing Connection. *Human Relations*, *56*(2), 147–166. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726703056002889

Hazen, M. A. (2008). Grief and the Workplace. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *22*(3), 78–86. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2008.34587996

Hazen, M. A. (2009). Recognizing and Responding to Workplace Grief. *Organizational Dynamics*, *38*(4), 290–296. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2009.07.002

Hensley, P. L. & Clayton, P. J. (2008) Bereavement-Related Depression. *Psychiatric Times, 25*(8), 45.

Hersey RB. 1932. Workers' Emotions in Shop and Home: A Study of Individual Workers from the Psychological and Physiological Standpoint. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*, 513–524.

Hochschild, A. R. (1983). *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Hoert, J., Herd, A. M., & Hambrick, M. (2018). The Role of Leadership Support for Health Promotion in Employee Wellness Program Participation, Perceived Job Stress, and Health Behaviors. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *32*(4), 1054–1061. https://doi.org/10.1177/0890117116677798

Holm, M., Alvariza, A., Fürst, C., Öhlen, J., & Årestedt, K. (2018). Psychometric evaluation of the Texas revised inventory of grief in a sample of bereaved family caregivers. *Research in Nursing & Health*, *41*(5), 480–488. https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.21886

Holmes TH and Rahe RH (1967) The social readjustment rating scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research 11*(2), 213–218.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Hülsheger, U. R., & Schewe, A. F. (2011). On the costs and benefits of emotional labor: A meta-analysis of three decades of research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *16*(3), 361–389. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022876

James, J.W. & Friedman, R. (2003). Grief Index: The 'Hidden' Annual Costs of Grief in America's Workplace. The Grief Recovery Institute Educational Foundation In.

Johns Hopkins University. *Covid-19 map*. Johns Hopkins Coronavirus Resource Center. (2023). https://coronavirus.jhu.edu/map.html.

Kahn, J.H.; Hessling, R.M. (2001). Measuring the tendency to conceal versus disclose psychological distress. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 20*, 41–65.

Kelly, J. (2022, October 12). *People don't leave bad jobs, they leave bad bosses: Here's how to be a better manager to maintain and motivate your team*. Forbes. https://www.forbes.com/sites/jackkelly/2019/11/22/people-dont-leave-bad-jobs-they-leave-bad-bosses-heres-how-to-be-a-better-manager-to-maintain-and-motivate-your-team/

Klass, D., Silverman, P. R., & Nickman, S. (1996). Continuing bonds: New understandings of grief. Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Kottke, J. L., & Sharafinski, C. E. (1988). Measuring Perceived Supervisory and Organizational Support. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 48*(4), 1075–1079.

Lathrop, D. (2017). Disenfranchised Grief and Physician Burnout. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, *15*(4), 375–378. https://doi.org/10.1370/afm.2074

Last Acts Workplace Committee (1999), "Research findings from studies with companies and caregivers", available at: www.rwjf.org/reports

Lattanzi-Licht M (1999) When dreams don't work: Professional caregivers and burnout. *Journal of Palliative Care, 15*(2), 62.

Levi-Belz, Y., & Lev-Ari, L. (2019). "Let's Talk About It": The Moderating Role of Self-Disclosure on Complicated Grief over Time among Suicide Survivors. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *16*(19), 3740. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16193740

Lilius, J. M., Worline, M. C., Maitlis, S., Kanov, J., Dutton, J. E., & Frost, P. (2008). The contours and consequences of compassion at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *29*(2), 193–218. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.508

Link, B. and Phelan, J. (2001), "Conceptualising stigma", Annual Review of Sociology, Vol. 27, pp. 363-85.

Locke EA. 1976. The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In Handbook of I/O Psychology, ed. MD Dunnette, pp. 1297–349. Chicago: Rand-McNally. 1st ed.

MacDonald, G., & Leary, M. R. (2005). Why does social exclusion hurt? The relationship between social and physical pain. *Psychological Bulletin, 131*, 202-223.

Maitlis, S. (2019, June 18). *When a colleague is grieving*. Harvard Business Review. https://hbr.org/2019/07/when-a-colleague-is-grieving

Mallick, M. (2020, October 5). It's time to rethink corporate bereavement policies. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from https://hbr.org/2020/10/its-time-to-rethink-corporate-bereavement-policies#:~:text=Give%20more%20time%20off.,businesses%20offer%20paid%20bereavement%20leave.

Martinez-Corts, I., Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., & Boz, M. (2015). Spillover of interpersonal conflicts from work into nonwork: A daily diary study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *20*(3), 326–337. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038661

Mathieu, J. E., & Farr, J. L. (n.d.). *Further Evidence for the Discriminant Validity of Measures of Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement, and Job Satisfaction*. 8.

Matthews, L. R., Quinlan, M. G., & Bohle, P. (2019). Posttraumatic Stress Disorder, Depression, and Prolonged Grief Disorder in Families Bereaved by a Traumatic Workplace Death: The Need for Satisfactory Information and Support. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, *10*, 609. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyt.2019.00609

Mesmer-Magnus JR, DeChurch LA, Wax A. 2012. Moving emotional labor beyond surface and deep acting: a discordance–congruence perspective. *Organizational Psychology Review. 2*(1), 6–53.

Motowidlo SJ. 1996. Orientation toward the job and organization. In Individual Differences and Behavior in Organizations, ed. KR Murphy, pp. 175–208. San Francisco: JosseyBass.

McNally, R. D. S., Winterowd, C. L., & Farra, A. (2021). Psychological sense of community, perceived social support, and grief experiences among bereaved college students. *College Student Journal, 55*(1), 67–79.

Miet, A. (2015). Work Life Conflict: The Spillover Effect. *International Journal of Research in Management*, *2*(1), 7.

Montano, S. A., Lewey, J. H., O'Toole, S. K., & Graves, D. (2016). Reliability generalization of the Texas Revised Inventory of Grief (TRIG). *Death Studies*, *40*(4), 256–262. https://doi.org/10.1080/07481187.2015.1129370

Moss J (2017) Making your workplace safe for grief. Harvard Business Review Online. Available at: https://hbr.org/2017/06/making-your-workplace-safe-for-grief

Mowday, R. T, Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14,* 224-247.

Nietzel, M. T. (2024, February 20). *Percentage of U.S. adults with college degree or postsecondary credential reaches new high, according to lumina report*. Forbes. https://www.forbes.com/sites/michaeltnietzel/2023/02/01/percentage-of-us-adults-with-a-college-degree-postsecondary-credential-reaches-new-high-according-to-lumina/

O'Connor, M., Watts, J., Bloomer, M., & Larkins, K. (2010). Loss and grief in the workplace: What can we learn from the literature? *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, *3*(2), 131–142. https://doi.org/10.1108/17538351011055023

O'Connor, M.-F., & Seeley, S. H. (2022). Grieving as a form of learning: Insights from neuroscience applied to grief and loss. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *43*, 317–322. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2021.08.019

O. Hansson, W. Stroebe, & H. Schut (Eds.), Handbook of bereavement research: Consequences, coping, and care (pp. 25-46). Washington, DC: American Psychological Press.b

Palmer FA (2004) Grief in the workplace: A case study of how grief associated with the death of a child affects the organization (Doctoral dissertation). Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.

Parkes, C. M. (1981). Bereavement: Studies of grief in adult life. Madison, CT: International Universities Press.

Parkes, C. M. (1997). Bereavement: What most people should know. In J. D. Morgan (Ed.), Readings in thanatology (pp. 241-253). Amityville, NY: Baywood.

Pelled LH, Xin KR. 1999. Down and out: an investigation of the relationship between mood and employee withdrawal behavior. *Journal of Management, 25,* 875–95

Pescolido AT. 2002. Emergent leaders as managers of group emotion. *Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 583–599.

Petriglieri, G., & Maitlis, S. (n.d.). *When a Colleague Is Grieving*. 7.

Pirola-Merlo A, H¨artel CEJ, Mann L, Hirst G. 2002. How leaders influence the impact of affective events on team climate and performance in R&D teams. *Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 561–581.

Riforgiate, S. E., Howes, S. S., & Simmons, M. J. (2022). The Impact of Daily Emotional Labor on Health and Well-Being. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *36*(3), 391–417. https://doi.org/10.1177/08933189211041352

Renzenbrink, I. (2002), "Foundations of bereavement support in hospice and palliative care. A discussion paper, remembering the past, living the present, shaping the future", Irish Hospice Foundation, Dublin.

Rosenblatt, P. C. (1988). Grief: The social context of private feelings. *Journal of Social Issues, 44*(3), 67-78.

RStudio Team (2021). RStudio: Integrated Development Environment for R. RStudio, PBC, Boston, MA URL http://www.rstudio.com/.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25, 293–315.

Schein EH. 2004. *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. 3rd ed.

Schmidt, S. (2011). *Work-Life Conflict: Factors Associated with Negative Spillover from Home to Work*. 14.

Servaty-Seib, H.L. & Hamilton, L.A. (2006). Educational performance and persistence of bereaved college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 47*, 225-234.

Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (n.d.). *A Construct Validity Study of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support*. 7.

Shuck, B., Alagaraja, M., Immekus, J., Cumberland, D., & Honeycutt-Elliott, M. (2019). Does Compassion Matter in Leadership? A Two-Stage Sequential Equal Status Mixed Method Exploratory Study of Compassionate Leader Behavior and Connections to Performance in Human Resource Development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *30*(4), 537–564. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21369

Spector, P. E., & Brannick, M. T. (2009). Common method variance or measurement bias? The problem and possible solutions. *The Sage handbook of organizational research methods*, 346-362.

Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM; 2016) *SHRM survey findings: Paid leave in the workplace.* Available at: https://www.shrm.org/hr-today/trends-and-forecasting/research-and-surveys/pages/ 2016-paid-leave-in-the-workplace.aspx

Stinglhamber, F., Marique, G., Caesens, G., Desmette, D., Hansez, I., Hanin, D., & Bertrand, F. (2015). Employees' Organizational Identification and Affective Organizational Commitment: An Integrative Approach. *PLOS ONE*, *10*(4), e0123955. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0123955

Stroebe, M. (1993). Coping with Bereavement: A Review of the Grief Work Hypothesis. OMEGA - *Journal of Death and Dying, 26*(1), 19–42.

Stroebe, M. S., Hansson, R. O., & Stroebe, W. (2001). Introduction: Concepts and issues in contemporary research on bereavement. In M. S. Stroebe, R. O. Hansson, W. Stroebe, & H. Schut (Eds.), Handbook of bereavement research: Consequences, coping, and care (pp. 3-22). Washington, DC: American Psychological Press.

Stroebe, M., Schut, H., & Finkenauer, C. (2001). The traumatization of grief: A conceptual framework for understanding the trauma-bereavement interface. *Israel Journal of Psychiatry and Related Sciences, 38*, 185-201.

Taub, D. J., & Servaty-Seib, H. L. (2008). Developmental and contextual perspectives on bereaved college students. *New Directions for Student Services*, (121), 15-26.

Tehan, G., & Mills, K. (2007). Working memory and short-term memory storage: What does backward recall tell us. *Working memory: Behavioural and neural correlates*, 153-163.

Tehan, M. (2007). The Compassionate Workplace: Leading with the Heart. *Illness, Crisis & Loss*, *15*(3), 205–218. https://doi.org/10.1177/105413730701500303

Tehan, M., & Robinson, P. (2009). Leading the Way: Compassion in the Workplace. *Illness, Crisis & Loss*, *17*(2), 93–111. https://doi.org/10.2190/IL.17.2.b

Tehan, M., & Thompson, N. (2013). Loss and Grief in the Workplace: The Challenge of Leadership. *OMEGA - Journal of Death and Dying*, *66*(3), 265–280. https://doi.org/10.2190/OM.66.3.d

Thayer RE. 1989. The Biopsychology of Mood and Arousal. New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 234 pp.

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R. E., Lowe, K. B., Cartsen, M. K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*, 83-104.

Vickers, M. H. (2009). Journeys Into Grief: Exploring Redundancy for a New Understanding of Workplace Grief. *Journal of Loss and Trauma*, *14*(5), 401–419. https://doi.org/10.1080/15325020902724198

Wagner DT, Barnes CM, Scott BA. 2014. Driving it home: how workplace emotional labor harms employee home life. *Personnel Psychology. 67*(2), 487–516.

Wall, T., Cooper, C., & Brough, P. (2021). *The SAGE Handbook of Organizational Wellbeing*. SAGE Publications Ltd. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781529757187

Walter F, Cole MS, Humphrey RH. 2011. Leadership and emotional intelligence: new directions for a controversial topic: *Academy Management Perspectives, 25*(1), 45–59.

Weiss, R. O. (2001). Grief, bonds, and relationships. In M. S. Stroebe, R. O. Hansson, W. Stroebe, & H. Schut (Eds.), Handbook of bereavement research: Consequences, coping, and care (pp. 47-62). Washington, DC: American Psychological Press.

Weiss HM, Cropanzano R. 1996. Affective Events Theory: a theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In Research in Organization Behavior: An Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews, ed. BM Staw, LL Cummings, 18:1–74. Greenwich, CT: JAI. 373 pp.

Wigert, S. M. F. and B. (2021, December 7). This fixable problem costs U.S. businesses $1 trillion. Gallup.com. Retrieved May 23, 2022, from https://www.gallup.com/workplace/247391/fixable-problem-costs-businesses-trillion.aspx

Williams KJ, Alliger GM. 1994. Role Stressors, Mood Spillover, and Perceptions of Work Family Conflict in Employed Parents. *Academy of Management Journal. 37*(4), 837–68.

Williams KJ, Suls J, Alliger GM, Learner SM, Wan CK. 1991. Multiple role juggling and daily mood states in working mothers: an experience sampling study. *Journal of Applied Psychology. 76*(5), 664–74.

Wilson, D. M., Punjani, S., Song, Q., & Low, G. (2021). A Study to Understand the Impact of Bereavement Grief on the Workplace. *OMEGA - Journal of Death and Dying*, *83*(2), 187–197. https://doi.org/10.1177/0030222819846419

Worden, J. W. (2009). Grief counseling and grief therapy: A handbook for the mental health practitioner (4th ed.). New York: Springer.

Wurmser, L. (1981). The mask of shame. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Yanchus NJ, Eby LT, Lance CE, Drollinger S. 2010. The impact of emotional labor on work–family outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 76*(1), 105–17.

Yukl, G. (2012). Effective Leadership Behavior: What We Know and What Questions Need More Attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *26*(4), 66–85. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2012.0088

Zalewski, J. & Brown, S. "BUT, HOW ARE YOU DOING?" The relationship between grief and job satisfaction and the roles of core self-evaluation and perceived organizational support. SIOP, 2022.

Zajonc RB. 1998. *Emotions*. In Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. DT Gilbert, ST Fiske, G Lindzey, pp. 591–632. Boston: McGrawHill

Zhang, B., El-Jawahri, A., & Prigerson, H. G. (2006). Update on bereavement research: Evidence-based guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of complicated bereavement. *Journal of Palliative Medicine, 9*(5), 11881203. https://doi.org/10.1089/jpm.2006.9.1188

Zhou, Z. E., Meier, L. L., & Spector, P. E. (2019). The spillover effects of coworker, supervisor, and outsider workplace incivility on work-to-family conflict: A weekly diary design. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*(9–10), 1000–1012. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2401

Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P., & Viera-Armas, M. (2019). Does Ethical Leadership Motivate Followers to Participate in Delivering Compassion? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *154*(1), 195–210. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3454-1

Appendices

Appendix A: Texas Revised Inventory of Grief (TRIG)

5-point scale: 1 = Completely false, 2 = Mostly false, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Mostly true, and 5 = Completely true

Past Behaviors Subscale

1. After this person died I found it hard to get along with certain people.
2. I found it hard to work well after this person died.
3. After this person's death I lost interest in my family, friends, and outside activities.
4. I felt a need to do things that the deceased had wanted to do.
5. I was unusually irritable after this person died.
6. I couldn’t keep up with my normal activities for the first 3 months after this person died.
7. I was angry that the person who died left me.
8. I found it hard to sleep after this person died.

Present Emotional Feeling Subscale

1. I still cry when I think of the person who died.
2. I still get upset when I think about the person who died.
3. I cannot accept this person's death.
4. Sometimes I very much miss the person who died.
5. Even now it's painful to recall memories of the person who died.
6. I am preoccupied with thoughts about the person who died.
7. I hide my tears when I think about the person who died.
8. No one will ever take the place in my life of the person who died.
9. I can't avoid thinking about the person who died.

10. I feel it's unfair that this person died.

11. Things and people around me still remind me of the person who died.

12. I am unable to accept the death of the person who died.

13. At times I still feel the need to cry for the person who died.

Appendix B: Survey of Perceived Supervisor Support (SPSS)

5-point scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree

1. My supervisor values my contributions to the well-being of our department.
2. If my supervisor could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary he/she would do so. ®
3. My supervisor appreciates extra effort from me.
4. My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.
5. My supervisor wants to know if I have any complaints.
6. My supervisor takes my best interests into account when he/she makes decisions that affect me.
7. Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem.
8. My supervisor really cares about my well-being.
9. If I did the best job possible, my supervisor would be sure to notice.
10. My supervisor is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
11. My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.
12. If given the opportunity, my supervisor would take advantage of me. ®
13. My supervisor shows a lot of concern for me.
14. My supervisor cares about my opinions.
15. My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
16. My supervisor tries to make my job as interesting as possible.

*® items are reverse scored

Appendix C: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

5-point scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 = Somewhat Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. ®

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. ®

8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. ®

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. ®

12. Often I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. ®

13. I really care about the fate of this organization.

14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. ®

*® items are negatively phrased reverse scored