

---

Theses and Dissertations

---

Spring 2011

# Igniting the fire between leaders and followers: the impact of having the right fit

Russell P. Guay  
*University of Iowa*

Copyright 2011 Russell P. Guay

This dissertation is available at Iowa Research Online: <http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/973>

---

## Recommended Citation

Guay, Russell P.. "Igniting the fire between leaders and followers: the impact of having the right fit." PhD (Doctor of Philosophy) thesis, University of Iowa, 2011.  
<http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/973>.

---

Follow this and additional works at: <http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd>



Part of the [Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons](#)

IGNITING THE FIRE BETWEEN LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS:  
THE IMPACT OF HAVING THE RIGHT FIT

by  
Russell P. Guay

An Abstract

Of a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in  
Business Administration  
in the Graduate College of The University of Iowa

May 2011

Thesis Supervisor: Associate Professor Amy E. Colbert

## ABSTRACT

Transformational leaders inspire followers to perform beyond expectations and to become transformational leaders themselves. Research evidence shows that transformational leadership has positive effects on people, teams, organizations, and nations. In addition to producing higher levels of follower performance, transformational leadership results in increased follower satisfaction and commitment. However, there is still much to be learned about the complex set of antecedents that predict perceptions of transformational leader behaviors, and research is scarce regarding moderators that impact the relationship between leader behavior and follower outcomes. Most research regarding antecedents of transformational leadership has focused on leader personality and other individual differences, but there are other potential predictors not addressed in the literature, such as how the match between a leader and the situation influences transformational leadership. This study expanded upon previous research by examining the constructs of person-organization fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit as predictors of transformational leader behavior. Because followers' fit with the situation may influence their receptiveness to transformational leadership, I also examined follower perceptions of their own person-supervisor fit and person-organization fit as moderators of the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes. I hypothesized that these relationships would be stronger for those with higher levels of fit perceptions and recruited participants from multiple organizations to test the hypotheses. A sample of 215 leaders across 10 organizations provided self-report data regarding the proposed antecedents, as well as their personality characteristics, the need for change in their work unit, and the performance of their followers. Their supervisors provided ratings of leader effectiveness and assessed the need for change in the leader's work unit. A sample of 1,284 followers assessed the leaders' transformational leader behaviors and provided self-report data regarding the proposed fit moderators and their own work attitudes, which included job

satisfaction and intentions to quit. Analytic strategies used to test the hypotheses were correlational analysis, multiple regression, hierarchical linear modeling, and moderated mediation. Initial regression results showed that both needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit were significantly related to transformational leadership. After control variables were taken into account, only demands-abilities fit remained significantly related to transformational leadership. Consistent with previous research, transformational leadership was related to boss ratings of leader effectiveness as well as to follower job satisfaction, intentions to quit (negative), and organizational citizenship behaviors (but not to task performance). Of the proposed moderators, support was found for the interaction of transformational leadership and person-supervisor fit influencing intentions to quit (intentions to quit was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-supervisor fit), the interaction of transformational leadership and person-organization fit influencing intentions to quit (intentions to quit was negatively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-organization fit), and also for the interaction of transformational leadership and person-organization fit influencing task performance (task performance was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-organization fit). Theoretical and managerial implications are also discussed, along with limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

Abstract Approved: \_\_\_\_\_

Thesis Supervisor

\_\_\_\_\_  
Title and Department

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

IGNITING THE FIRE BETWEEN LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS:  
THE IMPACT OF HAVING THE RIGHT FIT

by  
Russell P. Guay

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in  
Business Administration  
in the Graduate College of The University of Iowa

May 2011

Thesis Supervisor: Associate Professor Amy E. Colbert

Copyright by  
RUSSELL P. GUAY  
2011  
All Rights Reserved

Graduate College  
The University of Iowa  
Iowa City, Iowa

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

---

PH.D. THESIS

---

This is to certify that the Ph.D. thesis of

Russell P. Guay

has been approved by the Examining Committee for the thesis requirement for the  
Doctor of Philosophy degree in Business Administration at the May 2011 graduation.

Thesis Committee:

\_\_\_\_\_  
Amy E. Colbert, Thesis Supervisor

\_\_\_\_\_  
Kenneth G. Brown

\_\_\_\_\_  
Amy L. Kristof-Brown

\_\_\_\_\_  
Greg L. Stewart

\_\_\_\_\_  
Thomas E. Vaughn

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The support of my committee, my colleagues, and my family has been invaluable and sincerely appreciated throughout not only my dissertation, but the entire duration of the doctoral program. First, I want to thank my committee chair, mentor, advisor, and friend -- Amy Colbert. Throughout my dissertation and my entire time at the University of Iowa, Amy has always been willing to share her knowledge, advice, and encouragement. All aspects of this dissertation were made better by her input. I am sincerely thankful for all of the support she has shown to me over the past few years. She has made me a better researcher and teacher and will undoubtedly continue to be an inspiration to me throughout my academic career.

I would also like to thank my committee members -- Amy Kristof-Brown, Greg Stewart, Ken Brown, and Tom Vaughn -- for their excellent comments and valuable advice. I have always heard about the importance of choosing the right committee members and I am glad to say that I am very happy with the committee I chose. Each of them has been very supportive and has been great about providing feedback. They have improved this dissertation and also made me a more complete academic, both in terms of research and in front of the classroom.

I also want to thank all of the remaining departmental faculty members I have learned from and who provided me with numerous opportunities to grow as an academic -- Sara Rynes, Terry Boles, Maria Kraimer, Frank Schmidt, Lon Moeller, and Jay Christensen-Szalanski, to name a few. In addition, thank you to the past and present graduate students who have always been supportive and willing to provide assistance over the years -- Laura Parks, In-Sue Oh, Amit Nandkeolyar, Tamara Giluk, Ben Postlethwaite, Gang Wang, Daejeong Choi, Steve Courtright, and Steve Charlier. I also want to thank Marlene Grout and Renea Jay for all of their assistance and support over the past five years. You are both tremendous assets to the university.



I am also very grateful to my former supervisors and instructors who prepared me well for a career in HR and in academia. Despite my having doubts during the first semester of graduate school, I know I made the right career choice. Your inspiration helped push me to become a good teacher, and for that, I am very appreciative as I am very thankful to have found a career that I am so passionate about.

Thank you also to the participants in this dissertation and their entire organizations for supporting the study. Managers and employees at ten organizations gave generously of their time to provide the data. Many also shared their thoughts with me about my research and suggested excellent ideas for future studies. Their opinions have shaped my leadership views in many ways.

Additionally, I want to thank my parents -- Cheryl (Maury) Allen and Gary (Judi) Guay, siblings (Michelle Carini and Jared Guay), grandmothers, and in-laws for all of their love and support over the years. I have learned a lot from all of you and am very appreciative of everything you have done for me throughout my life. I also want to thank our cat, Gizmo, for always being excited to see me every day. Whether I am on the couch, in the recliner, or in my office chair, she is often right next to me.

And most of all, I want to thank my loving wife Lara. She helped me make the decision to attend graduate school and was willing to move across the country so that I could be a Hawkeye for the past five years. She has sacrificed greatly by working many long hours during this time so that she could support us financially during this endeavor and by taking on the vast majority of our household duties. She has very much been my partner in obtaining this degree and deserves much of the credit for it. She is my best friend and is always willing to listen and assist in any way she can even when I haven't deserved it. Thank you for always believing in me. As I learned a few months ago from a good friend, "a happy wife equals a happy life". Lara deserves all the happiness in the world and I promise to work harder to bring that to her. Without her, none of this would

matter. I look forward to the start of our next journey together at the University of Northern Iowa in August 2011.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES .....	x
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION .....	1
II. LITERATURE REVIEW .....	13
Transformational Leadership Overview .....	13
Antecedents of Transformational Leadership .....	19
Individual Differences .....	20
Personality .....	21
Gender .....	28
Emotional Intelligence .....	29
Biodata .....	30
Ethics and Morality .....	31
Leader Psychological States .....	32
Motivation .....	32
Empowerment .....	33
Cynicism about Organizational Change .....	33
Workplace Environment .....	33
Social Context .....	34
Organizational Characteristics .....	34
Culture .....	34
Psychological Climate .....	34
Hypotheses Development for Antecedents of Transformational Leadership .....	35
Person-Organization Fit .....	37
Meta-Analyses of P-O Fit Research .....	38
P-O Fit with Transformational Leadership .....	39
Motivation to Lead .....	42
Motivation to Lead and Transformational Leadership .....	47
Needs-Supplies Fit .....	53
Meta-Analysis of Needs-Supplies Fit Research .....	54
Needs-Supplies Fit and Transformational Leadership .....	54
Demands-Abilities Fit .....	56
Meta-Analysis of Demands-Abilities Fit Research .....	57
Demands-Abilities Fit and Transformational Leadership .....	57
Need for Change .....	59
Big Five Personality .....	60
Leader Effectiveness .....	61
Follower Outcomes .....	64
Job Satisfaction .....	64
Intentions to Quit .....	65
Job/Task Performance .....	67
Organizational Citizenship Behavior .....	68
Follower Moderators .....	69
Hypotheses Development for Follower Fit Moderators .....	71
Person-Supervisor Fit .....	75
Meta-Analysis of P-S Fit Research .....	75

Studies of Leader-Follower Value Congruence and Transformational Leadership.....	76
Person-Organization Fit.....	82
Meta-Analysis of P-O Fit Research.....	82
Studies of Follower-Organization Value Congruence and Transformational Leadership.....	83
III. METHODOLOGY.....	87
Participants.....	87
Procedure.....	90
Measures.....	91
IV. RESULTS.....	98
Aggregation of Leadership Data.....	98
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	99
Leader Perceptions of Self.....	99
Follower Perceptions of Leader.....	101
Leader Perceptions of Followers.....	101
Follower Perceptions of Self.....	102
Descriptive Statistics.....	104
Hypothesis Testing.....	104
Hypotheses 1a-1d.....	118
Hypothesis 1e.....	121
Direct and Indirect Effects of Personality on Motivation to Lead.....	123
Indirect Assessment of Demands-Abilities Fit.....	125
Hypothesis 2.....	129
Group-level Mediation on Leader Effectiveness.....	129
Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM).....	133
Hypothesis 3a.....	134
Hypothesis 3b.....	136
Hypothesis 3c.....	136
Hypothesis 3d.....	139
Hypothesis 4a.....	139
Hypothesis 4b.....	142
Hypothesis 4c.....	144
Hypothesis 4d.....	146
Hypothesis 4e.....	146
Hypothesis 4f.....	148
Hypothesis 4g.....	149
Hypothesis 4h.....	150
Hypothesis 5.....	151
V. DISCUSSION.....	163
Hypotheses 1a-1e.....	164
Hypothesis 2.....	169
Hypotheses 3a-3d.....	170
Hypotheses 4a-4h.....	171
Hypothesis 5.....	175
Practical Implications.....	175
Limitations.....	178
Future Research.....	180

Conclusion.....	182
REFERENCES .....	185
APPENDIX. DISSERTATION SURVEY ITEMS .....	203

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	
1. Comparison of Measurement Models for All Predictors of Transformational Leadership.....	100
2. Comparison of Measurement Models for Dimensions of Transformational Leadership.....	101
3. Comparison of Measurement Models for Follower Performance .....	102
4. Comparison of Measurement Models for Follower Attitudes and Fit.....	103
5. Leader-level Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Intercorrelations Matrix.....	105
6. Follower-level Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Intercorrelations Matrix.....	114
7. Summary of Regression Analysis Results for All Potential Predictors of Transformational Leadership .....	119
8. Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Hypothesized Predictors of Transformational Leadership .....	120
9. Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Interaction between Demands-Abilities Fit and Perceptions of Need for Change .....	122
10. Summary of Regression for Direct and Indirect Effects of Leader Personality on Motivation to Lead and Transformational Leadership .....	124
11. Results of Polynomial Regression Analysis for Perceptions of Leadership / Managerial Demands and Abilities.....	127
12. Summary of Regression Analysis Results in Predicting Leader Effectiveness.....	130
13. Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Group-level Mediation on Leader Effectiveness.....	131
14. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction .....	135
15. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Intentions to Quit .....	137
16. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Task Performance .....	138
17. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on OCB .....	140

18. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Job Satisfaction .....	141
19. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Intentions to Quit .....	143
20. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Task Performance .....	145
21. Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on OCB .....	147
22. Results for Test of Transformational Leadership as a Mediator of the Relationship between Leader Demands-Abilities Fit and Follower Intentions to Quit.....	154
23. Results for Test of Transformational Leadership as a Mediator of the Relationship between Leader Demands-Abilities Fit and Follower Task Performance.....	156
24. Results for Test of Moderated Mediation of Follower P-S and P-O Fit in the Leader Demands-Abilities Fit→TFL→Follower Intentions to Quit Relationship...	159
25. Results for Test of Moderated Mediation of Follower P-S and P-O Fit in the Leader Demands-Abilities Fit→TFL→Follower Task Performance Relationship.....	160

## LIST OF FIGURES

### Figure

1. Model for the Study .....	88
2. Surface Graph of the Relationship of Leadership Demands and Abilities Ratings with Transformational Leadership .....	128
3. Surface Graph of the Relationship of Managerial Demands and Abilities Ratings with Transformational Leadership .....	128
4. Interaction between Follower P-S Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Intentions to Quit .....	144
5. Interaction between Follower P-O Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Intentions to Quit .....	149
6. Interaction between Follower P-O Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Task Performance .....	151



## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The notion of leaders and of leadership has been around for many centuries and there is a plethora of practitioner-based books on the topic. However, good leaders are not as common as they should be in any aspect of life as evidenced by scandals and corruption in the corporate business world, politics, religion, athletics, and even in comic strips such as Dilbert. In his classic work, Burns (1978, p. 19) defined leadership as “leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations - the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations - of both leaders and followers.” Although many leadership theories have been developed and studied extensively, transformational leadership has become the most frequently researched and supported theory over the past two decades (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Judge & Bono, 2000) because of its demonstrated influence on increasing followers’ positive attitudes, behaviors, and levels of performance. Transformational leadership extends other leadership theories through its focus on important behaviors that include motivating followers to commit to challenging goals, providing them with the confidence needed to perform beyond expectations, being role models for the organization, communicating an enthusiastic vision for the future, challenging the status quo, and developing their followers to meet their full potential (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transformational leadership has been defined as “leader behaviors that transform and inspire followers to perform beyond expectations while transcending self-interest for the good of the organization” (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 423). The Judge and Piccolo (2004) meta-analysis showed that transformational leadership was positively associated with leadership effectiveness and several important organizational outcomes (such as increased productivity and decreased turnover) across organizations, cultures, situations, and levels of analyses.

In the current world of corporate mergers, layoffs, shifting demographics, workplace diversity, continued advances in technology, and uncertainty about the

economy, transformational leadership is likely to become even more important. Leaders will need to demonstrate confidence, provide direction, and motivate followers to remain engaged and committed to their organizations' objectives. The increasing number of corporate scandals in the past decade has also put emphasis on hiring and/or developing ethical leaders. Strong leaders are needed not only to create policies and procedures but also to push followers to perform beyond expectations and subsequently to achieve levels of excellence, sustain a positive culture, and motivate followers to become good leaders themselves. Numerous studies have shown that followers' commitment, loyalty, satisfaction, and performance are related to transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Whether companies choose to hire these leaders from other companies or develop them from within the organization, having transformational leaders is critical to an organization's survival in these challenging times.

As noted, leadership is a key contributor to employees' perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In the recent 2009 SHRM Employee Job Satisfaction Survey, employees continued to rank relationships with their managers and supervisors very highly among the items that caused them to be satisfied with their jobs (SHRM, 2009). The relationship with an immediate supervisor was reported by 52% of respondents, manager recognition of job performance by 52%, and communication between employee and management by 51%. As a comparison, the top three items were job security (63%), benefits (60%), and pay (57%). Because leadership is a critical factor, it is crucial for companies to select and develop leaders who can help followers remain satisfied and committed. Unfortunately, that does not seem to be happening. A recent report by the Conference Board research group found that only 45% of U.S. workers are satisfied with their work despite feeling fortunate just to have a job. Not only is this number decreasing, but it is the lowest level of job satisfaction ever recorded by the Conference Board in its 22 years of studying the issue (MSNBC, 2010). Although better leaders alone will not be enough to completely reverse that trend, the ability of

transformational leaders to influence follower attitudes and motivate followers to perform beyond expectations is well supported in leadership research (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Followers need a leader they can believe in, whether in the corporate world, the military, politics, or on the athletic field.

Hundreds of studies on transformational leadership as well as multiple meta-analyses have compiled results of research in this area. Meta-analytic evidence has shown that transformational leadership results in higher levels of leader effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leaders (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), as well as follower job satisfaction (DeGroot et al.; Judge & Piccolo), follower organizational commitment (DeGroot et al.; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), follower job performance (Fuller et al.; Judge & Piccolo; Lowe et al.), and group/organization performance (Judge & Piccolo). Transformational leadership has been shown to lead to follower feelings of empowerment, engagement, creativity, and to reduced stress and burnout. It also has effects on organizations such as increased innovation, employee retention, increased unit financial performance, improved market share, customer satisfaction, and even occupational safety (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

Although leadership researchers have undoubtedly made significant progress on answering numerous questions in recent years, there is still progress to be made and excitement remaining in the field of leadership research. For example, in a recent leadership review (Avolio et al., 2009; p. 423), the authors concluded, "Looking back over the past 100 years, we cannot imagine a more opportune time for the field of leadership studies. Never before has so much attention been paid to leadership, and the fundamental question we must ask is, what do we know and what should we know about leaders and leadership?" Two of the primary areas in which more empirical evidence is needed include antecedents of transformational leadership and follower differences that impact response to transformational leaders.

A number of studies in the research literature have examined potential predictors of transformational leadership, such as leaders' personality (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1993; Judge & Bono, 2000), emotions or emotional intelligence (e.g., Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005), and biodata (Avolio, 1994). However, numerous researchers have called for further study of individual differences and contextual antecedents of transformational leadership (e.g., Bass, 1998; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004; Walter & Bruch, 2009). This incomplete picture of predictors of transformational leadership, or why some leaders engage in transformational leadership behavior and others do not, makes it difficult for organizations seeking to hire or develop transformational leaders to determine whether their prospective candidates are likely to succeed in these critical leadership roles.

A goal of this study was to further understanding of transformational leadership antecedents by examining additional factors that may impact the extent to which leaders display transformational leader behaviors. Transformational leadership is a set of behaviors, and behavior is a function of both the person (with a set of pre-existing individual differences) and the environment. Although we know a great deal about how leaders' individual differences influence transformational leadership (for example, the Big Five personality traits of conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, and openness to experience; e.g., Bono & Judge, 2004), there is a large gap in the research literature in terms of how leaders' fit with the environmental situation impacts transformational leadership behaviors. For example, what happens when a leader connects with the situation and decides that there is a match? It is likely that this fit of leaders to situations will influence the extent to which transformational leader behaviors are exhibited. As argued by transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985), what effective leaders accomplish depends not only on the leader but also on the situation. Subsequently, the framework of person-environment (P-E) fit theory suggests that transformational leader behaviors will be influenced not only by leaders and by their

surroundings in the environment but also by the match between the two. P-E fit is defined as the “compatibility that occurs when individual and work environment characteristics are well matched” (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010, p. 3). A goal of this dissertation was to capture how the fit between person and situation impacts transformational leader behaviors. This is an area that has received very little (if any) empirical attention in the literature and likely holds importance for organizations, especially those that have a preference for promoting future leaders from within.

The proposed antecedents—person-organization fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit—assess the leaders’ match with some aspect of their environment. Several of these potential predictors can be classified as motives, such as person-organization fit, motivation to lead, and needs-supplies fit. Meanwhile, demands-abilities fit would be classified more as a capacity (or ability) because fit with the situation is not entirely motivational. Given that they address leader perceptions regarding their match with the situation, these antecedents capture the person-situation intersection and are consistent with the notion that a leader may be viewed as more transformational in some situations than in others. When leaders perceive more of a match with the environment, they should be more likely to exhibit transformational leader behaviors. In the current study, I investigate whether these situational fit perceptions may subsequently lead to transformational leadership behaviors. Taking into account the perceptions of a match between the leader and the situation goes beyond current research to consider how the situational fit also influences transformational leadership.

Person-organization (P-O) fit and person-job (P-J) fit have been studied extensively, and several meta-analyses have examined their consequences (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). These two types of fit have been of considerable interest to both academia and practice for several years because high levels

of fit have been viewed as key for employee retention and organizational commitment (Kristof, 1996). In an often-cited definition that takes into account the numerous conceptualizations of fit, Kristof (1996, pp. 4-5) defined P-O fit as “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both.” Because of the perception that their own values are in alignment with the values of the organization, leaders who perceive high levels of P-O fit will be better at communicating an enthusiastic vision for the future (Bass, 1985). They will also inspire followers to the collective mission by linking the organization’s values to the followers’ values (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Further, leaders with high levels of P-O fit will feel that the organization is part of their own identity. As such, they will have pride in the firm’s history and thus instill pride within their followers.

The concept of motivation to lead was developed as a broad theoretical framework for comprehending how individual differences influence leadership effectiveness by taking into account both knowledge and relatively stable individual difference factors such as personality, values, and interests (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Chan and Drasgow defined motivation to lead as an “individual differences construct that affects a leader’s or leader-to-be’s decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader” (p. 482). Although some of the individual differences within motivation to lead are stable, motivation to lead itself can change as a person acquires leadership development or leadership experience; thus, it also includes perceptions of readiness to lead. Social-normative motivation to lead (the perception that being a leader is a duty or responsibility) may influence leadership behaviors; however, the component of motivation to lead most of interest in the current study is that of affective-identity motivation to lead, that is, the motivation of people who desire to lead or enjoy being in leadership roles. For leaders to truly fit with the situation, they need to be motivated to

be leaders. The social-normative dimension may capture demands-abilities fit with regard to the leadership role as it is possible that these leaders will feel a sense of duty to lead because of their abilities. However, they may have no desire to be leaders and thus receive no enjoyment from being in leadership roles. This may result in an attempt at leadership or at leader emergence, but social-normative motivation to lead will not necessarily motivate transformational leadership. In contrast, when affective-identity motivation to lead is high, leaders want to lead for the enjoyment of doing so. Thus, being a leader supplies them with the rewards of a job assuming the position allows/encourages them to be transformational. In addition, the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) stated that the best predictors of preferred behaviors are behavioral intentions. As such, if people intend to be strong leaders and have affective-identity motivation to lead, they are more likely to have positive attitudes toward leadership. They are likely to demonstrate the positive behaviors of transformational leadership due in part to their need for personal development and growth (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

Most often used in recruitment or selection research, the construct of P-J fit examines the compatibility of a person's characteristics with those of the specific job (e.g., Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). One conceptualization of P-J fit is that of needs-supplies fit, which occurs when a person feels that his/her needs or desires are met by the job (Edwards, 1991). Leaders are more likely to display transformational behaviors when they feel that their own needs are being met by their leadership roles (Shamir et al., 1993). In that situation, leaders are more likely to feel a sense of commitment from the organization. Thus, they are more willing to try to motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations and to develop them into the organization's future leaders.

Up to this point, the focus has been on motives as predictors of transformational leadership. Another potential category of antecedents in the current study is that of capacity (or ability) because fit with the situation is not entirely motivational. The

capacity dimension that is relevant here is that of demands-abilities fit. This type of fit is another dimension of P-J fit and is often viewed as traditional selection that matches the individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to the requirements of the job (Ployhart, Schneider, & Schmitt, 2006). It is likely that leaders who feel their KSAs are a good fit with their leadership roles will perceive that they have what is required to be successful leaders and thus demonstrate transformational behaviors. For example, leaders are more likely to display motivational and developmental behaviors when they feel that their own abilities are a good fit with their leadership role. Demands-abilities fit should be especially relevant in encouraging transformational leadership when the demands are related to the need for a leader or to the need for change. In that case, leaders are more likely to try to bring about change through inspiring followers to challenge the status quo and think outside the box in the quest for continuous improvement. In summary, if leaders perceive more of a match with the environment (such as through P-O fit or P-J fit), they will exhibit higher levels of transformational leader behaviors than if they perceive themselves to have lower levels of fit. However, current research has yet to examine how leader perceptions of fit with the situation influence their likelihood of engaging in transformational leadership behaviors.

*Research Question #1: How do leader perceptions of fit with the situation, such as person-organization fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit, influence transformational leadership behaviors?*

Just as leaders' fit with the situation is expected to predict transformational leadership, followers' fit with the situation may influence their receptiveness to transformational leadership. This study also examines follower perceptions of their own fit as moderators in the relationship between perceptions of transformational leadership and follower attitudinal and performance outcomes. Howell and Shamir (2005) suggested that the follower has finally been recognized as a factor in leadership research in recent years, and Shamir (2007) concluded that leadership effectiveness is just as much



based on having good followers as it is on having good leaders. In a recent leadership review (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 422), the authors stated the following:

Today, the field of leadership focuses not only on the leader, but also on followers, peers, supervisors, work setting/context, and culture, including a much broader array of individuals representing the entire spectrum of diversity, public, private, and not-for-profit organizations, and increasingly over the past 20 years, samples of populations from nations around the globe.

For example, some studies have examined contextual variables that mediate or moderate the relationship of transformational leadership with followers' level of motivation and performance at individual, group, and organizational levels (e.g., Keller, 2006; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007), whereas others have explored topics such as physical and structural distance (e.g., Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004), cultural differences (e.g., Walumbwa & Lawler 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2007), and network centrality (Bono & Anderson, 2005). Despite recent work, this remains a largely untapped area for future researchers.

It has been 15 years since Klein and House (1995, p. 186) called for research on charismatic leadership to investigate aspects of the leader, the follower, and the environment. They portrayed the leader as the "spark," the follower as the "flammable material," and a conducive environment as the "oxygen." When these three parts meet, the result is charisma (the "fire") that ignites energy and commitment in followers, thus leading to increased morale and performance that exceed expectations. Klein and House contended that strong leader characteristics are not sufficient by themselves to ignite charisma among followers. They argued that followers who are open to charisma or who are comfortable with the vision and style of the leader are also a needed ingredient in creating the fire. For example, when followers sought to work for a specific leader and later had the option of leaving the leader but chose to remain, they were more likely to be similar in values to their leader and a charismatic relationship was likely to follow.

Although followers are now starting to receive their due as an important component in leadership effectiveness, very little research has examined the role of

follower differences in this complex puzzle. Yukl (1999) called for researchers to focus more on understanding the moderating and mediating mechanisms that link transformational leadership to follower outcomes. The current study attempts to further our understanding of the impact of follower fit perceptions on response to leadership in terms of attitudes (job satisfaction and intentions to quit) and job performance (task and organizational citizenship behavior). The moderators examined in the current study—person-supervisor fit and person-organization fit—are of importance in both academia and practice. In each case the follower fit perception is expected to moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower outcomes, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes is stronger as the level of the moderator increases.

One relevant fit conceptualization is that of person-individual fit, which is the “dyadic relationship between individuals and others in their work environments” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287). Although it can occur between any two individuals, this type of fit is most often examined as the match between supervisors and their subordinates (e.g., Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994). This is referred to as person-supervisor (P-S) fit and is conceptualized in the current study as values congruence between leader and follower (e.g., Colbert, 2004; Krishnan, 2002). There are several reasons why transformational leadership would be expected to have a more positive effect on followers with high levels of P-S fit. Given that followers with high levels of P-S fit should feel that their values closely align with their supervisor’s values, they will be more willing to respond to the positive vision communicated. Because of the perceived similarity with the leader, these followers should strive for higher performance when challenged to do so. The leader’s appeals to values should be salient and meaningful to the followers who share those values. Followers who do not share those values will not respond as strongly. In addition, followers with higher levels of P-S fit should feel that leaders have the followers’ best interests in mind when providing them with stretch

assignments in an attempt to further their development. Because these followers perceive that their values are consistent with their leaders' values, they should respond to developmental opportunities out of trust in and respect for their leaders.

As stated earlier, person-organization (P-O) fit is the perception that individuals' personal values match the values of the organization for which they work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Transformational leadership is expected to have a more positive effect on followers with high levels of P-O fit. Because these followers identify with the organization, they should be more willing to respond to the positive vision communicated through inspirational motivation. They should also be more willing to improve performance for the good of the organization when challenged to exceed expectations due in part to their feeling less stress and less intent to leave the organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Finally, followers with high levels of P-O fit should be excited when transformational leaders develop them into leaders. Because they feel their values are in alignment with the organization, they will respond to developmental opportunities that allow them to grow within the organization.

*Research Question #2: How do follower perceptions of their own fit interact with transformational leadership to influence how followers respond to transformational leaders?*

In sum, this research contributes to the transformational leadership literature in two ways. First, although individual differences such as personality (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2000; Ross & Offermann, 1997), emotional intelligence (e.g., Rubin et al., 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999), and biodata (e.g., Avolio, 1994) have been studied frequently as antecedents of transformational leadership, no study has examined how situational fit impacts who exhibits transformational leadership behaviors. In this study, I examine person-organization fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit in terms of their potential for predicting transformational leader behaviors. These constructs are consistent with the notion that a leader may be viewed as more transformational in

some situations than in others. In addition, research has yet to examine motivation to lead as a predictor of transformational leadership. Thus, an interesting empirical question is whether individuals with high levels of motivation to lead are perceived as demonstrating more transformational leader behaviors and being more effective leaders than those with little desire to be in leadership roles.

Second, researchers have yet to examine follower differences in perceptions of their own fit as moderators in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower attitude/performance outcomes despite several recent calls for more research on followers (e.g., Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Klein & House, 1995; Yukl, 1999). Given that this is a relatively untapped area, the current study examines the role of follower P-S fit and follower P-O fit as potential moderators of the relationships between transformational leadership and follower outcomes.

Although leadership is crucial to organizational success, Klein and House (1995) pointed out that both leaders and followers have important roles in building transformational relationships. This dissertation provides insight into how leaders connect with the situation and with their followers. It also examines how follower fit perceptions impact their response to transformational leaders. The impact of the situation on leaders and of the leader on followers must come together to create the “fire” that ignites energy and commitment in followers, thus leading to additional positive outcomes. If the hypotheses are confirmed, organizations will be able (a) to better assess their own employees to predict who may be effective leaders within the organization, and (b) to examine how follower fit perceptions predict the impact of transformational leaders in terms of follower work attitudes and performance levels.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Transformational Leadership Overview**

Transformational leadership is a component of the Full Range of Leadership (FRL; Avolio & Bass, 1991) model, and is the most extensively studied and supported leadership theory in all of leadership research (Sosik & Jung, 2010). It has been supported in a wide variety of settings, such as corporate, military, religious, educational, and nonprofit. It has been studied more often than all other leadership theories or models combined (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). When Burns (1978) first conceptualized transformational leadership, he defined it as follows:

The transforming leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and leaders into moral agents. (p. 4)

More recently, Northouse (2007) described transformational leadership as:

...a process that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals and includes assessing followers' emotions, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. Transformational leadership involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them. It is a process that incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership. (pp. 175-176)

Bass (1985), and later Bass and Avolio (1994), defined the four most commonly studied dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. *Idealized influence* (sometimes referred to as charisma) emphasizes trust, values, morals, and ethics, and appeals to the emotions of followers. It represents self-confidence, self-determination, and being held in high regard. Leaders who demonstrate idealized influence also command loyalty from followers and instill pride in them by showing a strong sense of purpose. They also effectively communicate the importance of company values, beliefs, and a collective mission.

*Inspirational motivation* represents an appealing vision for the future based on values, ideals, and high expectations. This dimension consists of leaders providing meaning and challenge to followers' work as well as using inspiring messages to reframe the big picture and arouse the emotions of followers. These leaders also focus on the best in people by demonstrating confidence that followers will achieve their goals. They provide the energy and direction needed to fuel the actions of followers, thus allowing them to rise above limitations (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

*Intellectual stimulation* challenges old assumptions, beliefs, and traditions, while encouraging new ways of thinking. These leaders challenge the status quo by thinking "outside the box" to lead followers down a path of creativity and innovation. They seek continuous improvement even if it leads to failure in the short-term. In addition, they stimulate extra effort among followers by showing support (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

*Individualized consideration* refers to leaders who consider the needs, abilities, and development goals of followers while coaching and mentoring them. This dimension has the ultimate aim of developing followers into transformational leaders themselves. These leaders show empathy and listen closely to the concerns of followers so they can recognize the mindset and emotions of their followers. They also show appreciation for a job well done. In addition, they assign challenging developmental projects that will provide further learning and lead to follower confidence (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

In summary, transformational leaders use behaviors to motivate their followers to commit to challenging goals. They provide them with the confidence needed to perform beyond expectations by being role models for their organization. They also communicate an enthusiastic vision for the future, challenge the status quo, and develop their followers to meet their full potential and exceed expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The above four dimensions that Bass developed represent the most widely used transformational

leadership framework and are typically measured via the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). As reported by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1995), the MLQ-5x dimensions display high reliability and provide evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity. The four dimensions are strong indicators of transformational leadership. In addition, they are often highly correlated and load on one higher order factor. As such, I will be focusing on the higher order transformational leadership factor throughout this dissertation. The Judge and Piccolo (2004) transformational leadership meta-analysis reported that the mean correlation among the four dimensions of transformational leadership is .83 (.89 when corrected for unreliability); thus, they are clearly correlated highly enough to support the decision to treat them as a higher order transformational leadership factor.

Meta-analytic evidence has shown that transformational leadership results in higher levels of leader effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leaders (DeGroot et al., 2000; Fuller et al., 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996), as well as in follower job satisfaction (DeGroot et al.; Judge & Piccolo), organizational commitment (DeGroot et al.; Meyer et al.) job performance (Fuller et al.; Judge & Piccolo; Lowe et al.), and group/organization performance (Judge & Piccolo). Transformational leadership has also been shown to lead to follower feelings of empowerment, engagement, and creativity, as well as less stress and burnout, and to effects on organizations such as increased innovation, employee retention, increased unit financial performance, improved market share, customer satisfaction, and even occupational safety (Sosik & Jung, 2010).

From a historical perspective, the theoretical bases of the transformational leadership perspective are derived primarily from the frameworks of charisma (Weber, 1947), charismatic leadership theory (House, 1977; Shamir et al., 1993), and transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Weber (1947, p. 358) defined charismatic leaders as those who “reveal a transcendent mission or course of action which may be in itself appealing to the potential followers, but which is acted on

because of the followers belief their leader is extraordinarily gifted.” House (1977, p. 189) described charismatic leaders as those capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers, such as “commanding loyalty and devotion to the leader and of inspiring followers to accept and execute the will of the leader without hesitation or question or regard to one’s self-interest.” House proposed that four personal characteristics—dominance, self-confidence, need for influence, and a strong conviction in the moral righteousness of their belief—would lead to goal articulation, role modeling, and personal image-building, as well as demonstration of confidence and high expectations for followers. Shamir et al. (1993) concluded that there are three ways that charismatic leaders motivate followers: through increased self-efficacy, through increased social identification with the group, and by linking work values to follower values. Charismatic leaders also develop and communicate a positive vision, foster acceptance of shared goals, and motivate followers to achieve collective aspirations (Conger & Kanungo, 1987).

These behaviors are also reflected in transformational leadership, which is a process by which a leader engages with followers and raises their level of motivation and morality (Burns, 1978). Measures of both charismatic and transformational leadership have shown significant overlap, and findings from studies normally converge (Shamir et al., 1993; Walter & Bruch, 2009). In fact, many researchers (such as Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Walter & Bruch, 2009) have chosen to use one of the terms and then specifically noted that they used it to refer to both charismatic and transformational leadership.

Although Burns (1978) first brought attention to the notion of transformational leadership, it was Bass’s reformulation of the theory that increased the focus throughout leadership research. Bass (1985) considered charismatic leadership to be of primary importance to the transformational leadership process and built on the charisma and charismatic leadership frameworks with his conceptualization of transformational



leadership theory. Although very similar, transformational leadership does extend beyond the leadership conceptualized by charismatic leadership. Charismatic leadership focuses on two dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence and inspirational motivation. In fact, these two dimensions have often been combined in research and referred to as charisma. Transformational leadership, however, also focuses on intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Bass (1985, pp. 51-52) stated that “even when successful as leaders, charismatics may fail to have a transforming or inspirational influence on followers. It will depend on how their charisma combines with the other transformational factors of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation in specific leaders.” As such, transformational leadership is more encompassing than charismatic leadership and is thus the leadership focus in the current study. Nevertheless, as charismatic leadership was one of the theoretical bases for transformational leadership, that framework is also used when developing hypotheses.

In addition to transformational leadership, the other components of the FRL model in descending order of effectiveness (Bass, 1997; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) include transactional leadership (contingent reward, management by exception-active, and management by exception-passive), and laissez faire leadership. Transactional leadership is more of an exchange process and consists of rewarding or disciplining followers based on their level of performance. Avolio et al. (2009, p. 427) defined it as “leadership largely based on the exchange of rewards contingent on performance.” Contingent reward is the dimension of transactional leadership that is most often studied. It consists of a traditional exchange relationship (transaction) between leader and follower in which the leader is responsible for setting goals, clarifying roles, and explaining performance expectations. It has been shown to be effective as a style for motivating others to achieve higher levels of performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The Judge and Piccolo (2004) meta-analysis found that transformational leadership and contingent reward were highly correlated with one another at .80, which is as high as (or higher than) can be expected

for alternative measures of the same construct. So while it has been shown that the best leaders are both transformational and transactional (Bass, 1997; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), Bass (1997) demonstrated that transformational leadership augments (or goes beyond) the impact of transactional leader behaviors but not vice versa. In addition, Judge and Bono (2000) showed that transformational leadership behavior predicted several follower and leader outcomes (follower satisfaction with leader, follower organizational commitment, follower work motivation, and leader effectiveness), even after controlling for transactional leadership, thus showing more evidence for the augmentation effect. However, two recent studies questioned the augmentation effect and in fact found opposite results. Schriesheim and colleagues (Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & DeChurch, 2006) and Vecchio and colleagues (Vecchio, Justin, & Pearce, 2008) both found that the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership actually augmented transformational leadership (see Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2009, for additional information).

Management by exception—active occurs when leaders actively seek out issues in which corrective action can be taken even though a problem may not have yet arisen (prior to or immediately after the incident occurs). Because these leaders act before problems arise, they are often viewed as “micromanagers.” Under management by exception—passive, leaders step in only when performance standards are not being met (i.e., when problems become serious). Otherwise these leaders tend to operate via an “if it’s not broken, don’t fix it” mentality and choose to wait for things to go wrong before taking action. The last component of the FRL model is that of *laissez faire*, which is not leadership. It is essentially non-leadership (avoidance or inactivity) as there is no exchange between a leader and his or her followers. Because they are rarely involved in their followers’ work, these “leaders” do not show much interest in whether followers meet their performance goals. They avoid making decisions on important issues, often

miss meetings, and frequently fail to follow up on responsibilities (Bass 1985; Sosik & Jung, 2010).

In this study, I focus on the antecedents of transformational leadership because this leadership framework has been shown to be a strong predictor of positive follower and organizational outcomes. In addition, it is of interest to the organizations I worked with for the current study. Although other types of leadership (such as contingent reward) have also been shown to be effective in several situations, I chose to focus on transformational leadership because of the fundamental differences in antecedents.

### **Antecedents of Transformational Leadership**

In his framework that reformulated transformational leadership theory, Bass (1985) proposed several potential categories of antecedents of transformational leadership. These categories included the personality and values of the leader, organizational environment (such as technology, industry, team effects, policies and procedures, and subordinates and superiors of the leader), and the external environment (beyond the organization itself such as times of change or discontinuity and marketplace effects). More recently, a review by Walter and Bruch (2009) proposed a new model with six potential categories for antecedents of charismatic leadership: contextual characteristics, work events, leader positive affect, leader personality traits, leader emotional intelligence, and leader work attitudes. Although this new typology has six categories, they can be summed up as leader characteristics, contextual characteristics, and workplace events. Thus, they are consistent with the Bass conceptualization from 25 years ago.

Despite Bass (1985) proposing several potential antecedents of transformational leadership 25 years ago, there is still a lack of conclusive research that has been conducted to test these relationships. Bass's framework was the first attempt at proposing antecedents of transformational leadership, but other researchers have empirically examined potential predictors as well. By combining the antecedents

proposed by previous researchers and examining empirical studies that have been conducted on transformational leadership predictors, I have concluded that there are five primary categories in which antecedents of transformational leadership can be placed. These are individual differences, psychological states, workplace environment, organizational characteristics, and the external environment. As the external environment is beyond the scope of the current study, however, I focus the literature review on the first four categories. The first two categories deal with the leader personally. Individual differences are the stable leader characteristics that are unique within each person, such as personality, emotional intelligence, gender, and biodata. Psychological states are malleable attitudes or cognitions that can differ depending on the situation or context and include psychological climate and empowerment. The other two categories of transformational leadership discussed here relate to environmental factors. The workplace environment concerns issues dealing with the actual work environment and includes items such as social context. Organizational characteristics consist of actual attributes of the organization, such as reporting structure and culture. Although a leader's traits and states are important, the right environment is also important for transformational leaders to reach their full leadership potential.

In the following sections, I review the prior empirical research that has been conducted in each of the four primary antecedent categories: individual differences, psychological states, workplace environment, and organizational characteristics. As will become evident, previous researchers have not examined the situational match between a leaders and their environment in predicting transformational leadership. In addition, no studies have considered fit constructs or motivation to lead to be antecedents of transformational leadership.

### **Individual Differences**

Empirical research on individual differences as antecedents of transformational leadership has examined topics such as personality, gender, emotional intelligence, and

biodata. Unlike other potential transformational leadership antecedents, the area of individual differences is one about which a great deal is already known.

### *Personality*

In terms of the leader's individual personality, Bass (1985) reported that several characteristics may be predictive of transformational leadership, such as behavior modeling, motivation to lead, and differences in individual traits such as conscientiousness and locus of control. Bass also argued that being assertive, socially bold, thoughtful, and introspective; possessing general energy; and having a need for achievement would predict transformational leadership. He suggested the same for traits of maturity, integrity, independence, creativity, originality, and satisfaction from power. Because of their focus on followers, transformational leaders would be expected to be outgoing and extraverted. They are also more likely to be positive, emotionally stable, and able to cope with stressful or complex environments (Bass, 1985).

Given that the FRL model has focused almost exclusively on leader behaviors, the concept itself tends to exclude the role of leader traits and personality (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Personality is one area in which significant research has been conducted and meta-analyzed, with an emphasis on the Five-Factor Model (FFM), more commonly referred to as the Big Five (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Despite some criticism that the FFM does not adequately represent all relevant personality factors, it has received extensive empirical support (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1996) and is the most common measure of personality. The Big Five traits are broad personality constructs that are manifested in other specific traits (Judge & Bono, 2000). The FFM consists of agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience.

Agreeableness refers to the tendency to be trusting, cooperative, gentle, kind, modest, altruistic, and good natured; those who are agreeable tend to value affiliation and avoid conflict (Costa & McCrae, 1992). It can be argued via transformational leadership

theory (Bass, 1985) that several transformational leadership behaviors are likely to be exhibited by people high in agreeableness. For example, individualized consideration is likely due to leaders' concern for follower development, as is idealized influence because leaders' trustworthiness will lead to their being perceived as role models.

Conscientious people are those who are dependable, responsible, persistent, cautious, hard-working, deliberate, self-disciplined, neat, and achievement-oriented (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These traits tend to be more transactional-based and thus may match better with contingent reward than with transformational leadership. Bono and Judge (2004) speculated that there was no particular reason to expect conscientious individuals to exhibit high levels of vision, enthusiasm, or creativity.

Individuals who are neurotic (often referred to in its positive opposite form of emotional stability instead) are anxious and nervous and often experience fear, sadness, anger, and guilt (as opposed to being relaxed, secure, and unworried; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Bass (1985) pointed out that individuals high in neuroticism are unlikely to lead and to be involved in follower development. Because of their negative outlook and anxiety, they are also unlikely to be seen as role models.

Extraverted individuals are outgoing, social, assertive, active, upbeat, energetic, optimistic, and talkative; they tend to seek excitement and social attention (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Watson and Clark (1997) stated that extraverts experience and express more positive emotions since positive emotionality is a basis for extraversion. According to transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985), extroverts are likely to be strong in inspirational motivation (optimistic vision and positivity build confidence and enthusiasm in followers) and intellectual stimulation (their outgoing nature makes them more willing to push followers to challenge the status quo).

Those who possess openness to experience (sometimes referred to as intellect or intellectance) tend to be curious, creative, imaginative, introspective, insightful, resourceful, and intellectually curious (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Because of their high

levels of creativity, they are likely to be high in intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation as a result of their imaginativeness, which allows them to see a vision for the future of the organization (Judge & Bono, 2000).

Several studies have examined the effects of personality traits on transformational leadership, some of which used more narrow personality traits and many of which focused on the Big Five. Because personality has been the most frequently studied antecedent of transformational leadership and was a control variable in the present study, I review the research in this area in detail.

In terms of the Big Five, Judge and Bono (2000), in a study of 14 samples of leaders from more than 200 organizations (enrolled in or alumni of Midwest community leadership programs), demonstrated that extraversion and agreeableness positively predicted transformational leadership. Openness to experience was also positively related but its effect disappeared when controlling for the other traits. Rubin et al. (2005) used a sample of 145 managers and 480 subordinates of a large biotechnology/agricultural company and found that emotion recognition, positive affectivity (PA), and agreeableness all positively predicted transformational leader behavior. Extraversion moderated the relationship between emotion recognition and transformational leadership such that the positive relationship became stronger as extraversion increased.

Research on the Big Five as antecedents of transformational leadership has also extended beyond the U.S. For example, Hautala (2006) conducted a study of Finnish leaders and their followers and found that according to the leaders themselves, those who were extraverted, intuitive, and perceiving favored transformational leadership. The followers, however, considered sensing to be associated with transformational leadership. Leaders tended to evaluate themselves as being more transformational than did their followers, especially leaders high in extraversion. Future-oriented leaders rated themselves as more transformational than did practical-sensing leaders. Consistent with

followers, self-ratings of spontaneous perceiving leaders showed them to be more transformational than decisive judging leaders. Overall, the study showed that the ratings of leaders and followers regarding transformational leadership behavior were not that similar when focusing on leaders' personality, thus demonstrating the importance of leader self-awareness.

In a South American example, a dissertation by D'Alessio (2006) examined relationships between personality and transformational leadership with a sample of managers from Peru. Results showed that extraversion and conscientiousness had the strongest correlations with transformational leadership followed by openness to experience and neuroticism. Agreeableness did not have significant effects on transformational leadership.

The study of the effects of leader personality on transformational leader behavior has also expanded into Asia over the past decade. Ployhart and colleagues (Ployhart, Lim, & Chan, 2001) used a large Singapore military sample ( $N = 1259$ ) and found that extraversion and openness to experience were both positively related to transformational leadership, while neuroticism was negatively related. Lim and Ployhart (2004) in another Singapore sample (39 combat teams in the Singapore military;  $N = 276$ ) also showed that extraversion was positively related to transformational leadership, but that neuroticism and agreeableness were both negatively related. Surprisingly however, Leung and Bozionelos (2004) in a sample of 101 Chinese-origin individuals living in Hong Kong found that all of the Big Five were related to perceptions of transformational leader behaviors. Despite a significant relationship being unexpected because of the culture, extraversion was found to be the strongest predictor, followed in order of effect by conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. However, in a Chinese sample set up to replicate the Judge and Bono (2000) work, Shao and Webber (2006) found that neuroticism (negatively related) was the only Big Five trait to be significantly related to transformational leadership. For the most part, these



findings tended to show that extraversion and agreeableness are both related to transformational leadership in Asian samples, but there are many inconsistencies. Meanwhile, the Finnish study found extraversion to be related to transformational leadership, whereas results from Peru indicated that extraversion and conscientiousness were the strongest predictors of transformational leadership but that openness to experience and neuroticism were also significantly related. The international studies concluded that extraversion, among the Big Five, was the strongest and most consistent predictor of transformational leadership.

From a narrow traits standpoint, Ross and Offermann (1997), in a study of 40 focal leaders and 4,200 cadets at the U.S. Air Force Academy, found that higher levels of pragmatism, nurturance, self-confidence, feminine attributes, and lower levels of criticalness and aggression in leaders were all related to follower perceptions of transformational leader behaviors. Transformational leadership was related to follower satisfaction with the squadron and the institution as a whole; however, it was not related to any of six follower performance levels. Church and Waclawski (1998) used a sample of 253 senior executives and their followers from a large, highly diversified global corporation and found significant differences showing that inventors (innovators for change) and motivators (enthusiastic idealists; similar to extraversion) were perceived to be more transformational than were managers (analytical coordinators) or implementers (organized pragmatists).

In a study of leaders at a U.S. military academy, Atwater and Yammarino (1993) showed that several personal attributes (intelligence, warmth, conformity, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling, emotional coping, behavioral coping, and athletic experience) were related to transformational leader behavior. Similarly, a study of sales staff at a medical products firm by Dubinsky and colleagues (Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1995) found that behavioral coping and risk-taking were positively related to transformational leader behavior after controlling for job tenure and education level;

however, they did not find the relationship between emotional coping and transformational relationship that Atwater and Yammarino found. Howell and Higgins (1990) also showed that risk taking (in addition to influence tactics and innovation) was predictive of transformational leadership. As can be concluded from the above studies examining narrow traits, personality has an impact on transformational leadership as these studies are consistent in finding that traits such as self-confidence, innovation, warmth, feeling, influence, and coping are predictive of transformational leadership.

In addition to the Big Five and narrow traits, researchers have examined other types of personality traits, such as proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Crant and Bateman (2000, p. 65) stated that “people who are proactive effect environmental change; they identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, and persevere until they bring about meaningful change.” In a study of MBA students, Bateman and Crant (1993) found a relationship between proactivity and transformational leadership. Crant and Bateman (2000) studied a Puerto Rican sample of 156 managers and their bosses employed by a financial services organization and found that leaders’ self-reports of proactivity were related to boss’ ratings of charismatic leadership, even after controlling for personality, task performance, and social desirability.

The construct of core self-evaluations has also been examined as a predictor of transformational leadership. Judge and colleagues (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998, p. 18) defined core self-evaluations as “fundamental, subconscious conclusions individuals reach about themselves, other people, and the world.” The construct consists of four dispositional traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability. A dissertation by Quigley (2003) used a sample of first-year MBA student teams and found that leaders’ core self-evaluations were an antecedent of transformational leadership and were linked to team efficacy, goals, and performance. Resick and colleagues (Resick, Whitman, & Weingarden, 2009), in a study on relationships between CEO personality and leadership using 75 CEOs of major league

baseball teams over 100 years, found that CEO core-self evaluations were positively related to transformational leadership, and transformational leadership was then related to factors such as team winning percentage, fan attendance, and ratings of influence.

Howell and Avolio (1993) examined one component of core self-evaluations, locus of control, in a sample of 78 managers in a Canadian financial institution and showed that internal locus of control was related to transformational leadership, which significantly predicted business-unit performance over a 1-year interval.

The concept of self-monitoring has also been examined as a potential antecedent of transformational leadership. Shivers-Blackwell (2006, p. 30) described high self-monitors as “being attentive to contextual cues and adjusting their behavior accordingly” and low self-monitors as individuals who “tend to act from internal states rather than paying attention to their environment”. Sosik, Potosky, and Jung (2002) examined a sample of 64 leaders and their 192 followers and demonstrated that leader ratings of self-monitoring were positively related to follower ratings of transformational leadership.

Leadership research has also started to examine “positive psychological traits” of leaders and their impact on follower perceptions of transformational leader behavior. In a recent study of 121 CEOs in start-up and established high-tech firms, Peterson and colleagues (Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron, & Myrowitz, 2009) found that the positive psychological traits of CEOs (hope, optimism, and resiliency) were related to transformational leadership ratings. Transformational leadership was more strongly related to firm performance in start-up than in established firms. Norman (2006) showed that leaders’ psychological capital was related to follower trust in the leader and to follower perceptions of leaders’ effectiveness. In addition, a study by Eid and colleagues (Eid, Johnsen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2008), using a sample of 66 Norwegian Naval Cadets, found that cadets high in personality hardiness showed increases in transformational leader behaviors following an intense military training exercise. However, Hrinda (2007), using a U.S. Coast Guard sample, found that leader resiliency

had a small impact on transformational leader behaviors but it only appeared when the leader needed to be resilient.

Because a number of individual studies have assessed the impact of leader personality on transformational leader perceptions, Bono and Judge (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of the various findings and showed that personality traits were related to transformational leadership as a whole and to the individual dimensions of idealized influence–inspirational motivation (combined and referred to as charisma), intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Overall the results provided weaker support, however, than had reportedly been found in a number of individual studies because the Big Five accounted for only 12% of the variance in transformational leadership. Extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of transformational leadership. In terms of the overall composite of transformational leadership dimensions, all of the Big Five had significant relationships (numbers in parentheses reflect corrected correlations [population estimates] when only considering studies that used direct measures of the Big Five): extraversion .24 (k = 20; N = 3,692) (.23), neuroticism -.17 (k = 18; N = 3,380) (-.16), openness to experience .15 (k = 19; N = 3,887) (.09), agreeableness .14 (k = 20; N = 3,916) (.12), and conscientiousness .13 (k = 18; N = 3,516) (.11). Overall, each of the Big Five appears to be important in shaping the transformational leader behaviors that managers demonstrate to their subordinates. Because meta-analytic results have shown that all Big Five traits are predictive of overall transformational leadership and that transformational leadership often loads on one higher order factor, I controlled for all of the Big Five personality traits in the current study.

### *Gender*

Another individual difference area thought to be related to leadership is that of gender. In a meta-analysis of 45 studies of the FRL model, Eagly and colleagues (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003) determined that females demonstrated more

transformational behaviors than did their male counterparts; however, the differences were minimal ( $d = .10$ ). Duehr (2006) found that extraversion was shown to be more predictive of transformational leadership in females than in males. Results also showed a stronger dispositional basis because female transformational leaders were found to be more effective in terms of leader effectiveness, leader performance, and follower satisfaction with the leader.

### *Emotional Intelligence*

Another antecedent that has received attention in the literature is emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999, p. 267), emotional intelligence “refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them.” Mayer and colleagues (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003) proposed that emotional intelligence consists of four skill dimensions: (a) perceiving emotion (i.e., able to identify emotions in faces, pictures, music, etc.), (b) facilitating thought with emotion (i.e., able to connect emotional information in one’s thinking), (c) understanding emotion (i.e., able to comprehend emotional information), and (d) managing emotion (i.e., able to manage emotions for growth). There is basis for emotional intelligence as a predictor of transformational leadership considering that Bass (1985) stated that transformational leaders are effective at meeting the emotional needs of followers. Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002) suggested that leaders’ ability to accurately recognize emotion in their followers and others is critical to their ability to inspire others and build relationships.

Empirical research has shown that emotional intelligence can be a predictor of transformational leadership (e.g., Burbach, 2004; Hartsfield, 2003; Rubin et al., 2005), while Seo and colleagues (Seo, Jin, & Shapiro, 2008) and Walter and Bruch (2007) both showed that leaders’ positive mood was related to transformational leadership. Sosik and Megerian (1999) found similar results, but in their study, results differed based on the self-awareness (via self-other agreement) of managers regarding their leadership

behaviors. When leaders were self-aware, follower ratings of their transformational leader behavior were positively related to purpose in life, personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and social self-confidence.

Although some studies have found that emotional intelligence has meaningful effects on followers' transformational leadership perceptions, the research is far from conclusive. In fact, Joseph and Newman (2010) recently concluded that organizational research has not yet adequately resolved questions regarding the theoretical, measurement, and validity issues of the emotional intelligence construct. Buford (2001), in a sample of university department managers and their followers, found no relationships between self, follower, and supervisor ratings of emotional intelligence and management effectiveness. After controlling for personality and management experience, emotional intelligence did not uniquely contribute to supervisor or follower reports of management effectiveness, thus suggesting that emotional intelligence is of limited usefulness and already reflected in personality traits. D'Alessio (2006) found that emotional intelligence did not have significant effects on transformational leadership. Likewise, Schulte (2003) found that emotional intelligence did not contribute to the prediction of transformational leadership because it was already well predicted by the combination of cognitive ability and personality. Further, Barbuto and Burbach (2006), in a sample of elected public officials and their followers, found that emotional intelligence shared little significance with follower perceptions of transformational leadership. Thus, while some researchers have found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, other researchers have found no effect. Based on the conflicting research findings and the significant overlap with the Big Five, emotional intelligence is not controlled for in the current study.

### *Biodata*

When considering biodata (life events and experiences) as a predictor of transformational leadership, Avolio (1994), in a sample of community leaders and their

followers, found significant correlations between the leaders' self-ratings of the MLQ and life events such as life satisfaction, moral standards of parents, school experience, and positive work experience. No relationship was found for parental interest in development, parental description, or extracurricular activities while in high school. For follower ratings of their leaders' behavior and the life events scales, significant relationships were found for parental interest, moral standards of parents, and school experience, but no significant relationships were found with life satisfaction, parental description, extracurricular activities in high school, or positive work experience.

Recent work by Towler (2005) examined additional life experience predictors of charismatic leadership by focusing on the relationship between parental attachment style and parental psychological control on emergent adults' displays of charismatic leadership. Results showed that parental attachment style and fathers' level of psychological control were related to charismatic leadership behaviors. More recently, Barbuto and colleagues (Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, & Marx, 2007) found charismatic leadership to be stronger in older leaders (older than age 45).

### *Ethics and Morality*

The final individual differences construct that has been examined as an antecedent of transformational leadership is that of ethics and morality. Bass (1985) conceptualized morality, moral reasoning, moral leadership, personal values, optimism, and idealistic versus pragmatic values to be indicators of transformational leadership. He stated that "moral leadership helps followers to see the real conflict between competing values, the inconsistencies between espoused values and behavior and the need for realignments in values, changes in behavior, or transformations of institutions" (p. 182).

Research has confirmed the notion of high levels of ethics and morality in transformational leaders. For example, Turner and colleagues (Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, & Milner, 2002) investigated whether leaders' levels of moral reasoning was related to the transformational leadership behaviors perceived by their

followers. Leaders who scored highest in moral reasoning demonstrated more transformational leader behaviors than leaders scoring in the lowest group. In addition, Sosik (2005) found positive relationships between transformational leadership and several components of leaders' value systems (i.e., traditional, collectivistic, self-transcendent, and self-enhancement values).

### **Leader Psychological States**

Although there is a considerable accumulation of empirical support for the notion of individual differences (especially personality) being predictive of transformational leadership, researchers have yet to place much emphasis on the role of psychological states. A few exceptions are in the areas of motivation, empowerment, and cynicism about organizational change.

#### *Motivation*

Using leaders and their followers from a wide range of industries, Barbuto (2005) examined several sources of leader motivation to determine which sources of leader motivation were related to their leader behaviors. Barbuto divided five sources of motivation into two categories: intrinsic/internal and extrinsic/external. Intrinsic/internal consisted of intrinsic process motivation (people motivated to perform certain kinds of work for the fun of it), self-concept-internal motivation (individuals set internal standards that become the basis for their ideal selves), and goal internalization motivation (motivated when individuals demonstrate attitudes and behaviors consistent with their personal values). Extrinsic/external consisted of instrumental motivation (motivated to behave a certain way because of the perception that it will lead to tangible rewards) and self-concept-external motivation (motivated because they desire affirmation of traits, competencies, and values from external sources). Barbuto suggested that intrinsic/internal motivation "embodies the individual and his/her emotions, encompassing fun, trust, and self-worth" (p. 31). These qualities are similar to those needed for transformational behaviors (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). The motivation



subscales were significantly correlated with leaders' self-reports and followers' ratings of transformational leadership. Leaders' intrinsic motivation (interest and enjoyment of the task; Gagne & Deci, 2005) was significantly correlated with self-reported transformational behaviors, while their extrinsic motivation was negatively related to their self-reported and follower-rated transformational leader perceptions. Given that so many different motivation sources were included in Barbuto's study, it is difficult to reach any conclusions. However, Barbuto's motivational sources appear to be based primarily on the task (the work itself) and not on the leadership role itself, which is more similar to "motivation to lead" as used in the current study.

### *Empowerment*

Martin and Bush (2006) examined how well sales managers' perceptions of their own empowerment predicted followers' perceptions of their transformational leader behaviors. Empowerment is internal motivation evident from four cognitions—sense of meaning, worker competence, sense of self-determination, and perceived impact of work—that reflect a person's orientation to his or her role as an employee (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Results showed that sales managers' perceptions of empowerment were positively related to transformational leadership.

### *Cynicism about Organizational Change*

Bommer et al. (2004), using data from managers and their followers across several organizations, found that cynicism about organizational change was negatively related to transformational leadership behaviors.

### **Workplace Environment**

In addition to studies on psychological states, research examining the effect of work environment on transformational leadership is also needed. An example that has been considered here is social context.

### *Social Context*

The Bommer et al. (2004) study discussed above also examined a potential contextual antecedent of transformational leader behavior and found that a leader's social context (amount of transformational behavior shown by a leader's peers) was positively related to transformational leadership.

### **Organizational Characteristics**

The final antecedent category considered here is that of organizational characteristics. Examples include culture and psychological climate.

#### *Culture*

In terms of organization-specific studies of transformational leadership antecedents, Shivers-Blackwell (2006) examined a sample of managers from a company in the technology industry and from a large public university. Her results found that leaders' perceptions of having a transformational culture (such as feeling that people go out of the way for the good of the institution) influenced their transformational leadership behaviors. The relationship was stronger for leaders who had an external locus of control. Pillai and Meindl (1998) also examined the effects of organizational attributes and demonstrated that both organic structure and collectivistic cultural orientation are positively related to transformational leadership emergence. Other studies have explored topics such as physical and structural distance (greater impact on indirect reporting relationships than direct; e.g., Avolio et al., 2004), cultural differences (e.g., Walumbwa & Lawler 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2007), and network centrality (Bono & Anderson, 2005, who found that transformational leaders are more effective because they have better social capital and tend to hold more central positions in organizational advice and influence networks).

#### *Psychological Climate*

Martin and Bush (2006) examined psychological climate as a potential antecedent of transformational leadership. Psychological climate is defined as "an experiential-

based, multi-dimensional, and enduring perceptual phenomenon which is widely shared by the members of a given organizational unit” and its primary function is to “cue and shape individual behavior toward the modes of behavior dictated by organizational demands” (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, p. 266). Findings for psychological climate showed that two dimensions were positively related (support and autonomy), two were negatively related (pressure and cohesion), and two were unrelated (recognition and innovation) to follower perceptions of their managers’ transformational leader behaviors. As a result, the impact of psychological climate as a predictor of transformational leadership was inconclusive. As is the case with most of the transformational leadership antecedent categories, there is still much to be learned regarding organization-specific predictors of transformational leadership.

### **Hypotheses Development for Antecedents of Transformational Leadership**

As the above literature review indicates, numerous researchers have examined the role of leaders’ stable individual differences in predicting transformational leadership. While individual differences such as personality (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2000; Ross & Offermann, 1997), emotional intelligence (e.g., Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999), and biodata (e.g., Avolio, 1994) have been frequently studied as antecedents of transformational leadership, the only conclusive evidence rests within personality as each of the Big Five is significantly related to transformational leadership, though not as strongly as originally thought (Bono & Judge, 2004).

As a result, however, there are still several missing pieces in the puzzle regarding what predicts transformational leadership. In more recent years, the focus of leadership research has transitioned more to a macro-level as researchers have begun to argue theoretically about the importance of the environment as an antecedent of transformational leadership. Bass (1985) included both the organizational environment and the external environment in his framework that reformulated transformational

leadership theory. Recent reviews by Walter and Bruch (2009) and by Avolio et al. (2009) discussed the importance of the environment in influencing transformational leadership behaviors. It is difficult to obtain cross-organizational samples, however, so empirical research examining environmental effects has been limited.

Even the leader traits and the environmental factors do not present a complete picture in terms of predicting transformational leadership. There is a gap in the research literature that fails to address how a leader's match with the environment influences transformational leadership. It is likely that this fit of leaders to the situation will influence the extent to which transformational leader behaviors are exhibited because transformational leadership is a set of behaviors and behavior is a function of both the person and the environment. As argued by transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985), what effective leaders accomplish depends not only on the leader but also on the situation. Subsequently, the framework of person-environment (P-E) fit theory suggests that transformational leader behaviors will be influenced not only by the leader and their surroundings in the environment, but also by the match between the two. P-E fit is the compatibility that exists when a person's characteristics and those of the work environment are well-matched (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Person-situation theories such as P-E fit are likely relevant to predicting transformational leadership behaviors because these theories argue that both the person and the environment (the situation) are important in behaviors and perceptions (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). P-E fit models "have always been a prominent theme in the field of industrial-organizational psychology" (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010, p. 3). Sosik and Jung (2010, p. 53) stated that a situation "describes the relative circumstances, position, or context that surrounds the leader and followers." Likewise, they argued that leader-situation fit exists when a "leader's vision is seen as a viable and inspiring alternative to the status quo, then the leader is the right person for the times" (p. 56).

In this dissertation, I extend the transformational leadership literature by examining constructs that revolve around the concept of a leader perceiving a match with the situation as predictors of transformational leadership. Three of these constructs—person-organization fit, motivation to lead, and needs-supplies fit—can be classified as motives. The fourth—demands-abilities fit—can be labeled as that of capacity (or ability) because fit with the situation is not entirely motivational. This is an area that has received little attention in the literature but likely holds importance for organizations, especially those that have a preference for promoting future leaders from within. These constructs examine how individuals connect with their environment; thus, they are likely to capture the person-situation intersection that impacts who exhibits transformational leadership. I propose that leaders who perceive that they fit with some aspect of the situation are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership in that situation than are those perceiving a weaker fit. These proposed antecedents can be grouped into two categories: motives (person-organization fit, motivation to lead, and needs-supplies fit) and capacities (demands-abilities fit and personality).

### **Person-Organization Fit**

The construct of person-organization (P-O) fit has been studied extensively and several meta-analyses have examined its consequences (Arthur et al., 2006; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). Based within the framework of P-E fit, this type of fit has been of significant interest in both academia and practice for several years as it has been viewed as a key for employee retention and organizational commitment (Kristof, 1996). In an often-cited definition of P-O fit that takes into account the numerous conceptualizations of fit, Kristof (1996, pp. 4-5) defined it as “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both.” Studies of P-O fit often examine value congruence, goal congruence, or climate congruence between a person and the organization.

The most common conceptualizations of P-O fit are as either supplementary or complementary fit (Kristof, 1996). As defined by Muchinsky and Monahan (1987), supplementary fit takes place when a person “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in this environment” (p. 269), whereas complementary fit exists when a person's characteristics contribute to what was missing in the environment. Supplementary fit has often been operationalized as congruence between an individual's values and personality and the values of the organization (i.e., Chatman, 1989; Judge & Bretz, 1992). Complementary fit is often operationalized via examining a strict match between the needs or wants of an individual and the systems or structures of the organization (i.e., Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994). Within the current study, I assess supplementary P-O fit based on values, as this is the most commonly studied form and also the most relevant to the current study.

#### *Meta-Analyses of P-O Fit Research*

There has been an abundance of fit research conducted over the years, and several meta-analyses have examined the consequences of P-O fit. It is important to note here that many terms described in fit research have been used differently by different authors (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof, 1996; Verquer et al., 2003). As used by Kristof-Brown and Guay (2010), terminology in this dissertation is consistent with early work by French, Rogers, and Cobb (1974) and more recent work by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005). Thus, perceived fit measures refer to direct assessment of compatibility between the person and the environment (the organization in this case). The two types of indirect fit are subjective and objective. Subjective fit refers to two sets of scores from the same person (such as a person's preferences along with his or her perceptions of the organization itself), and objective fit refers to separate evaluations from two different sources (such as an employee and his/her supervisor). The Arthur et al. (2006) meta-analysis used the terms direct perceived (perceived), indirect perceived

(subjective), and indirect actual (objective), which describe the same categories, but reflect the more well-known measurement approach. The meta-analysis by Verquer et al. (2003) used the same set of terms, but reversed the perceived and subjective labels. As a result, their findings discussed below have been relabeled to enable discussion of the meta-analyses using consistent terminology.

Overall results of the three major meta-analyses on P-O fit (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003) suggested several interesting and consistent findings as the effect of P-O fit on overall perceptions of work attitudes ranged from .28-.44 for job satisfaction (.56-.62 for direct measures as are those in the current study), .59-.77 for direct measures of organizational commitment, and -.21- -.25 for intentions to quit (-.52- -.58 for direct measures). Direct measures of fit yielded the highest effect sizes across all three meta-analyses and all three work attitudes, followed by subjective measures and then objective measures. In addition to investigating the effects of P-O fit on work attitudes, two of the meta-analyses also examined effects of P-O fit on performance. Both Kristof-Brown et al. and Arthur et al. found that the effects on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were approximately double the effects on task performance (.27 vs. .13 and .22 vs. .10 for the two meta-analyses, respectively). For direct measures, Kristof-Brown et al. found effects of .32 for contextual performance and .22 for task performance.

#### *P-O Fit with Transformational Leadership*

There are two main reasons why I propose that person-organization fit (values congruence between a leader and the organization) will predict transformational leadership. First, perceptions of P-O fit are likely to result in identification with the organization, which motivates leaders to communicate their values and a positive vision of the organization to their followers. Second, leaders who feel their own values match those of the organization are more likely to inspire their followers to exceed expectations for the collective good and long-term success of the organization.

When leaders share the organization's values, they are more likely to display transformational leadership behaviors such as authentically modeling these values and communicating a vision for the future that is based on values. This is because the organization's values are also the leader's values. This value alignment should motivate leaders to behave in ways that ensure the organization's future success. As discussed in Meglino and Ravlin's (1998) review, value congruence has been shown to lead to several positive outcomes such as beliefs, perceptions, attitudes, decisions, behavior, and performance. They stated that studies examining value congruence with the organization "clearly indicate that perceived congruence relates positively to affective outcomes, including satisfaction, commitment, and involvement ... these findings tend to be very consistent with theory that proposes that operating in an environment consistent with one's values is a more positive experience on many levels" (p. 380). Because values drive behavior, these leaders are more likely to naturally model and talk about the organization's values because these are their own values as well. Higher levels of value congruence make transformational leaders more motivated to communicate a positive vision of the organization and make them more authentic when they do so (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993). Leaders with high levels of P-O fit thus have the pride in the organization's history and future needed to successfully instill pride within their followers. Transformational leaders are able to discuss the great achievements of the past, the reality of the present, and the significance and vision for the future (Sosik & Jung, 2010). As a result, these leaders are also able to inspire followers to align their own values and personal goals to those of the collective organization (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993). Meanwhile, if a leader does not perceive values congruence with the organization, it is more difficult to consistently display self-confidence and self-determination, act as a role model, command loyalty from followers and instill pride, communicate the importance of company values and beliefs, and show a strong sense of purpose that gives followers a cause they can champion. These leaders are not likely to



have the commitment needed to continue to push followers to exceed expectations and to develop those followers into leaders.

Leaders who consider themselves to be a better fit with their organization are also better equipped to motivate followers to commit to the challenging stretch goals that come with increased expectations. By being committed role models, these leaders also provide followers with the confidence needed to perform beyond expectations. These types of authentic leadership behaviors (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) suggest that followers perceive messages and actions that reinforce the organization's values as more authentic when they are congruent with the leader's own values. This is because the most effective leaders are true to themselves and others, self-aware, positive, and focused on development (Sosik & Jung, 2010). As such, they create positive organizational outcomes by openly sharing relevant information and by displaying moral/ethical behaviors (in other words, by "being themselves").

Leaders who identify with the organization are more likely to act in the long-term interests of the organization because of their connection with the organization. From a theoretical standpoint, both social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner & Haslam, 2001) and organizational identification (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008) help to explain why leaders who perceive high levels of P-O fit will be more motivated to demonstrate transformational leader behaviors. Ashforth et al. (2008, p. 333) defined organizational identification as a "perceived oneness with the organization, necessarily implicating one's self-concept." Leaders with high levels of organizational identification perceive having shared values with the organization and are willing to sacrifice their self-interests for the good of the organization. Pratt (1998, p. 179) suggested that organizational identification is an "identity-based theory of organizational attachment" and argued that conceptualizations of P-O fit that assess values are conceptually similar to organizational identification. For example, leaders who perceive a high level of P-O fit would be more willing to inspire followers to challenge the status quo and thus find

innovative solutions that assist the organization. These leaders would also be expected to take the time to help develop their followers into transformational leaders. They would thus be developing their followers into the leaders the organization will need in the future (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Based on the above empirical findings and theory, it is argued that P-O fit will predict transformational leader behaviors. Leaders' perceptions of P-O fit are likely to result in identification with the organization that drives leaders to communicate their values and a positive vision for the organization to their followers. In addition, leaders who feel their own values match those of the organization are more likely to inspire their followers to exceed expectations for the collective good and long-term success of the organization. As a result, P-O fit is likely to impact the effectiveness of leaders and their transformational leadership behaviors. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1a: Leaders' person-organization fit will be positively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leader behaviors.*

### **Motivation to Lead**

While the fit constructs directly assess the leader's perceived match with the situation, another situationally relevant construct is motivation to lead. The construct of motivation to lead is more specific than general motivation in that it assesses an individual's motivation to fulfill a specific role. In this way, motivation to lead assesses the individual's motivational match with situations that require leadership. Motivation to lead has been developed as a broad, theoretical framework for comprehending how individual differences can impact leadership effectiveness by taking into account both learned knowledge and relatively stable individual difference factors such as personality, values, and interests (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Drawing from Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action and Triandis' (1980) theory of interpersonal behavior, motivation to lead is defined as an "individual differences construct that affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and

that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader” (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 482). Although some of the individual differences within motivation to lead are stable, the construct as a whole is malleable and can change over time as a person acquires leadership development or leadership experience. Thus although the construct is grounded in stable individual differences, it also takes into account one’s perception of leader readiness because the theory behind this construct assumes that leadership KSAs can be changed.

Chan and Drasgow (2001) discussed three dimensions of motivation to lead. The first, affective-identity motivation to lead, refers to the desire of people to be in leadership roles. This dimension focuses on people who enjoy being leaders; thus, it has an affective component impacted by stable personality traits. This dimension is also influenced by an individual’s malleable perception of his/her readiness to lead. People who like to lead and who see themselves as possessing leadership qualities “tend to be outgoing and sociable in nature, value competition and achievement, generally have more past leadership experience than their peers, and are confident in their own leadership abilities” (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 490). The second dimension, social-normative motivation to lead, refers to the motivation of people who lead because they consider it one of their responsibilities, and they feel a sense of duty or an obligation to lead. The third dimension, noncalculative motivation to lead, assumes that people will lead only if they are “not calculative about the costs of leading relative to the benefits” (p. 482). For example, these people are motivated to lead only when they perceive advantages or personal benefits for doing so. Not surprisingly, this dimension of motivation to lead is not related to leadership experience or to leader self-efficacy.

Chan and Drasgow (2001) examined several potential antecedents of motivation to lead. Among these were personality (Big Five), values (collectivism and individualism), general mental ability, past leadership (or leader development) experience, and leader self-efficacy. Results showed that personality and sociocultural

values were distal antecedents of motivation to lead, whereas past leadership experience (quantity and quality of leadership experience) was a semi-distal antecedent, and leadership self-efficacy a proximal antecedent and moderator. General mental ability was not found to be related to motivation to lead. Considering that leadership experience and leadership self-efficacy are also antecedents of motivation to lead, it is clear that this is a malleable construct that can be developed and is not based only on personality or on other stable individual differences.

When developing the construct, Chan and Drasgow (2001) used three samples from a variety of occupations and contexts (1,594 male military recruits from Singapore, 274 junior college students from Singapore, and 293 undergraduate students from the U.S.) to test it empirically. Results showed that all three dimensions of motivation to lead explained variance in two measures of leadership potential (assessment center ratings and military ratings obtained at the end of basic training) for the military recruits after controlling for mental ability, personality, values, and attitudes; the three components, however, did not form a higher order factor. Specifically, for assessment center ratings, affective-identity motivation to lead and noncalculative motivation to lead were both significant predictors of the leadership potential rating ( $r = .39$ ,  $\beta = .17$  and  $r = .20$ ,  $\beta = .08$ , respectively) at the .01 level. While social-normative motivation to lead was also correlated with leader potential, it did not contribute unique variance beyond the other predictors. For leader potential ratings at the end of basic training, affective-identity motivation to lead and noncalculative motivation to lead were both significant predictors of the leadership potential rating ( $r = .25$ ,  $\beta = .13$  and  $r = .18$ ,  $\beta = .08$ , respectively) at the .001 and .05 levels. Although social-normative motivation to lead was also correlated with leader potential, it again failed to contribute unique variance beyond the other predictors, thus suggesting that the sense of obligation to lead may not be enough to make others perceive that someone has the potential to lead. In total, the three motivation to lead dimensions added significant incremental validity over all of the

other predictors (general cognitive ability, attitudes, personality, values, leader experience, and leadership self-efficacy) both individually and as a group. Even though all three dimensions showed relationships with leader potential, only affective-identity motivation to lead (wanting to lead because it is enjoyable) is hypothesized to be related to transformational leadership. Social-normative motivation to lead (sense of duty to lead) was, however, examined in the current study as a point of comparison. While it is possibly related to other types of leadership, it is not expected to lead to the demonstration of transformational leader behaviors. Although social-normative motivation to lead still takes into account leading for the collective good of the organization (out of perceived obligation to do so), noncalculative motivation to lead (leading because of expected advantages or rewards from doing so) is not expected to be related to transformational leadership as it is based only on self-interests, the opposite of the basis for transformational leadership. For this reason, noncalculative motivation to lead was not included in the current study. The positive behaviors demonstrated by transformational leaders are not as likely if someone does not truly want to be in a leadership role. If people lead only because of a sense of duty to lead or to gain personal benefits, transformational leadership is much less likely as they will not be as committed to demonstrating positive leader behaviors.

The construct of motivation to lead has some similarities with the role-motivation theory of managerial effectiveness, referred to more simply as motivation to manage (Miner, 1978), and with McClelland's power motivation (McClelland & Burnham, 1976). Motivation to manage utilizes various managerial role prescriptions as its foundation. These role prescriptions include managers having positive relationships with their superiors, striving to win for themselves and their subordinates by accepting challenging expectations, taking charge and being a decision-maker, exercising power over subordinates and directing their behavior, assuming a position of high visibility, and completing administrative tasks such as developing budgets and serving on committees.

While some of these role prescriptions are more relevant to managers than to leaders, there are certain aspects relevant to the notion of transformational leadership. These include positive relationships, striving to help subordinates, accepting difficult assignments, challenging followers, and being highly visible (Bass, 1985). Research on motivation to manage has confirmed that there is a positive correlation between managerial motivation scores and both advancement rate and managerial level and that managerial motivation scores could be increased through management development techniques. These hypotheses have been supported across a number of situations, including business managers and educational administrators (Miner, 1974); personnel and industrial relations managers and managers from the auto, oil, baking, wood, and retail industries (Miner, 1976); graduate-level management students (Miner & Crane, 1981); top executives (Berman & Miner, 1985); and engineering students and working engineers (Rynes, Tolbert, & Strausser, 1988). Nevertheless, the construct of motivation to lead builds on that of motivation to manage as research has shown that the role of leaders extends beyond the role of managers. As such, motivation to lead is to transformational leadership as motivation to manage is to transactional leadership.

Also relevant is McClelland's power motivation (McClelland & Burnham, 1976). Power motivation is related to managerial success and can also be increased through management development activities (as can motivation to manage and motivation to lead). McClelland and Burnham found that managers fall into three groups. Affiliative managers are most focused on their own popularity, even more so than on getting things done or meeting the organization's goals. Managers motivated by a need for achievement focus on setting and reaching goals, but they focus on their own achievement and recognition. However, institutional managers (those who desire power) are the most effective managers because they focus on building power by influencing or motivating others and thus accomplish more for the organization (and not their own personal benefit). These managers give their followers more responsibilities, view goals

more clearly, have a coaching managerial style, and demonstrate more team spirit, thus ensuring high morale and high levels of commitment to the organization -- all of which are behaviors also shown by transformational leaders. Thus, McClelland and Burnham showed that the best managers are ones who desire power and use it. They found that four characteristics are most reflective of institutional managers: (a) they are organization-minded and feel responsible for developing those organizations; (b) they like to work because it meets their need to get things done in an orderly manner; (c) they are willing to self-sacrifice for the good of the collective organization; and (d) they feel that those who work hard for the organization should be rewarded. While this research stream has shown the effectiveness of managers who are motivated by power, the construct of motivation to lead extends that of power motivation by considering additional sources that motivate one to be a leader.

Despite the promise of the Chan and Drasgow (2001) results and Popper and Maysless (2007) arguing that motivation to lead is one of the building blocks of socialized leader development, the construct has not been frequently examined in the research literature. One exception is Van Iddekinge, Ferris, and Heffner (2009) who recently examined a sample of 471 noncommissioned officers in the U.S. Army to assess various potential antecedents of leader performance (which consisted of four factors in their sample: captured technical proficiency, demonstration of effort, information management, and general leadership). They found that three personality factors (conscientiousness, emotional stability, and extraversion) were predictive of motivation to lead. Subsequently, motivation to lead predicted leadership KSAs and indirectly predicted supervisor-rated leader performance (through leader KSAs).

#### *Motivation to Lead and Transformational Leadership*

Although not a “fit” construct per se, motivation to lead (MTL) is relevant in that it assesses how leaders perceive their potential match with the situation (being a leader in this case). As mentioned, individuals high in affective-identity motivation to lead want to

be in leadership roles because of the enjoyment it brings. They enjoy being in leadership roles because they see themselves as having leadership qualities, value achievement, and are confident in their leadership abilities -- all things leading to perceptions of their effectiveness as leaders (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Van Iddekinge et al., 2009). Because of their desire to lead, these leaders feel that they are in the right situation when they are in a leadership role. Even though the construct of motivation to lead as discussed here did not exist in 1985, Bass referred to the notion of motivation to lead as an antecedent of transformational leadership in his conceptualization. He stated that “personality differences are also seen in the extent many people gain charismatic visibility and celebrity status, but not all use such status to take on leadership roles. ... The difference depended on personal career interests, energy levels, and commitments. Opportunities were taken by some but rejected by others without the same motivations and commitment” (Bass, 1985, p. 175).

While it has yet to be examined empirically, Kark and Van Dijk (2007) have also argued that motivation to lead will be related to transformational leadership as leaders’ chronic regulatory focus will impact their motivation to lead and ultimately their leader behaviors. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) proposed that individuals have two self-regulation systems: one focused on achievements and rewards (promotion goals) and the other focused on the avoidance of punishments (prevention goals). Kark and Van Dijk argued that promotion focus will impact affective-identity motivation to lead and will be demonstrated via transformational/charismatic leadership behaviors, while prevention goals will be demonstrated via transactional or monitoring behaviors. Kark and Van Dijk (2007) proposed that affective-identity motivation to lead leads to transformational or charismatic leader behaviors because someone who is “promotion focused will be motivated to lead out of his or her desire to lead, enjoyment and pleasure in leading, and a need for personal development and growth (i.e., affective MTL). Consequently, he or she will present a transformational/charismatic leadership style” (p.



508). One of the main reasons why Kark and Van Dijk suggested that affective-identity motivation to lead will result in transformational leadership behaviors is because transformational leaders do things because they want to, not because they have to. Transformational leaders are characterized by a pursuit of ideals, aspirations, and accomplishments. They also are more willing to take risks, drive change, and have a need for personal development and growth. Kark and Van Dijk (p. 508) further argued that this will be “evident in behaviors that characterize transformational and charismatic leaders (e.g., envision a hopeful and different future, lead changes, question traditional ways of thinking, etc.).”

Another theory that helps explain why affective-identity motivation to lead should be related to transformational leadership behavior is the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). The theory states that the best predictors of preferred behaviors are behavioral intentions. For example, Ajzen and Fishbein stated that “we have argued that a person's attitude toward an object influences the overall pattern of his responses to the object, but that it need not predict any given action. According to this analysis, a single behavior is determined by the intention to perform the behavior in question ... It follows that a single act is predictable from the attitude toward that act, provided that there is a high correlation between intention and behavior” (p. 888). If someone wishes to be a strong leader and has affective-identity motivation to lead, they are much more likely to have positive attitudes toward leadership and are likely to demonstrate the positive behaviors of transformational leadership. Implicit leadership theories help explain why transformational leadership behaviors may be among the leadership behaviors exhibited by individuals with high levels of motivation to lead. Leaders view transformational behaviors as a central part of leader prototypes (Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). Of their eight leadership dimensions commonly considered characteristic of effective leadership -- sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, attractiveness, masculinity, intelligence, and strength -- four of them (charisma, dedication, intelligence, and

sensitivity) are characteristics of transformational leaders (Bass, 1997). Thus, when leaders are more motivated to lead, transformational leadership behaviors are likely to be among the behaviors exhibited.

As mentioned, the constructs of motivation to manage (Miner, 1978) and power motivation (McClelland & Burnham, 1976) have some similarity to motivation to lead. Although the motivation to manage research has examined a few transformational behaviors, such as striving to help subordinates, challenging followers, and being highly visible (Bass, 1985), the construct's primary focus was on demonstrating positive relationships between managerial motivation scores and both advancement rate and managerial level as was confirmed across a number of situations (e.g., Berman & Miner, 1985; Miner, 1974; Miner, 1976; Miner & Crane, 1981; Rynes et al., 1988). In terms of power motivation, McClelland and Burnham (1976) showed that institutional managers (those who desire power) are the most effective managers because they focus on building power by influencing or motivating others and thus accomplish more for the organization (and not for their own personal benefit). These managers give their followers more responsibilities, view goals more clearly, have a coaching managerial style, and demonstrate more team spirit, thus ensuring high morale and high levels of commitment to the organization, all of which are behaviors also shown by transformational leaders. Thus, although the research on both motivation to manage and power motivation has explored some leadership behaviors that would be regarded as transformational, neither literature has explored the effects on follower outcomes as a primary focus of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

In addition to effects from stable individual differences such as personality and values, motivation to lead can be increased as an individual gains leadership experience or participates in a leader development experience (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). People who want to be better leaders and who feel they are ready to be good leaders are likely to have at least some leadership self-efficacy. Not surprisingly, Chan and Drasgow (2001) found

leader self-efficacy to be highly correlated with affective-identity motivation to lead in all three of their samples (.36 in the U.S. student sample, but ranging from .67-.69 in the two Singapore samples). As a leader becomes more intrinsically motivated to lead and feels more ready for a leadership role, he/she will become much more likely to want to be an effective leader. Self-efficacy is based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and has a core belief that an individual has the power to produce desired effects (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Even further, feelings of personal efficacy guide human functioning through numerous processes, such as cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional (Bandura, 1986). Bandura and Locke (2003, pp. 87-88) discussed nine meta-analyses that were conducted on self-efficacy. They concluded that the “evidence from these meta-analyses is consistent in showing that efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to the level of motivation and performance. Efficacy beliefs predict not only the behavioral functioning between individuals at different levels of perceived self-efficacy but also changes in functioning in individuals at different levels of efficacy over time and even variation within the same individual in the tasks performed and those shunned or attempted but failed.” In addition, the Mitchell and Daniels (2003) review chapter reported that there is a strong link between self-efficacy and performance (correlations between .37-.38). Furthermore, Bass (1999) and other researchers have shown that it is possible for people to learn to be transformational leaders. Two of the most often-cited examples showing that transformational leadership can be taught and further developed include Barling and colleagues (Barling, Weber, and Kelloway, 1996) and Dvir and colleagues (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002).

Although affective-identity motivation to lead seems likely to predict transformational leadership for all of the above reasons, social-normative motivation to lead probably does not have the same effect. Social-normative motivation to lead refers to the motivation of people who lead because they consider it one of their responsibilities, have a sense of duty, or feel an obligation to lead. Like affective-identity motivation to

lead, it is also partly based on personality traits and partly on leadership experience and leader efficacy. It may well predict other forms of leadership or leader emergence, but it is not expected to relate to transformational leadership. In their construct development, Chan and Drasgow (2001) showed that social-normative motivation to lead was correlated with leader potential, both in assessment center ratings and in leader potential ratings. However, it did not contribute unique variance beyond the other predictors, thus suggesting that the sense of obligation to lead may not be enough to make others perceive that someone has the potential to lead. Kark and Van Dijk (2007) argued that social-normative motivation to lead would align with a prevention goal strategy and, as such, it would be predictive of transactional or monitoring behaviors. Their reasoning was based on the fact that leaders high in social-normative motivation to lead are motivated by external motives like social pressures and obligations. These motives correspond with leader values of safety, security, and conformity; however, these values do not align with transformational leadership.

The social-normative dimension is likely to capture abilities fit with regard to the leadership role because these leaders will feel a sense of duty to lead because of their KSAs (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Their high self-efficacy (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) will give them the confidence that they can succeed in a leadership role and thus may be predictive of other types of leadership. For example, the situational aspect of self-efficacy makes it likely to predict leader emergence because people high in this dimension of motivation to lead will feel that the situation needs them to step up and be leaders. However, social-normative motivation to lead is not a true desire to be a leader. Rather, it is a feeling that one should lead because of a sense of obligation to do so. As a result, these leaders are not expected to have the same level of commitment to their leadership roles and to their organizations that those high in affective-identity motivation to lead would possess. This type of motivation to lead may still be predictive of

leadership, but transformational leader behaviors are not a likely outcome, and no relationship with transformational leadership is expected.

The notion of affective-identity motivation to lead (desire to be a leader because of the enjoyment it brings) aligns with several dimensions of transformational leadership because people with high levels of motivation to lead tend to be extraverted and conscientious, value achievement, and have confidence in their leadership skills. These leaders will be motivated to continue to become even better leaders and thus aim to challenge followers to exceed expectations, stimulate them to be more creative, and strive to develop them into leaders themselves, all of which are aims of transformational leadership. They will want to better their followers and also their organizations. Based on the above empirical findings and relevant theories (such as theory of planned behavior, motivation to manage, self-efficacy theory, and implicit person theories), it is argued that affective-identity motivation to lead will predict transformational leader behaviors. As a result, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1b: Leaders' affective-identity motivation to lead will be positively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leader behaviors.*

### **Needs-Supplies Fit**

A second fit construct is that of person-job (P-J) fit, which is defined as a “relationship between a person’s characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 284). Most often used in recruitment or selection research, the construct of person-job fit examines how compatible a person’s characteristics are with those of the specific role or job (e.g., Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). P-J fit is also conceptualized via complementary and supplementary fit. In terms of the complementary fit conceptualization, needs-supplies (or supplies-values) fit consists of an employee having his/her needs, desires, or preferences met by the job (Edwards, 1991). The current study examined needs-supplies fit in terms of the leadership role itself. Leaders are more likely to demonstrate transformational behaviors

when they feel that their needs, desires, or preferences are met by the job (Shamir et al., 1993).

#### *Meta-Analysis of Needs-Supplies Fit Research*

Whereas multiple meta-analyses have examined the P-O fit research, the Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) meta-analysis is the only one to examine the outcomes of P-J fit. The overall corrected correlation with job satisfaction was found to be .56 ( $k = 47$ ;  $N = 12,960$ ; needs-supplies .61; direct .58). The overall relationship between P-J fit and organizational commitment was .47 ( $k = 18$ ;  $N = 4,073$ ; needs-supplies .37). In terms of the relationship between P-J fit and intent to quit, the overall relationship was -.46 ( $k = 16$ ;  $N = 3,849$ ; needs-supplies -.50; direct -.49). Another relationship of interest for P-J fit was overall performance .20 ( $k = 19$ ;  $N = 1,938$ ; needs-supplies .20; direct .22). The correlations across the three major measures (direct, subjective, and objective) were more similar for P-J fit than they were for P-O fit and, in some cases, direct measures did not yield the strongest effect.

#### *Needs-Supplies Fit and Transformational Leadership*

There are many reasons why leaders with higher levels of needs-supplies fit are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. This type of fit occurs when an employee perceives that his/her needs, desires, or preferences are being met by the job (Edwards, 1991). As suggested by the framework of P-E fit theory, leaders will be more likely to display transformational behaviors when they feel that their own needs are being met by their leadership role. When needs are being met, they are more likely to have the motivation and resources to successfully exhibit individualized consideration toward their followers. For example, they are likely to provide more focused coaching/mentoring attention and support to followers. They are also likely to provide followers with challenging developmental projects that will help to transition these followers into becoming transformational leaders (Bass, 1985). These actions will subsequently help their followers also feel that their needs are being met by the job. These leaders will

likely be more willing to provide followers with the needed support and resources, empower them, solicit suggestions from them, and provide valuable feedback. This is similar to the trickle-down notion found in other OB and leadership research (i.e., Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Masterson, 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Tepper & Taylor, 2003).

In addition, leaders with high levels of needs-supplies fit will be more likely to feel a sense of commitment from the organization. Based on the framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), it can be argued that leaders with higher levels of needs-supplies fit will be more motivated to contribute to the good of the organization by communicating a positive vision and inspiring their followers to exceed expectations. If leaders feel that they are a good fit for their leadership role, they are more likely to demonstrate positive leadership behaviors to their followers in exchange for the leadership opportunities personally provided to them by the organization. Although they considered needs-supplies fit to be especially relevant to attitudes such as satisfaction, Edwards and Shipp (2007, p. 231) also stated that “contextual performance should relate primarily to needs-supplies fit and, to a lesser extent demands-abilities fit.” Edwards and Shipp argued that the link between needs-supplies fit and contextual performance is through job attitudes. Job satisfaction has been shown to be predictive of contextual performance (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bacharach, 2000). Employees are more willing to reciprocate as part of the exchange relationship when they are satisfied and committed. Furthermore, satisfied employees define their job duties more broadly and tend to view contextual performance as part of their role (Morrison, 1994). As such, these leaders would be expected to motivate their followers to go above and beyond in assisting their coworkers and promoting the organizational image. Considering that the ultimate aim of transformational leadership is to develop followers into future transformational leaders, this will be easier for leaders who feel that they fit well with their own roles. Because leaders with high levels of needs-supplies fit perceptions will

likely feel they have benefitted from the opportunities provided to them by the organization, they will, in return, be more likely to voluntarily provide their own followers with the support and resources they need for their own success as leaders in the organization.

Based on the above empirical findings on needs-supplies fit and theory (such as person-environment fit theory and social exchange theory), it is argued that needs-supplies fit will predict transformational leader behaviors. As a result, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1c: Leaders' needs-supplies fit will be positively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leader behaviors.*

Up to this point, the focus has been on motives as predictors of transformational leadership. Another potential category of antecedents in the current study is that of capacity (or ability) because fit with the situation is not entirely motivational. Variables examined here as potential antecedents of transformational leadership are those of demands-abilities fit (and personality as a control variable).

### **Demands-Abilities Fit**

Demands-abilities fit is another conceptualization of P-J fit. Most often used in recruitment or selection research, the construct of P-J fit examines the compatibility of a person's characteristics with those of the specific role or job (e.g., Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). It is often viewed as traditional selection, which matches the individual's KSAs to the requirements of the job (Ployhart et al., 2006). As recently noted by Kristof-Brown and Guay (2010, p. 7), "interestingly, however, fit is rarely assessed for selection purposes, it is assumed or implicit by the meeting of job requirements." Demands-abilities fit exists when a person's KSAs correspond with what is required by the job (Edwards, 1991) and is thus examined in terms of the leadership role itself. People who consider themselves to be a better fit with their leadership roles are likely to believe that they have the KSAs required to be effective leaders.



### *Meta-Analysis of Demands-Abilities Fit Research*

Although multiple meta-analyses have examined the P-O fit research, the Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) meta-analysis is the only one to examine the outcomes of P-J fit. The overall corrected correlation with job satisfaction was found to be .56 ( $k = 47$ ;  $N = 12,960$ ; demands-abilities .41; direct .58). The overall relationship between P-J fit and organizational commitment was .47 ( $k = 18$ ;  $N = 4,073$ ; demands-abilities .31). In terms of the relationship between P-J fit and intent to quit, the overall relationship was -.46 ( $k = 16$ ;  $N = 3,849$ ; demands-abilities -.23; direct -.49). Another relationship of interest for P-J fit is overall performance .20 ( $k = 19$ ;  $N = 1,938$ ; demands-abilities .12; direct .22). The correlations across the three major measures (direct, subjective, and objective) were more similar for P-J fit than they were for P-O fit and, in some cases, direct measures did not yield the strongest effect.

### *Demands-Abilities Fit and Transformational Leadership*

There are many reasons why leaders with higher levels of demands-abilities fit are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. Demands-abilities fit occurs when a person's KSAs are in line with what is required by the job (Edwards, 1991). For individuals in leadership positions, those who consider themselves to be a better fit with their leadership roles by definition believe that they have the KSAs required to be effective leaders. This perception is likely to lead to higher levels of leader self-efficacy. As can be developed via the framework of self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986), leaders will be more motivated to display exemplary, motivational, and developmental behaviors when they feel that their own abilities are a good fit with their leadership role. As such, people who feel that they are a good fit with their leadership role by perceiving that they possess the needed KSAs are more likely to be effective leaders. Bandura and Locke (2003) reviewed several meta-analyses on self-efficacy and determined that there is significant empirical evidence that self-efficacy leads to increased motivation and performance.

Further, Edwards and Shipp (2007, pp. 230-231) stated that “task performance is linked to demands-abilities fit” (whereas they suggested that attitudes and OCB align more with needs-supplies fit). As such, transformational leaders are expected to have stronger task performance when they perceive demands-abilities fit. For those in leadership roles, a portion of the evaluation of their task performance will include their leadership effectiveness because that will be the basis for success at that level of position. Edwards and Shipp argued that there are two main reasons why performance is stronger when demands-abilities fit is high. First, high levels of demands and abilities refer to situations where a leader would be challenged with high demands but possesses the strong abilities to meet those demands. Second, high demands and high abilities refer to situations where performance goals are difficult but attainable, which can increase motivation and subsequently performance as well (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Up to this point, I have argued that demands-abilities fit increases leader self-efficacy and motivates higher levels of performance and effective leadership, but it is necessary to use implicit leadership theory to make the link between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership. If people perceive that their job fits with their KSAs, it is likely to trigger their implicit beliefs about what behaviors characterize effective leadership. An individual's implicit leadership theory refers to beliefs held about how leaders behave in general and what is expected of them (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). According to Keller (1999), implicit leadership theories specify the qualities and behaviors that individuals associate with the term “leader.” It has been shown empirically that leaders view transformational behaviors as being characteristic of prototypical leaders (Offerman et al., 1994). Offerman et al. found that transformational behaviors are commonly included in implicit theories of effective leadership. Of their eight leadership dimensions, four (charisma, dedication, intelligence, and sensitivity) are characteristics of transformational leaders (Bass, 1997). Thus, when leaders have higher

levels of demands-abilities fit, which motivates more effective leadership, they are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors.

Based on the above empirical findings on person-job fit and theory (such as self-efficacy theory and implicit leadership theory), it is argued that demands-abilities fit will predict transformational leader behaviors. As a result, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 1d: Leaders' demands-abilities fit will be positively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leader behaviors.*

### **Need for Change**

Demands-abilities fit influences transformational leadership because leaders will be more efficacious and able to exhibit effective leadership. When the situation demands change and the leader feels able to meet this demand, transformational leadership will be especially relevant. Bass (1985) argued that crisis, uncertainty, and turbulence all make transformational leadership more likely. In addition, Bass and Riggio (2006, p. 87) stated that while transactional leadership should be effective in stable or predictable environments, “more transformational leadership is likely to emerge in organizations and be effective when leaders face an unstable, uncertain, turbulent environment.” In these situations, leaders need to produce change and movement, establish direction, and align people, as well as motivate and inspire followers (Kotter, 1990). They need to see a vision for the future and then motivate people to achieve that vision. They need to meet new demands and changes as they occur (Bass & Riggio, 2006) to help ensure long-term survival for the organization.

As stability decreases and the environment changes more frequently, leaders must anticipate more often and thus become more transformational (Ansoff & Sullivan, 1991). They must proactively seek opportunities for change and intellectually stimulate creativity (Bass & Riggio, 2006). For example, these leaders are more likely to bring about change by inspiring followers to challenge the status quo in the quest for

continuous improvement. In empirical work, House (1995) examined CEOs during stable and unstable environments to assess how followers' MLQ ratings of leaders' transformational behaviors changed. As expected, transformational leadership ratings increased during times of unstable environments. Specifically, idealized influence increased from 2.2 to 2.6 (on a scale of 0-4), inspirational motivation from 1.7 to 2.1, intellectual stimulation from 2.0 to 2.4, and individualized consideration from 2.3 to 2.8. Although the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership also increased (from 1.7 to 2.0), the management by exception dimension decreased slightly from 2.3 to 2.2 as the environment became more unstable. However, I propose that transformational leadership is most likely to be displayed not only when the situation requires leaders to step up and lead, but also when leaders feel that they possess the KSAs needed to fill the void. Thus, while I proposed that demands-abilities fit is positively related to transformational leadership, I expected an even stronger relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership when the situation demands dealing with change and turbulence. As a result, both leaders and their supervisors also assessed the need for change within the leader's work unit.

*Hypothesis 1e: Need for change will moderate the relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership, such that the positive relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership is stronger as need for change increases.*

### **Big Five Personality**

As discussed earlier, it has been shown via meta-analysis that the Big Five personality traits are related to transformational leadership as a whole and to the individual dimensions: idealized influence–inspirational motivation (combined and referred to as charisma), intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bono & Judge, 2004). Extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of transformational leadership. When looking at the overall composite of transformational

leadership dimensions, each of the Big Five had significant relationships (numbers in parentheses reflect corrected correlations [population estimates] when only considering studies that used direct measures of the Big Five): extraversion .24 (k = 20; N = 3,692) (.23), neuroticism -.17 (k = 18; N = 3,380) (-.16), openness to experience .15 (k = 19; N = 3,887) (.09), agreeableness .14 (k = 20; N = 3,916) (.12), and conscientiousness .13 (k = 18; N = 3,516) (.11).

The following personality traits had significant corrected correlations (confidence intervals did not include zero) with charisma (idealized influence and inspirational motivation combined): extraversion .22 (k = 9; N = 1,706), openness to experience .22 (k = 9; N = 1,706), agreeableness .21 (k = 9; N = 1,706), and neuroticism -.17 (k = 10; N = 1,650). For intellectual stimulation, significant personality traits were extraversion .18 (k = 7; N = 1,574), agreeableness .14 (k = 8; N = 1,828), openness to experience .11 (k = 8; N = 1,828), and neuroticism -.12 (k = 9; N = 1,772). For individualized consideration, extraversion .18 (k = 7; N = 1,574), agreeableness .17 (k = 8; N = 1,828), and neuroticism -.10 (k = 9; N = 1,772) were all significant. Overall, each of the Big Five appears to be important in shaping the transformational leader behaviors that managers demonstrate to their subordinates. Given that meta-analytic results have shown that all Big Five traits are predictive of overall transformational leadership and because transformational leadership often loads on one higher order factor, I controlled for all of the Big Five personality traits in the current study.

### **Leader Effectiveness**

The benefits of transformational leadership extend beyond followers. In addition, transformational leadership impacts supervisory perceptions of leader effectiveness. Leader effectiveness of transformational leaders is often measured in one of two ways (Bass & Riggio, 2006). One method is via subjective perceptions of the leader's performance, often from followers or the leader's own supervisor. The other method entails objective measures of follower or team performance, such as productivity, goal

achievement, sales, or other financial outcomes; these measures are almost always assessed by the leader's supervisor. By enhancing followers' self-concepts, inspiring followers to follow the collective good of the organization, aligning follower values with the organization's values, and motivating followers to perform beyond expectations, transformational leaders lead to increased organizational goal accomplishment, thus increasing how they will be perceived in terms of leader effectiveness (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993).

It follows that supervisor perceptions of a leader's effectiveness should be in line with followers' perceptions of transformational leadership. If followers are happy with their leaders and performing well, their team and unit performance levels will likely also increase, thus making it very probable that supervisors will rate the leaders as being effective. On the other hand, if followers are not happy with the leaders and are performing below standards or even leaving the organization as a result, it is unlikely that the leaders will be perceived as effective by their own supervisors. In addition, transformational leaders have been shown to put forth more effort and receive higher performance evaluations (Bass, 1985).

Numerous studies have examined the effect of transformational leadership on leader effectiveness; therefore, this section of the literature review focuses on the four published meta-analyses (DeGroot et al., 2000; Fuller et al., 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996) regarding transformational or charismatic leadership as results are not expected to differ in the current sample.

The Fuller et al. (1996) meta-analysis found a corrected correlation of .78 ( $k = 10$ ;  $N = 1,524$ ) between charismatic leadership and perceived leader effectiveness (stronger correlations for upper organizational levels of the leader), and .80 ( $k = 12$ ;  $N = 2,680$ ) between charisma and satisfaction with the leader. The Lowe et al. (1996) meta-analysis also examined leader effectiveness and found overall corrected correlations of .71 ( $k$  values not reported;  $N = 6,485$ ) for charisma, .62 ( $N = 6,232$ ) for individualized

consideration, and .60 ( $N = 6,360$ ) for intellectual stimulation. When type of organization (public vs. private) was considered as a moderator, the mean corrected correlation for charisma (combination of idealized influence and inspirational motivation) was .74 for public firms and .59 for private firms; individualized consideration was .63 for public and .54 for private; intellectual stimulation was .65 for public and .47 for private. The more significant moderator findings on leader effectiveness ratings from the Lowe et al. meta-analysis were for type of criterion measurement (follower ratings vs. organizational measures) because all leadership categories had significant differences: charisma .81 for followers vs. .35 for organizational measures; individualized consideration .69 for followers vs. .28 for organizational measures; intellectual stimulation .68 for followers vs. .26 for organizational measures, suggesting that follower perceptions of leader effectiveness are not necessarily in line with organizational measures.

The DeGroot et al. (2000) meta-analysis also examined the relationship between charismatic leadership and leader effectiveness and found an overall corrected correlation of .74 ( $k = 23$ ;  $N = 5,577$ ; .49 via group measure and .76 via individual measure), but did not show that it is even more effective at increasing group performance than individual performance. The most recent published meta-analysis on transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004) was a comprehensive examination of the entire full range leadership model. In terms of the findings regarding leader effectiveness, results demonstrated that transformational leadership had estimated true score correlations of .71 ( $k = 23$ ;  $N = 4,349$ ) with follower satisfaction with leader, .27 ( $k = 13$ ;  $N = 2,126$ ) with leader job performance, and .64 ( $k = 27$ ;  $N = 5,415$ ) with leader effectiveness.

Overall, these meta-analytic findings are quite robust and consistent in showing that the relationship between transformational leadership and overall leader effectiveness ranges between .60-.78, although correlations with subjective measures are considerably stronger than those with objective measures.

As stated, transformational leadership theory also extends to perceptions of leader effectiveness by one's own supervisor, either via perceptions of the leader's performance or via measures of team performance, such as productivity, goal achievement, sales, or other financial outcomes. By inspiring followers to perform beyond expectations, transformational leadership increases organizational goal accomplishment (Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993), as has been supported via meta-analytic evidence discussed above. In addition, if followers are happy with their leaders and performing well, their team and unit performance levels will likely also increase, thus making it very probable that supervisors will rate the leaders as being effective. Based on the above theoretical justifications and prior meta-analytic evidence, the following hypothesis is proposed.

*Hypothesis 2: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to supervisor perceptions of leader effectiveness.*

### **Follower Outcomes**

Just as with leader effectiveness, several of the transformational leadership meta-analyses (DeGroot et al., 2000; Fuller et al., 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) have also examined the effects of transformational leadership on follower attitude and performance outcomes. In addition to theoretical justifications discussed below, this section of the literature review focuses primarily on meta-analytic evidence because results in the current sample are expected to be very similar.

### **Job Satisfaction**

Many researchers have used Locke's definition of job satisfaction (1976; p. 1304), which is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences," because it considers both appraisal (cognitive thought) and emotions (affective feelings) in the job satisfaction equation. Job satisfaction can be assessed as either overall job satisfaction or via measuring five common individual facets: satisfaction with coworkers, pay, promotions, supervisor, and the work itself (Brief, 1998).



Transformational leaders are able to effectively motivate leaders to exceed expectations. In addition, the respect and admiration that transformational leaders command also leads to follower job satisfaction. Further, transformational leaders are able to increase follower satisfaction by gaining follower trust through integrity and dedication, being fair in treatment of followers, and showing their faith in followers through empowerment (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Meta-analytic evidence regarding charismatic leadership effects on job satisfaction has shown a corrected correlation of .77 ( $k = 14$ ;  $N = 3,832$ ) with follower job satisfaction (DeGroot et al., 2000). Judge and Piccolo (2004) found a true score correlation of .58 ( $k = 18$ ;  $N = 5,279$ ) between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction.

*Hypothesis 3a: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower job satisfaction.*

### **Intentions to Quit**

The construct of intentions to quit reflects people who are actively searching for a new job outside of their current organization, who are thinking about quitting their job, or who would leave the organization if a better job is found (Landau & Hammer, 1986). Transformational leadership has been shown to lead to increased retention and reduced stress and burnout levels (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Both Martin and Epitropaki (2001) and Vandenberghe and colleagues (Vandenberghe, Stordeur, & D'hoore, 2002) demonstrated that transformational leadership leads to lower follower turnover intentions. Similarly, Conger and Kanungo (1988) found that transformational leadership increases followers' commitment to stay. Not surprisingly, Bass and Riggio (2006) argued that intentions to quit depend on commitment because those who are committed to the organization do not intend to leave. Thus, organizational commitment can be equated with negative intentions to quit. For that reason, I also discuss relevant findings on transformational

leadership and organizational commitment to further demonstrate the negative relationship between transformational leadership and follower quit intentions.

Several meta-analyses have been conducted on organizational commitment and have demonstrated that it is an outcome of transformational leadership. Employees who are committed to the organization plan to stay for the long-term and thus have no intentions of searching for a new position outside of their current employer.

Organizational commitment is the “strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226) and has been characterized as commitment along three dimensions: strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s values, willingness to exert substantial effort for the employer, and strong desire to remain with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) similarly conceptualized organizational commitment as a psychological state toward the organization including the identification and involvement with and the internalization of organizational goals and values.

Transformational leadership strengthens employees’ commitment to the vision by enhancing employee identification with the organization and by providing employees with opportunities for development that instill faith in followers, thus increasing follower self-esteem. In addition, transformational leaders increase follower commitment by aligning the values of followers with those of the organization and through role model behaviors (Bass, 1985; House, 1977).

In their meta-analysis of the organizational commitment literature, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) showed that antecedents include leader communication and participative leadership. They also showed that organizational commitment leads to reduced intentions to search and intentions to leave. Another meta-analysis demonstrated that transformational leadership has a corrected correlation of .46 ( $k = 4$ ;  $N = 2,361$ ) with affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Lastly, DeGroot et al. (2000) found that the

relationship between charismatic leadership and follower commitment has a corrected correlation of .43 ( $k = 3$ ;  $N = 2,040$ ).

*Hypothesis 3b: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to follower intentions to quit.*

### **Job/Task Performance**

Job performance typically reflects in-role performance that is part of the actual responsibility of the job although it can also be viewed as overall job performance where it is combined with OCB. Transformational leadership increases not only follower performance but also the performance levels of entire groups or organizations (such as through financial performance; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Because of the motivating abilities of transformational leaders to inspire followers to perform beyond expectations, leaders increase follower effort (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Transformational leaders also improve follower performance by increasing their self-concept, aligning goals and values of followers with those of the organization, and challenging followers to think beyond the status quo through intellectual stimulation. This push for creativity also leads to improved performance (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The Fuller et al. (1996) meta-analysis found a correlation of .45 ( $k = 27$ ;  $N = 4,611$ ) between charismatic leadership and overall job performance of subordinates (.48 for subjective; .34 for objective). DeGroot et al. (2000) found a correlation of .31 ( $k = 11$ ;  $N = 1,147$ ) for follower effectiveness (.49 when measured at the group level versus .31 when measured at the individual level) and also found that charismatic leadership was positively related to follower effort (.73;  $k = 12$ ;  $N = 3,807$ ) when controlling for the level of analysis. In addition to individual performance, Judge and Piccolo's (2004) comprehensive investigation of the FRL model also examined the relationships among the various FRL leadership styles and job performance and showed that the corrected correlation was .26 ( $k = 41$ ;  $N = 6,197$ ) for the relationship between transformational leadership and group or organization performance.

*Hypothesis 3c: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower task performance.*

### **Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

OCB, also commonly referred to as either contextual performance or extra-role performance, has been defined as voluntary “individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements” (Organ & Ryan, 1995, p. 775). Examples of OCB include helping new employees, compliance with organizational policies, and promoting the organizational image. Even though OCB is not directly linked to task performance and formal rewards, it is agreed upon that OCB supports the organization and its members. OCB can be examined as an overall measure or broken down to the level of two related but distinct target-based facets that specify whether the behavior is aimed toward individuals (OCB-I) or to the organization (OCB-O; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) stated that transformational leadership effects on beneficial job behaviors (such as OCB) are quite possibly the most often studied outcome of transformational leaders because these leaders are able to not only increase follower task performance but also encourage the increase of OCB.

As with task performance, transformational leadership increases OCB through many of the same mechanisms. Because of the motivating abilities of transformational leaders to inspire followers to perform beyond expectations, OCB also increases follower effort beyond the traditional role itself. Transformational leaders improve follower OCB through increasing their levels of self-esteem, alignment of goals and values, and challenging followers to be innovative (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass (1985) suggested that transformational leaders provide detailed feedback to followers and convince them to put forth extra effort, thus resulting in followers often becoming more willing to cooperate with others in the organization, and increasing OCB as a result.

Three meta-analytic reviews (Fuller et al., 1996; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996) concluded that transformational leadership consistently has strong correlations

with task performance across a variety of organizations. Although OCB was not directly assessed through these meta-analyses, many of the primary studies included in them measured overall job performance, which in addition to task performance takes into account OCB. One of the classic articles examining the effects of transformational leadership on OCB is that of Podsakoff and colleagues (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Considering that premises of transformational leadership are to motivate followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985), it makes sense that one of the main effects of transformational leadership on performance would come via OCB. Podsakoff et al. utilized a sample of nearly 1,000 employees in a large chemical company to examine the effect of transformational leadership on OCB. Results showed that transformational leader behaviors are positively related to OCB and that those effects are mediated by followers' trust in their leaders.

*Hypothesis 3d: Follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower organizational citizenship behavior.*

### **Follower Moderators**

Just as leaders' fit with the situation may influence transformational leadership, followers' fit with the situation may influence their receptiveness to transformational leadership. Another purpose of this dissertation was to examine the moderating role of follower fit perceptions (person-supervisor fit and person-organization fit) because it is very likely that these perceptions and traits will impact their response to transformational leadership. As suggested by Bass (1985), the environment matters in leadership and impacts both leaders and followers. For example, what is the effect on followers' work attitudes and performance when they perceive that they fit with their leader and/or the organization? Sosik and Jung (2010) argued that when followers fit with the situation, they feel ready to embrace change. If that is the case, they are more likely to respond positively to the behaviors of transformational leaders. Despite the fact that there is still more to learn about the predictors of transformational leadership, research literature on

the impact of follower traits on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes (such as work attitudes and job performance) is even more sparse (e.g., Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Walumbwa et al., 2007; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001; Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009).

Past leadership theory and research has focused almost entirely on the impact of the leader and largely ignored the role of how follower characteristics impact leader behavior (Judge & Bono, 2000); thus, there have been several calls to examine the role of the follower more closely (e.g., Howell & Shamir, 2005; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). Shamir et al. (1993) stated that followers respond to charismatic leaders just as often as leaders respond to their followers and implied that charismatic leaders would not have the same effect on all followers because follower predispositions determine whether charisma will lead to positive outcomes. Likewise, Howell and Shamir (2005) suggested that followers' characteristics would be significant factors in how they react to various types of leaders, whereas Klein and House (1995, p. 185) argued that some followers (such as those who are "compatible and comfortable with their leader's vision and style") are more susceptible to transformational leaders than others. A case study by Roberts and Bradley (1988) confirmed that transformational leadership does not have the same impact on all followers. Even Bass, when developing transformational leadership theory (1985), acknowledged that transformational leadership may well be more effective for some followers than for others, thus indirectly suggesting that follower differences would be an important moderator of its effects on follower attitudes and performance.

The importance of considering followers began with Kelley's (1988) *Harvard Business Review* article that said not all corporate success is due to leadership, but also to effective followers. Kelley identified four qualities that effective followers share: the ability to self-manage; commitment to the organization and to a purpose outside themselves; competence and a focus on maximum impact; and being courageous, honest, and credible. According to Kelley, effective followers are able to think for themselves

and accomplish job duties with independence, enthusiasm, and effectiveness, thus also implying that certain follower individual differences would have a positive effect on follower work attitudes and performance. Subsequently, researchers have proposed various frameworks to explain the roles of followers in the leader-follower dyadic relationship (e.g., Howell & Shamir, 2005; Lord et al., 1999; Weierter, 1997). For example, Klein and House (1995) pointed out that both leaders and followers have roles in building transformational relationships. I attempted to provide insight by examining how follower fit perceptions impact their response to transformational leaders. The impact of the situation on leaders and of the leader on followers must both come together to create the “fire” that ignites energy and commitment in followers, thus leading to additional positive outcomes.

It seems like an appropriate time for leadership researchers to examine follower fit perceptions as potential moderators in the transformational leadership-follower outcomes relationships. Howell and Shamir (2005) stated that follower characteristics are strong determinants of their reactions to leaders, as is suggested by charismatic leadership theory (Shamir et al., 1993) as well as by substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) and by path-goal theory (House, 1971). Thus, it seems quite probable that fit differences in followers will interact with transformational leadership to affect the performance and work attitudes of followers.

### **Hypotheses Development for Follower Fit Moderators**

As mentioned, followers’ fit with the situation may influence their receptiveness to transformational leadership just as a leader’s perception of fit will influence transformational leadership behaviors. As such, another purpose of this dissertation was to examine the moderating role of follower fit perceptions with both the leader (person-supervisor fit) and the organization (person-organization fit) because it is very likely that these perceptions will impact response to transformational leadership. Little research has examined the role of the follower as a moderator in the transformational leadership-

follower outcomes relationships despite the fact that Howell and Shamir (2005) stated that follower characteristics are strong determinants of their reactions to leaders and charismatic leadership theory states that transformational leaders will not impact all followers equally (Shamir et al., 1993). Transformational leaders increase performance through high expectations as well as increase the positive attitudes of followers by enhancing meaningfulness of work and aligning values of followers with those of the organization. It has been argued, however, that transformational leadership will be more effective for some followers than it will be for others (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987), thus implying that follower differences are likely to be an important moderator in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes. Although researchers have started to examine the ways in which follower individual differences interact with leadership to impact follower work attitudes, there is still much to be learned. For that reason, I attempted to fill this gap in the literature by examining follower fit perceptions as moderators in the relationships between transformational leadership and follower outcomes.

Prior researchers have not examined fit perceptions as moderators, but there have been a few follower factors considered as moderators in this relationship. For example, Wofford et al. (2001) examined motive patterns of followers as situational moderators of the effectiveness of transformational leadership in a sample of 96 managers and 157 followers of an engineering services agency. Need for autonomy was found to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and leader evaluations of group effectiveness such that followers with higher needs for autonomy who viewed their leaders as transformational were found to have higher levels of group effectiveness. Growth need strength moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower evaluations of leader effectiveness as well as with follower satisfaction, such that followers with higher growth need strength viewed transformational leadership as more effective and had higher levels of satisfaction. Yun and colleagues (Yun, Cox, &



Sims, 2006) also examined growth need strength. In a sample of followers of a large U.S. defense firm, the authors found that both empowering leadership (positive) and directive leadership (negative) interacted with followers' needs for autonomy to subsequently increase follower self-leadership. Thus the influence of leadership on follower self-leadership was contingent on followers' need for autonomy. Results from both studies imply that transformational leadership works better when the things that leaders provide, such as opportunities for growth and autonomy, match the needs and desires of their followers.

Walumbwa et al. (2007), in a multinational sample with participants from China, India, Kenya, and the U.S., demonstrated that allocentrism (viewing oneself in terms of the in-groups in which he/she belongs) and idiocentrism (viewing oneself in a way that individual goals take precedence over in-group goals) moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower work attitudes. Allocentrics had more positive work attitudes (organizational commitment and satisfaction with supervisor) when their leaders displayed more transformational leader behaviors, while idiocentrics were happier with transactional leaders. In a study with a similar multinational sample (bank branches in China, India, and the U.S.), Walumbwa and colleagues (Walumbwa, Lawler, Avolio, Wang, & Shi, 2005) showed that aggregated levels of efficacy (collective and self) moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower work attitudes (organizational commitment and job satisfaction) such that the relationship was more positive as the efficacy levels increased. As transformational leaders are more demanding and have higher expectations of their followers, these results appear to imply that the effects of transformational leadership will be strongest for those with the highest levels of efficacy (collective and self). Perhaps a certain level of skills or resources is needed to reap the performance benefits of having a transformational leader.

Recently, Zhu et al. (2009) used a sample of 48 supervisors and 140 followers from a variety of South African companies to determine whether positive follower

characteristics moderated the relationship between follower perceptions of transformational leadership and the followers' own levels of work engagement (often thought of as vigor, dedication, and absorption; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The positive follower characteristics considered were being an independent thinker, possessing a willingness to take risks, being an active learner, and also being innovative. All were positively related to work engagement and were shown to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' work engagement such that transformational leadership has a more positive effect on the followers' levels of work engagement when the follower characteristics were also more positive. The authors concluded that their findings showed that leaders should pay more attention to each of their followers' wants and needs, just as Bass (1985) suggested in the individualized consideration component of transformational leadership. It also seems likely that the findings suggest that followers need some resources to take advantage of the motivating potential of transformational leadership. For example, if a leader communicates a challenging vision and encourages innovation, followers may react positively only if they have the resources (independent thinking skills, willingness to take risks, active learning skills, and being innovative) to fulfill the demands of the leader.

Meanwhile, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) used two samples of employees from the Netherlands to examine whether follower personality traits (neuroticism and locus of control) moderated the relationship between leadership behavior (autocratic and charismatic) and follower burnout. Both follower personality traits did in fact moderate the relationship between leader behavior and burnout. Charismatic leadership led to lower levels of burnout, especially for followers with a low internal locus of control who see themselves (as opposed to the environment or even leaders) as being primarily responsible for what happens to them in life. For autocratic leadership, however, the relationship with burnout was positive for employees high in neuroticism. These results showed that affective and motivational traits moderate leadership effects on burnout and

imply that while the charismatic and autocratic leadership may hinder or enhance burnout, respectively, those relationships differ for followers with different traits. In total, these studies of follower moderators are rare in the transformational leadership-follower outcomes relationships, and researchers have yet to examine the moderating role of follower fit perceptions.

### **Person-Supervisor Fit**

One relevant fit conceptualization is that of person-individual fit, which is the “dyadic relationship between individuals and others in their work environments” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287). Although it can occur between any two individuals, this type of fit is most often examined as the match between supervisors and their subordinates (e.g., Adkins et al., 1994). This type of fit is referred to as person-supervisor (P-S) fit and was conceptualized in the current study as value congruence between leader and follower (e.g., Colbert, 2004; Krishnan, 2002).

Atwater and Dionne (2007, p. 183) recently concluded:

Very little work in the fit literature has explicitly focused on fit as it relates to fit between leaders and followers. Leadership theory has implied that leader-follower fit is important (e.g., in discussions of leader-member exchange), but these notions have not been developed from a fit perspective. We contend that in addition to the fit individuals feel with other workgroup members, it also is important for leaders and followers to feel a sense of compatibility or fit with one another.

This lack of research is surprising because fit between leaders and followers is important for many reasons, such as leaders serving as representatives of the organization’s values, helping to socialize employees into the organization and department, and providing opportunities for employees to acquire new training or development (Atwater & Dionne, 2007).

### *Meta-Analysis of P-S Fit Research*

The Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) fit meta-analysis also compiled the research that had been conducted on P-S fit. Corrected correlations for the work attitudes relationships involving P-S fit were job satisfaction .44 ( $k = 5$ ;  $N = 1,199$ ), organizational commitment

.09 ( $k = 7$ ;  $N = 1,346$ ), and supervisor satisfaction .46 ( $k = 5$ ;  $N = 918$ ). Other relationships of interest for P-S fit include overall performance .18 ( $k = 14$ ;  $N = 3,461$ ) and LMX .43 ( $k = 3$ ;  $N = 628$ ). These results are important as they provide empirical evidence that P-S fit leads to job/supervisor satisfaction and to increased performance.

*Studies of Leader-Follower Value Congruence  
and Transformational Leadership*

Although the current study examines P-S fit as a moderator in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes, previous research examining these constructs has treated the P-S value congruence as a mediator. For example, Meglino and colleagues (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989) showed that values congruence between a leader and his/her followers was positively related to followers' work attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment). Thus, followers perceiving that their leader has values similar to their own also have more positive attitudes toward the organization. There have also been several studies that have examined leader-follower value congruence as a mediator in the relationship between transformational leadership perceptions and follower outcomes.

In a study that examined the relationship between transformational leadership and follower value congruence with both the leader and the organization, Krishnan (1996) used a sample of 100 pairs of leaders and followers of a large non-profit firm as well as 86 other employees from the organization who assessed the organization's values. Results showed that transformational leadership was positively related to follower terminal value system congruence (beliefs concerning desirable end-states of existence; Rokeach, 1973), which in turn was positively related to perceived leader effectiveness and follower satisfaction with leader. In the Krishnan study, transformational leadership was operationalized via the four dimensions rather than as the higher-order factor despite the dimensions being correlated with each other at a minimum of .85. Leader-follower

terminal values systems congruence was correlated with the four dimensions of transformational leadership at a range of .21-.26.

Colbert (2004) used a sample of five organizations in the Midwestern U.S. (three businesses and two governmental agencies including financial services, health care, and education) to examine this relationship. Findings showed that both direct and indirect perceived value congruence mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower attitudes, which themselves were related to follower performance. Surprisingly though, the values of followers who had transformational leaders were not more similar to their leaders' values than were values of followers for leaders who were not transformational. The correlation between transformational leadership and values congruence was .43 for direct values congruence and .29 for indirect perceived values congruence.

Similarly, Jung and Avolio (2000) examined this relationship and found that follower P-S value congruence and trust in leader both mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower performance ( $r = .50$  between P-S value congruence and transformational leadership). Meanwhile, Brown and Trevino (2006) examined a sample of employees from a nationwide health care corporation and found that P-S values congruence partially mediated the negative relationship between socialized charismatic leadership (charismatic leaders who display ethical values, are not self-centered, and who are ethical role models) and interpersonal deviance. They evaluated P-S values congruence operationalized at the group level and found a correlation of .21 between transformational leadership and values congruence. More recently, Brown and Trevino (2009) further assessed the relationship between socialized charismatic leadership and the P-S values congruence between leaders and followers in a health care organization. They found that socialized charismatic leadership was related to values congruence between the values leaders claim to display to their followers and the values that followers say the leaders demonstrate in the workplace. Overall, findings

from the above studies have been consistent in demonstrating the mediating role of leader-follower values congruence in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes.

However, values congruence can also be argued to have moderating potential in the transformational leadership-outcomes relationship. For example, in a recent study that examined the relationship between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness in two different cultures—students in executive and MBA programs in the U.S. and Korea—Jung and colleagues (Jung, Yammarino, & Lee, 2009) examined the role of three potential attitudinal moderators (leader-follower value congruence, trust in leader, and loyalty). Findings showed that all three attitudes moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness (in the U.S. sample) such that as the moderating variable increased, the relationship between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness increased. That is, as values congruence increased, the transformational leadership-leader effectiveness relationship became stronger. The authors stated that “since transformational leaders motivate followers by raising an awareness of the importance and value of the organizational mission and goals, getting followers to transcend their own self-interests, and shifting followers’ needs from lower to higher levels, we believe that the effect of transformational leadership on followers’ motivation should be stronger when they share a common set of values” (p. 590). Thus, the significant moderating effect of value congruence might mean that transformational leadership is more effective when a leader and his/her followers already share a similar set of personal values. Correlations between P-S values congruence and transformational leadership were .29 in the U.S. sample and .20 in the Korean sample.

Jung et al. (2009) suggested that these follower attitudes should be considered as moderators because the effect of transformational leadership on work outcomes was so well-documented in prior studies (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004). They argued:

This implies that transformational leaders do not need to wait until followers develop specific attitudes before they exert positive effects on work outcomes. However, when followers possess or develop more positive attitudes, they would facilitate the positive effect of transformational leadership, and thus it is conceptually more convincing to consider the aforementioned followers' attitudes as moderators rather than mediators. (p. 590)

Jung et al. also argued that the work of Yammarino and colleagues (Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005) had relevance in their decision to treat follower attitudes as moderators rather than mediators. Yammarino et al. (2005) suggested that while moderators for transformational leadership may also operate at higher levels, transformational leadership impacts each person differently and thus should be considered at the individual level of analysis. Because other research had shown the follower attitudes to be a mediating rather than a moderating variable, Jung et al. conducted post-hoc analyses to determine whether there were also mediating effects. Results showed that there were only moderation effects (no mediation effects) for the variables of interest in their study. Although the Jung et al. study has similarities to the current study, they examined only leader effectiveness as an outcome. In this study, leader effectiveness was examined but so were follower attitudes and performance outcomes. In addition, I also considered the role of follower P-O fit as a moderator in addition to P-S fit. Nevertheless, several studies have shown that P-S values congruence mediates the transformational leadership-outcomes relationship (e.g., Brown & Trevino, 2006; 2009; Colbert, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Krishnan, 1996). Although evidence therefore exists for mediation, at any given point in time, there will be variance in followers' perceptions of values congruence. These P-S values congruence perceptions will likely influence followers' receptivity to transformational leadership. As a result, studies are also needed that model the moderation effect.

Because followers with high levels of P-S fit will feel that their values closely align with their supervisor's values, they will be more willing to respond to the positive vision communicated because of their trust in the leader. By communicating an enthusiastic vision for the future that emphasizes shared values, charismatic leaders

influence followers' perceptions of their role in achieving the vision, thus instilling pride (Bono & Judge, 2004; Shamir et al., 1993) and further increasing their fit perceptions (Jung et al., 2009). Communicating an enthusiastic vision also allows transformational leaders to be able to increase followers' level of commitment. This will be more likely when followers perceive that their personal values are similar to the personal values of their leader. Shamir et al. (1993) also proposed that a leader's vision will be more influential when followers perceive value congruence because the followers will perceive that their leader's values are similar to their own values; as such, those followers should have a more positive reaction to transformational leadership. Similarly, Klein and House (1995) suggested that when followers have value congruence with their leader, the impact of a transformational leader on follower performance would increase over time. Those followers who do not feel their personal values are in alignment with their leader's values, on the other hand, will not be as trusting of the leader's intentions (Jones & George, 1998). As a result, they are not as likely to put forth the extra effort needed to meet the high expectations of a transformational leader and they will not be as committed to the vision of their leader.

Due to the perceived similarity with the leader, these followers will also strive for higher performance when challenged to do so because they will want to behave consistently with their own values, which are also the values of their leader. Followers with high levels of P-S fit will feel that leaders have the followers' best interests in mind when providing them with stretch assignments in an attempt to further develop them through individualized consideration. Because these followers perceive that their values are consistent with their leaders' values, they will respond to developmental opportunities out of trust in and respect for their leaders. As a result, it will motivate those with high levels of P-S fit to perform beyond expectations in terms of task performance and performing more OCBs. Thus those high in P-S fit seem to have the resources required (such as values consistent with their leader and trust in their leader) to take full advantage



of the motivating potential of transformational leaders. Followers with low levels of P-S fit, however, are not likely to exert extra effort for their leader when challenged to increase expectations.

In addition, those with high levels of P-S fit will be more receptive when being asked to challenge the status quo through intellectual stimulation. This is partly because they trust that their leader has their best interests in mind when telling them to think outside the box and challenge existing policies and procedures that may be in need of change. It is also partly because challenging the status quo is consistent with the leader's values, which are also the followers' values. On the other hand, followers who do not perceive P-S fit will not likely trust their leader's intentions when they are asked to be creative and challenge the status quo.

Overall, transformational leaders are expected to have a positive effect on followers with high levels of P-S fit in terms of both work attitudes and performance due in large part to these followers having more trust in and satisfaction with the leaders. This will make them more receptive to transformational leaders. When that trust combines with the transformational leader's enthusiastic vision for the future and challenging expectations, positive follower outcomes are likely to result. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

*Hypothesis 4a: Follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower job satisfaction, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction is stronger when P-S fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4b: Follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower intentions to quit, such that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and intentions to quit is stronger when P-S fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4c: Follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower task performance, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and task performance is stronger when P-S fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4d: Follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower OCB, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB is stronger when P-S fit is higher.*

### **Person-Organization Fit**

Person-organization (P-O) fit is the perception that individuals' personal values match the values of the organization for which they work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Based within the framework of person-environment fit, P-O fit is critical for employee retention and organizational commitment (Kristof, 1996). For example, Chatman (1991) demonstrated that values congruence between employees and the organization had a positive relationship with the employees' levels of commitment to the organization. As was done in the antecedent section of this study for leaders, the focus here was again on perceived values congruence between a person (follower in this case) and the organization. Because of the vast amount of research conducted on P-O fit, several meta-analyses have been conducted on the construct.

#### *Meta-Analyses of P-O Fit Research*

Overall results of the three major meta-analyses on P-O fit (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003) suggested several interesting and consistent findings as the effect of P-O fit on overall perceptions of work attitudes ranged from .28-.44 for job satisfaction (.56-.62 for direct measures as are those in the current study), .59-.77 for direct measures of organizational commitment, and -.21- -.25 for intentions to quit (-.52- -.58 for direct measures). Two of the meta-analyses also examined effects of P-O fit on performance. Both Kristof-Brown et al. and Arthur et al.

found that the effects on OCB were approximately double the effects on task performance (.27 vs. .13 and .22 vs. .10 for the two meta-analyses, respectively). For direct measures, Kristof-Brown et al. found effects of .32 for contextual performance and .22 for task performance.

*Studies of Follower-Organization Value Congruence  
and Transformational Leadership*

Recent work has examined the role of the supervisor on the fit perceptions of followers. For example, Huang, Cheng, and Chou (2005) demonstrated that CEO charismatic leadership had a positive relationship with employees' perceptions of P-O values fit ( $r = .19$ ). In their sample, P-O fit mediated the relationships between charismatic leadership and followers' extra effort to work, satisfaction with the CEO, and organizational commitment. In addition, Chen and Chiu (2008) showed that supervisory support was highly correlated (.57) with perceived P-O fit. Considering that those who perceive P-O fit have higher levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and satisfaction with their supervisor/organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), it seems likely that transformational leadership will have more effect on these followers.

As followers with high levels of P-O fit will feel that their values closely align with the organization's values, they should be more willing to respond to the positive vision of the organization. Doing so will allow them to behave in ways that are consistent with their own values because these followers will already feel as though they are connected to the organization's vision because of their values congruence. By communicating an enthusiastic vision for the future that emphasizes shared values, charismatic leaders influence followers' perceptions of their role in achieving the vision, thus instilling even more pride in them (Bono & Judge, 2004; Shamir et al., 1993). Because the followers will view the organization's goals as their own, they will put forth extra effort as a result. Meanwhile, followers with lower levels of P-O fit will not be as

committed to the organization and as such may not be as influenced by an enthusiastic vision for the organization's future.

Because followers with high levels of P-O fit feel less strain and less intent to quit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), they will also be more willing and able to improve performance for the good of the organization when challenged to exceed expectations. These followers with high levels of P-O fit will be excited when transformational leaders develop them into leaders. Given that they feel their values are in alignment with the organization, they will respond to developmental opportunities that allow them to grow within the organization. As a result, the developmental opportunities will motivate those with high levels of P-O fit to perform beyond expectations in terms of task performance and performing more OCBs. Thus those high in P-O fit seem to have the resources required (such as values in alignment with those of the organization and high levels of organizational commitment) to take full advantage of the motivating potential of transformational leaders. On the other hand, those who do not feel that their personal values align with those of the organization are not likely to respond as favorably to the high expectations and challenging developmental assignments provided by transformational leaders. As a result, they are not likely to put forth extra effort when challenged to do so by a transformational leader.

Because followers who perceive high levels of P-O fit will feel a sense of oneness with the organization and thus identify with the organization, they will be more willing to respond to transformational leaders for the good of the organization. As part of their identification with the organization and their own sense of belonging, these followers are already likely to perceive that leaders also represent the organization's values. Prior empirical research has confirmed the importance of P-O values congruence between transformational leaders and their followers (e.g., Chen & Chiu, 2008; Huang et al., 2005). Because their values are also aligned with the vision, these followers are likely to perceive an alignment of values with the organization, not only with their leader. As

such, they are likely to realize they are part of something bigger and thus identify with the organization. Thus, they are likely to engage in behaviors that benefit the organization (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In this case, P-O fit may serve as a substitute for leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), meaning it is possible that positive attitudes and strong performance may exist even without a transformational leader. Transformational leaders may not be able to inspire additional effort from some individuals with high levels of P-O fit because they already strongly identify with the organization and believe in the vision. However, a sense of P-O fit alone is not enough to lead to high levels of job performance. Prior meta-analyses have found correlations of only .10-.13 between P-O fit and task performance (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Based on the impact of transformational leadership on performance and attitudes (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004), this suggests that P-O fit combined with transformational leadership is needed for higher levels of performance and more positive attitudes. Overall, transformational leaders are expected to have a positive effect on followers with high levels of P-O fit in terms of both work attitudes and performance due in large part to these followers having more commitment to the organization and a sense of oneness. This will make them more receptive to transformational leaders. When that trust combines with the transformational leader's enthusiastic vision for the future and challenging expectations, positive follower outcomes are likely to result. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

*Hypothesis 4e: Follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower job satisfaction, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction is stronger when P-O fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4f: Follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower intentions to quit, such*

*that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and intentions to quit is stronger when P-O fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4g: Follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower task performance, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and task performance is stronger when P-O fit is higher.*

*Hypothesis 4h: Follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower OCB, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB is stronger when P-O fit is higher.*

In combination, the relationships predicted throughout Hypotheses 1 and 4 lead to the final hypothesis in the current study: that the pattern of relationships among the study variables is consistent with moderated mediation. As such, it is expected that the proposed transformational leadership antecedents will not only impact follower perceptions of transformational leadership but will also ultimately influence follower attitude and performance outcomes. However, this mediation effect is contingent on follower fit perceptions.

*Hypothesis 5: Transformational leadership antecedents (leader person-organization fit, affective-identity motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit) influence follower outcomes through their relationship with transformational leadership more strongly when follower fit (person-supervisor and person-organization) perceptions are higher.*

## CHAPTER III

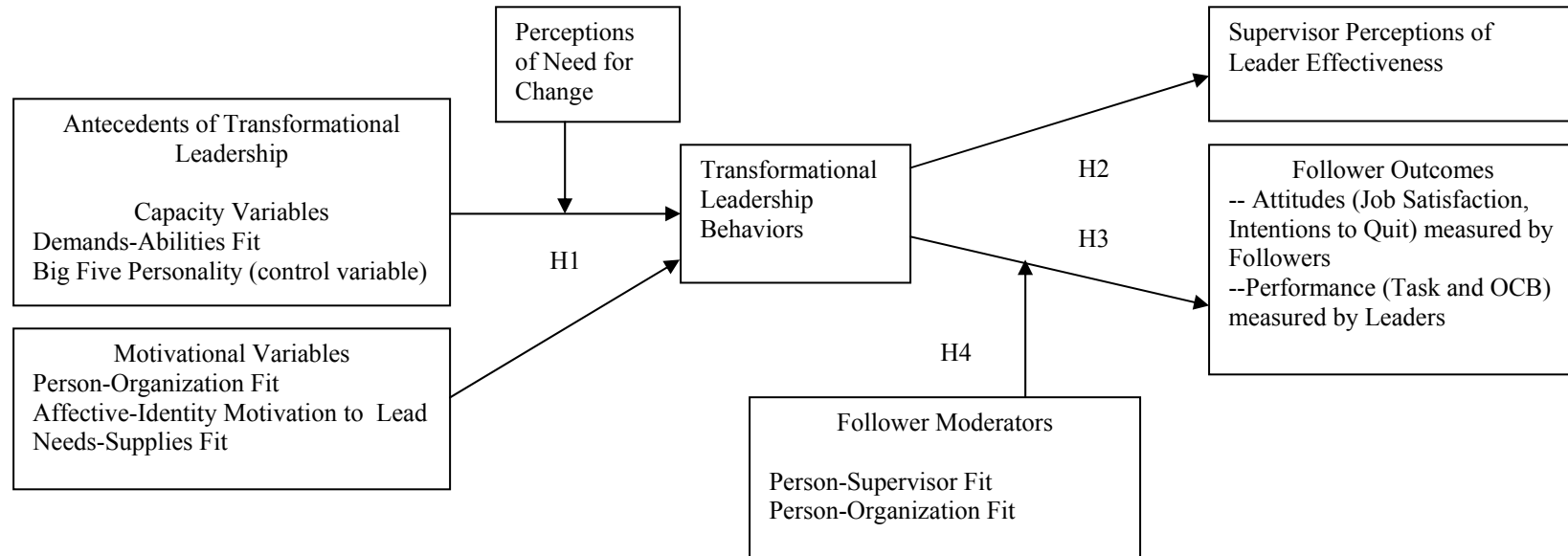
### METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, I integrated the literatures on transformational leadership, person-organization fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit to derive hypotheses explaining how these situational perceptions may influence transformational leader behaviors and ultimately influence follower attitudes as well as task performance and OCB. In addition, I suggested that a follower's own fit perceptions with the supervisor and the organization may moderate the relationship between transformational leader perceptions and follower attitude and performance outcomes. Figure 1 depicts the hypothesized relationships. In this chapter, I describe the field study that empirically tested these hypotheses.

#### **Participants**

Leaders along with their direct reports and their supervisors were recruited from ten Midwestern organizations, including four for-profit business organizations, three healthcare organizations, and three government organizations. Industries ranged from advertising / marketing to healthcare to education. For the purposes of this study, leaders were defined based on position authority and consisted of anyone with three or more direct reports. To encourage participation, I provided 360-degree feedback reports on the leadership behaviors in this study to all participating leaders. Each leader received a report that summarized his/her self ratings for each leadership behavior assessed (as well as his/her supervisor's rating of leader effectiveness if consent was given). If three or more followers responded to the survey (to protect anonymity of the followers), the feedback report also included an aggregate of follower ratings of leadership behaviors. The feedback reports were sent via email to the leaders and were used for developmental purposes only. Participating leaders also had the opportunity to attend a half-day

Figure 1  
*Model for the Study*



In addition to leader personality (Big Five), other control variables included in analyses are as follows: whether leaders' direct reports manage other people, leader position tenure, organizational climate, follower tenure with supervisor (leader), and whether the follower was hired by the leader.



workshop that provided more detail about the feedback reports and introduced the framework of transformational leadership along with other characteristics of effective leaders.

Because there were ten organizations taking part in the study, there were a variety of methods used to identify potential leader participants. Four of the organizations identified the companywide leaders they wished to have participate in the study and allowed me to recruit from that pool, three of the organizations provided me with access to all leaders within certain divisions of the organization and allowed me to solicit volunteers from those groups, and three organizations provided me access to all leaders by allowing me to recruit participants from their entire workforce. Of the 245 total leaders identified from the participating organizations, 215 completed the survey process (87.8%). Respondents were 66.5% female. The majority were between 31-50 years old (66.7%). Of the participating leaders, 51% had direct reports that manage other people, 66.7% had been in a leadership role between 1-5 years, 87% had taken part in at least one leadership workshop in the past three years, 82.3% had worked for their organizations for at least three years, 57.9% had been in their current positions for at least three years, and 68.9% had at least a Bachelor's degree.

After leaders had completed the initial survey, I then contacted their supervisors and their direct reports to invite them to take part in the study. Of the 213 leaders' supervisors who were invited to participate, all completed the survey process (two leaders were CEOs of their small organizations and thus had no supervisors). Many of these supervisors had multiple subordinates taking part in the leader portion of this study. Since these supervisors were in most cases the high level executives who authorized the study within their organizations, they were very willing to complete the brief surveys for the benefit of their subordinates in terms of the feedback reports. Of the 1,941 direct reports who were invited to participate, 1,284 completed the survey process (66.2%). An average of 5.97 followers responded per leader. Responding followers were 74.5%

female. The majority were between 31-50 years old (53.4%). Of the participating followers, 72.6% had worked for their organizations for at least three years, 57.8% had been in their current positions for at least three years, 57.8% had worked for their current supervisor between 1-5 years, 32.1% were hired by their current supervisor, and 53.1% had at least a Bachelor's degree.

### **Procedure**

This was a cross-sectional study with multiple data sources (leaders, their supervisors, and their followers) in an effort to minimize common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). After receiving lists of leaders, supervisors, and followers either from the organization or from each leader participant, I sent an email to potential participants introducing the study and providing them with a link to the electronic survey. After giving consent, participants completed an online survey administered using Web Surveyor and taking approximately 15-20 minutes for leaders to complete, 10-15 minutes for followers, and under 5 minutes for the leaders' supervisors. Identified leaders who consented to participate in the study completed self-report measures of their P-O fit, motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, demands-abilities fit, transformational leader behaviors, need for change within their work unit, their personality, and other demographic information. The leaders' supervisors rated leadership effectiveness and need for change in the leader's work unit. Followers provided ratings of the leaders' transformational leader behaviors and also self-report data regarding their own fit perceptions (P-O and P-S), as well as their own work attitudes (job satisfaction and intentions to quit) and demographic information. Approximately two weeks after follower ratings were collected, leaders were asked to provide ratings of followers' task performance and OCB. To maintain confidentiality of which followers had completed surveys, leaders with more than six direct reports were asked to provide performance ratings for six of their direct reports (chosen by me with a mix of 4-5 who did complete the follower survey and 1-2 who did not); if leaders had six

or fewer direct reports, they were asked to provide performance data on all followers regardless of whether the followers completed the survey. A full list of the measures and scale items are found in the Appendix.

### **Measures**

*Transformational leadership* was measured by followers via 20 items of the MLQ-5X, the most frequently used measure of transformational leadership ( $\alpha = .86$ ). The MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 1997) assesses the four dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence (attributed and behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. As reported by Avolio et al. (1995), the MLQ-5X dimensions display high reliability and provide evidence for both convergent and discriminant validity. Since there was no expectation that these factors would have differential effects on the outcome measures, they were combined into one higher order factor as supported by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and discussed in Chapter IV. In addition, these follower ratings were aggregated to the leader level as supported by intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) calculations and also discussed in Chapter IV. MLQ items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). Sample items include “Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her” (idealized influence - attributed), “Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose” (idealized influence - behavior), “Talks optimistically about the future” (inspirational motivation), “Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate” (intellectual stimulation), and “Spends time teaching and coaching” (individualized consideration).

*Person-organization fit* was measured with the three-item P-O Fit scale designed by Cable and DeRue (2002). Questions assess perceptions of values fit with the organization. P-O fit ratings were collected from leaders as a potential predictor of transformational leadership ( $\alpha = .94$ ) and also from followers as a potential moderating variable ( $\alpha = .95$ ). Each item was measured via a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*)

to 5 (*completely*). A sample item is “The things I value in life are similar to the things my organization values.”

*Motivation to lead* was measured by leaders via the Chan and Drasgow (2001) 9-item scale of affective-identity motivation to lead and the 9-item scale of social-normative motivation to lead. Alpha reliabilities in the current study were .82 for affective-identity motivation to lead and .77 for social-normative motivation to lead. Responses were evaluated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item for affective-identity motivation to lead is “Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower while working in a group.” A sample item for social-normative motivation to lead is “I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.”

*Needs-supplies fit* was measured by leaders with the three-item P-J Needs-Supplies Fit scale designed by Cable and DeRue (2002). Alpha reliability in the current study was .90. Each item was measured via a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). A sample item is “There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.”

*Demands-abilities fit* was measured by leaders with the three-item P-J Demands-Abilities Fit scale designed by Cable and DeRue (2002). Alpha reliability in the current study was .88. Each item was measured via a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). A sample item is “The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.”

To supplement the direct measure of demands-abilities fit, *demands* and *abilities* were also assessed separately using scales designed for this study (based on the items from Cable & Judge, 1996). These exploratory items were used to assess the impact of demands and abilities on transformational leadership using polynomial regression. Six of the items asked leaders to assess whether they felt managerial and leadership demands were part of their jobs (three items for leader demands and three items for manager

demands). The other six items then asked the leaders to assess whether they think they have the skills and abilities to fulfill the demands (three items for leader abilities and three items for manager abilities). Each item was measured via a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). Sample items include “To what degree do you believe your job requires controlling and problem solving (such as developing incentives, creating solutions, or taking corrective action)?” (manager demands) and “To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to control and problem solve (such as developing incentives, creating solutions, or taking corrective action)?” (manager abilities). Sample items include “To what degree do you believe your job requires establishing direction (such as creating a vision, clarifying the big picture, or setting strategies)?” (leader demands) and “To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to establish direction (such as creating a vision, clarifying the big picture, or setting strategies)?” (leader abilities). Alpha reliabilities in the current study were .81 for manager demands, .80 for leader demands, .82 for manager abilities, and .85 for leader abilities.

*Need for change* was measured via three items adapted from the Discrepancy (Need for Change) dimension of the Organizational Change Recipients’ Beliefs Scale (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007). These items were completed by the leaders and by the leaders’ supervisors. Alpha reliabilities in the current study were .86 for leader perceptions of need for change and .93 for supervisor perceptions of need for change. Items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). A sample item for leaders is “We need to change the way we do some things in my work unit.” A sample item for supervisors is “This direct report’s role as a manager requires him/her to change how things are done in his/her work unit.”

*Big Five personality* was measured by leaders using the 50-item International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) developed by Goldberg (1999). The IPIP is a public domain personality inventory that directly assesses the Big Five. The instrument has acceptable

convergent validities with other well-established personality inventories. For example, the IPIP correlates .85 to .92 with corresponding scales from the NEO-PI-R when corrected for unreliability (Buchanan, Johnson, & Goldberg, 2005). The 50-item IPIP measure has 10 items for each of the FFM traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience / intellect). Alpha reliabilities in the current study were .89 for extraversion, .77 for agreeableness, .75 for conscientiousness, .86 for emotional stability, and .77 for openness to experience. Each item was measured via 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 5 (*very accurate*). Sample items include “Am the life of the party” (extraversion), “Am interested in people” (agreeableness), “Am always prepared” (conscientiousness), “Am relaxed most of the time” (emotional stability), and “Have a rich vocabulary” (openness to experience / intellect).

*Leader effectiveness* was measured by supervisors (bosses) via five items completed by the leader’s immediate supervisor as developed by Judge and Bono (2000). Their items were developed with the purpose of reflecting the outcomes related to transformational leadership and overall leader effectiveness. The alpha reliability in the current study was .94. Items were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*very poor*) to 7 (*very strong*). A sample item is “On his/her ability to lead his/her subordinates to meet group performance goals.”

*Job satisfaction* was measured by followers with the three-item instrument designed by Edwards and Rothbard (1999). Alpha reliability in the current study was .91. Responses were evaluated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item is “All in all, I am satisfied with my job.”

*Intentions to quit* was measured by followers via the three-item scale developed by Landau and Hammer (1986). Alpha reliability in the current study was .91. Responses were evaluated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7

(*strongly agree*). A sample item is “As soon as I can find a better job, I’ll leave the organization.”

*Task performance* was measured by leaders about their direct reports via the seven items developed for in-role behavior by Williams and Anderson (1991). Alpha reliability in the current study was .91. Responses were evaluated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item is “Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.”

*Organizational citizenship behavior* was assessed by leaders about their direct reports using Lee and Allen’s (2002) 16-item measure. Alpha reliability in the current study for OCB was .93. Responses were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Sample items are: “Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image” and “Willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.”

*Person-supervisor fit* was measured by followers by adapting the three-item P-O Fit scale designed by Cable and DeRue (2002). Questions assess perceptions of values fit with the supervisor. Alpha reliability in the current study was .97. Each item was measured via 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*completely*). A sample item is “The things I value in life are similar to the things my supervisor values.”

*Control variables* at three different levels were assessed and partialled out of all findings. At the leader level, one-item control variables included in the final analyses were whether the leaders had direct reports who are also managers or supervisors (1 = yes, 2 = no) and position tenure (1 = less than 6 months, 2 = 6-12 months, 3 = 1-2 years, 4 = 3-5 years, 5 = 6-10 years, 6 = over 10 years; all items regarding tenure listed below were measured using this same scale). Leader personality was also included as a control variable via the Big Five (as described earlier) because it has been shown to be related to transformational leadership (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2004). Many other leader-level variables were measured as possible control variables because of their potential to impact

results or because they had been identified in past empirical or theoretical research regarding transformational leadership (Antonakis & Dietz, 2011). These include age (1 = under 21 years old, 2 = 21-30 years old, 3 = 31-40 years old, 4 = 41-50 years old, 5 = 51-60 years old, 6 = over 60 years old), gender (1 = male, 2 = female), tenure with organization, tenure with supervisor, number of direct reports (span of control), leadership experience, leader development exposure (number of classes or workshops in the past three years; 1 = none, 2 = 1-2 classes; 3 = 3-4 classes; 4 = 5 or more classes), and education (1 = high school diploma / GED, 2 = some college but less than Associates Degree, 3 = Associates Degree, 4 = Bachelors Degree, 5 = Masters Degree, 6 = Beyond Masters Degree). While these variables are included in the correlation matrix, they were not included in final analyses as they showed little or no effect on transformational leadership or the hypothesized antecedents. This decision is supported by Becker (2005) who, in analyzing issues with control variables in top-tier organizational research, concluded that including control variables that are not correlated with the dependent variable reduces power. He also advised to beware the “everything but the kitchen sink approach” and thus not include too many control variables just for the sake of doing so (Becker, 2005; p. 285).

At the follower level, control variables included in final analyses are tenure with the supervisor (leader) and whether hired by the leader (1 = yes, 2 = no). Both of these were again measured via one-item scales. Other follower-level variables that were measured (and are included in the correlation table) but were ultimately dropped from final analyses are follower age, gender, tenure with organization, position tenure, and education (all measured the same as in the leader level discussed above). At the organization level, the control variable included in final analyses was organizational climate. This was assessed by leaders via the 6-item Innovation & Flexibility scale in the Organizational Climate Measure (Patterson et al., 2005). Alpha reliability in the current study was .82. Responses were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all* to 5 =



*completely*). A sample item is “The company is quick to respond when changes need to be made.” Other organizational-level variables that were measured (and are included in the correlation table) but were ultimately dropped from final analyses are industry (1 = for-profit, 2 = healthcare, 3 = government) and total employees (1 = less than 100, 2 = 100-250, 3 = 251-500, 4 = 501-1,000, 5 = over 1,000 employees). Both of these variables had little to no effect on the variables of interest in the current study.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

#### **Aggregation of Leadership Data**

Although perceptions of leadership behaviors were collected from the leaders themselves as well as their followers, only follower perceptions are included in the analysis. From a theoretical perspective, leadership behaviors may be considered an attribute of the leader, such that leaders have typical behavioral patterns that they exhibit consistently and that differ between leaders. This perspective suggests that assessments of leadership behaviors should be aggregated across raters to obtain a more reliable assessment of this typical leadership style (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). However, other theoretical perspectives suggest that leaders may treat followers differently (e.g., leader-member exchange (LMX) theory; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and that differences in follower ratings reflect true behavioral differences, not just measurement error. From this theoretical perspective, aggregating follower ratings of leadership behaviors masks true differences. Both theoretical perspectives have merit. That is, it is likely that a leader has a pattern of leadership behaviors that differentiates him/her from other leaders, but that the way in which the leader exhibits the leadership style differs across followers. In addition, transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985) supports the aggregation of data to the leader level. Thus, the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were examined to determine if aggregation was supported by the data. ICC(1), which can be interpreted as the proportion of the total variance that can be explained by group membership (within-group variance), is recommended as a criterion for aggregation (James, 1982). It is recommended that indices of ICC(1) be above .20 to justify aggregating the data (Glick, 1985; Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993). For the transformational leadership dimensions, ICC(1) values ranged from .17 to .23; when all transformational leadership items were considered together, the overall ICC(1) was .22, suggesting that aggregation is appropriate. Further, ICC(2)

values, which can be interpreted as the reliability of the aggregated measure (inter-rater agreement), ranged from .57 to .65; when all transformational leadership items were considered together, the overall ICC(2) was .63. While slightly lower than .70 (which is considered ideal; Ostroff & Schmitt, 1993), this reliability compares favorably to those reported in other leadership research (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; ICC(2) = .57). Thus, follower ratings of transformational leadership were aggregated to the leader level in all subsequent analyses.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis**

Before testing hypotheses (and based on the work of Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), fit of the measurement models to the data was examined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation in LISREL 8.7 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). The fit of the models was evaluated using several fit indices including the traditional chi-square statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI), and the nonnormed fit index (NNFI). Models that exhibit CFI and NNFI estimates of .90 or higher are considered to have a relatively good fit to the data (e.g., Hoyle & Panter, 1995). In addition, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) are reported. Estimates below .08 indicate a good fit and above .10 a poor fit for the RMSEA and SRMR (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Kline, 2005). CFAs of follower ratings of leadership were run separately from other follower measures using items as indicators. This decision was based on the fact that only follower perceptions of transformational leadership were aggregated to the leader level (both in the CFA and subsequent analyses); all other follower measures remained at the follower level of analysis.

### **Leader Perceptions of Self**

The hypothesized measurement model underlying expected predictors of transformational leadership included four latent variables – leaders' person-organization fit, affective-identity motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit.

This was the measurement model with the best fit to the data:  $\chi^2_{129} = 257.95, p < .05$ ; CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05 (see Table 1). All possible alternative three-factor models were run, but none of them provided a fit level near that of the four-factor model as  $\chi^2_{130}$  ranged from 475.19 - 833.74,  $p < .05$  (the differences in chi-squares between the alternative models and four-factor model ranged from 217.24 to 575.79,  $p < .05$ ), showing that the four-factor model provided the best fit to the data. To examine the alternative models, I constrained factor correlations to 1.0 between two latent variables as described in Table 1. The alternative models all showed worse fit to the data for the other fit indices as well: CFI from .77 - .89; NNFI from .73 - .85; RMSEA from .11 - .14; and SRMR from .08 - .15 (see Table 1).

Table 1  
*Comparison of Measurement Models for All Predictors of Transformational Leadership*

Model	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Four-factor model (including all three types of fit plus affective-identity MTL)	257.95	129	2.00	.96	.95	.06	.05
Three-factor model (combining MTL and P-O fit)	833.74	130	6.41	.77	.73	.14	.15
Three-factor model (combining MTL and needs-supplies fit)	670.23	130	5.16	.83	.80	.13	.15
Three-factor model (combining MTL and demands-abilities fit)	580.61	130	4.47	.86	.82	.12	.13
Three-factor model (combining P-O fit and needs-supplies fit)	580.38	130	4.46	.86	.82	.13	.10
Three-factor model (combining P-O fit and demands-abilities fit)	556.50	130	4.28	.86	.84	.11	.11
Three-factor model (combining demands- abilities fit and needs- supplies fit)	475.19	130	3.66	.89	.85	.11	.08

Note. N = 207.

### **Follower Perceptions of Leader**

The hypothesized measurement model underlying followers' assessments of leadership included the four dimensions of transformational leadership using the aggregated follower ratings. The fit of the measurement model as a four-factor model was reasonable:  $\chi^2_{164} = 1282.03, p < .05$ ; CFI = .98; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04 (see Table 2). The range of correlations between the four factors was .71 to .83. Given the results of the factor analysis and consistent with past research (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1990; Bommer, Rich, & Rubin, 2005) using a higher order transformational leadership factor, I also examined that via CFA. The higher order factor analysis showed that a model in which these four dimensions were indicators of a higher order transformational leadership factor also fit the data relatively well:  $\chi^2_{166} = 1375.51, p < .05$ ; CFI = .97; NNFI = .97; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04. Given the good fit of the measurement model with a higher order transformational leadership factor and the theoretical support for the model, the higher order transformational leadership factor was used in all further analyses.

Table 2  
*Comparison of Measurement Models for Dimensions of Transformational Leadership*

Model	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Four-factor model	1282.03	164	7.82	.98	.97	.09	.04
Higher order TFL factor	1375.51	166	8.29	.97	.97	.09	.04

Note. N = 204.

### **Leader Perceptions of Followers**

The measurement model underlying leaders' perceptions of their followers' task performance and OCB was then examined. A model in which the items loaded on two separate factors showed an adequate fit to the data although the RMSEA was higher than desired:  $\chi^2_{229} = 2232.16, p < .05$ ; CFI = .94; NNFI = .93; RMSEA = .13; SRMR = .08.

When the model was tested with all items loading on a single factor, it was a much worse fit to the data:  $\chi^2_{230} = 4997.14$  (the difference in chi-squares between the alternative model and the two factor model was 2764.98),  $p < .05$ ; CFI = .85; NNFI = .84; RMSEA = .23; SRMR = .12; to examine the alternative one-factor model, I constrained factor correlations to 1.0 between the two latent variables. Thus, the two constructs were treated separately in subsequent statistical analyses (see Table 3).

Table 3  
*Comparison of Measurement Models for Follower Performance*

Model	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Two-factor model	2232.16	229	9.75	.94	.93	.13	.08
One-factor model (combining task performance and OCB)	4997.14	230	21.73	.85	.84	.23	.12

Note. N = 694.

### **Follower Perceptions of Self**

Finally, CFA was also used to examine the fit of a measurement model including all follower-rated attitude and fit variables. Follower perceptions of their leaders' behaviors were excluded because those were aggregated to the leader level, while follower performance ratings were excluded as they were provided by the leaders. The model with the two follower attitudes (job satisfaction and intentions to quit) and the two follower fit perceptions (person-supervisor and person-organization) all treated as separate constructs was shown to fit the data very well:  $\chi^2_{48} = 148.06$ ,  $p < .05$ ; CFI = .99; NNFI = .99; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .03 (see Table 4). When analyzed as a three-factor model combining the two follower attitudes, it was a worse fit:  $\chi^2_{51} = 1205.48$ ,  $p < .05$ ; CFI = .93; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .16; SRMR = .06. When analyzed as a three-factor model combining the two follower fit perceptions, it was also a worse fit:  $\chi^2_{51} = 3161.44$ ,

$p < .05$ ; CFI = .82; NNFI = .77; RMSEA = .22; SRMR = .13. When analyzed as a two-factor model combining the two follower attitudes and the two follower fit perceptions, it was a much worse fit:  $\chi^2_{53} = 4218.58$ ,  $p < .05$ ; CFI = .77; NNFI = .71; RMSEA = .27; SRMR = .14. Finally, when examining the model as a one-factor model combining both follower attitudes with both follower fit perceptions, it was an even worse fit to the data:  $\chi^2_{55} = 6776.02$ ,  $p < .05$ ; CFI = .62; NNFI = .55; RMSEA = .38; SRMR = .18. All possible alternative were run, but none of them provided a fit level near that of the four-factor model. To examine the alternative models, I constrained factor correlations to 1.0 between two latent variables as described in Table 4. The differences in chi-squares between the alternative models and four-factor model ranged from 1057.42 to 6627.02 ( $p < .05$ ), showing that the four-factor model provided the best fit to the data. Thus, the four-factor model was retained.

Table 4  
*Comparison of Measurement Models for Follower Attitudes and Fit*

Model	$\chi^2$	Df	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	NNFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Four-factor model	148.06	48	3.08	.99	.99	.05	.03
Three-factor model (combining job satisfaction and intention to quit)	1205.48	51	23.64	.93	.92	.16	.06
Three-factor model (combining P-O fit and P- S fit)	3161.44	51	61.99	.82	.77	.22	.13
Two-factor model (combining job satisfaction and intentions to quit and also combining P-O fit and P- S fit)	4218.58	53	79.60	.77	.71	.27	.14
One-factor model (combining both attitudes with both fit measures)	6776.02	55	123.20	.62	.55	.38	.18

Note. N = 1,006.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities ( $\alpha$ ), and inter-correlations among the leader-level variables are reported in Table 5 and for the follower-level variables in Table 6. All measures showed high internal reliabilities, with coefficient alphas ranging from .75 to .97. The pattern of correlations was mostly consistent with the hypotheses (with the exception of leader P-O fit being negatively related to follower perceptions of transformational leadership behaviors). Among the proposed predictors of transformational leadership, correlations included -.02 for P-O fit, .05 for affective-identity motivation to lead, .20 for needs-supplies fit, and .24 for demands-abilities fit (the last two are significant at  $p < .01$ ). As expected, social-normative motivation to lead did not have a significant relationship with transformational leadership and thus was not included in final analyses. In terms of follower-level variables, correlations with transformational leadership (aggregated across followers and then repeated for each follower) include .17 with job satisfaction, -.16 with intentions to quit, .04 with task performance, .14 with OCB, .20 with P-O fit, and .44 with P-S fit (all are significant at  $p < .01$  except for task performance). Admittedly, repeating the aggregated transformational leadership ratings across followers in order to compile the follower level correlation table will lead to non-independence in the data for that table. While doing so seems justified to be thorough, this is a limitation.

### **Hypothesis Testing**

Multiple regression (using SPSS 17.0) was used to test Hypotheses 1-2 and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Version 6.08; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) was used to test Hypotheses 3-4 that cross levels of analysis. Moderated mediation via HLM was used to test Hypothesis 5. Each approach is explained in detail when describing the results for each hypothesis.



Table 5  
*Leader-level Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Intercorrelations Matrix*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Transformational Leadership	2.69	.53	(.86)							
2. Leader Affective-Identity MTL	5.20	.88	.05	(.82)						
3. Leader Social-Normative MTL	4.98	.78	.05	.35**	(.77)					
4. Leader P-O Fit	3.85	.68	-.02	.09	.31**	(.94)				
5. Leader Needs-Supplies Fit	3.95	.68	.20**	.02	.15*	.48**	(.90)			
6. Leader Demands-Abilities Fit	4.23	.58	.24**	.18**	.26**	.31**	.54**	(.88)		
7. Leader Perceptions of Need for Change	2.65	.76	-.14	.16*	.07	-.25**	-.19**	-.09	(.86)	
8. Leader Organizational Climate	3.13	.71	.08	.02	.14*	.33**	.40**	.26**	-.11	(.82)

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Leader Extraversion	3.56	.70	-.03	.48**	.23**	.16*	.07	.19**	.11	.10
10. Leader Agreeableness	4.27	.45	-.01	.05	.14*	.09	.01	.04	-.05	.08
11. Leader Conscientiousness	4.06	.50	-.02	.16*	.23**	.24**	.07	.14*	-.09	.00
12. Leader Emotional Stability	3.72	.68	.10	.20**	.10	.11	.15*	.14*	-.12	-.01
13. Leader Openness	3.80	.53	.09	.36**	.15*	.00	.01	.12	.09	.01
14. Supervisor Rating of Leader Effectiveness	5.75	.94	.41**	.03	-.01	-.04	.10	.20**	.03	.06
15. Supervisor Perceptions of Need for Change	3.52	.85	.16*	.14*	.02	-.10	.14*	.15*	.06	.10
16. Leader Age Range	3.63	1.01	-.03	-.12	-.19**	.08	.01	-.05	-.00	.03
17. Leader Gender	0.33	.47	.01	.11	.12	.00	.06	.00	.14*	.10
18. Leader # of Direct Reports	9.61	15.01	-.05	.10	.01	.13	.01	-.05	.04	.06

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
19. Do any of Leaders' Direct Reports Manage Other People?	1.49	.50	.07	.11	.06	.18*	.12	.10	-.06	.03
20. Length of time in Mgr / Supv role	4.77	1.31	.05	.04	-.10	-.01	-.06	.03	.06	-.03
21. # of Previous Leadership Workshops in past 3 years	2.67	1.02	.03	-.02	-.03	.10	.03	.02	.02	.06
22. Leader Tenure with Org	4.68	1.29	-.07	-.24**	-.13	.06	-.09	-.16*	-.23**	.03
23. Leader Position Tenure	3.58	1.45	-.14*	-.22**	-.07	.08	-.09	-.09	-.22**	-.11
24. Leader Tenure with Supv	3.29	1.42	-.06	-.24**	-.08	-.05	-.10	-.08	-.15*	-.10
25. Leader Education Level	3.70	1.19	.10	.15*	.03	.03	.03	-.02	.18*	-.12
26. Total # of Employees	2.81	1.00	-.05	-.10	-.08	.07	-.11	-.11	-.14*	-.04
27. Industry	1.34	.62	.05	.17*	.04	-.16*	.02	-.02	.03	.06

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Transformational Leadership										
2. Leader Affective-Identity MTL										
3. Leader Social-Normative MTL										
4. Leader P-O Fit										
5. Leader Needs-Supplies Fit										
6. Leader Demands-Abilities Fit										
7. Leader Perceptions of Need for Change										
8. Leader Organizational Climate										

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
9. Leader Extraversion	(.89)									
10. Leader Agreeableness	.22**	(.77)								
11. Leader Conscientiousness	.10	.26**	(.75)							
12. Leader Emotional Stability	.16*	.16*	.11	(.86)						
13. Leader Openness	.38**	.04	.09	.08	(.77)					
14. Supervisor Rating of Leader Effectiveness	-.08	.07	-.01	-.07	-.04	(.94)				
15. Supervisor Perceptions of Need for Change	-.04	.03	-.05	.10	.05	.23**	(.93)			
16. Leader Age Range	-.11	.02	-.05	.17*	-.11	-.05	-.03	--		
17. Leader Gender	-.01	-.37**	-.15*	.00	.06	-.05	.14	-.12	--	
18. Leader # of Direct Reports	-.03	.11	.14	.05	.01	.06	-.09	.03	-.15*	--

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19. Do any of Leaders' Direct Reports Manage Other People?	-.01	-.15	-.09	-.00	-.01	.10	.03	.01	.15	.08
20. Length of time in Mgr / Supv role	.04	-.08	-.08	.09	-.13	.09	.03	.45**	.00	-.05
21. # of Previous Leadership Workshops in past 3 years	.01	.01	-.08	.08	-.09	.06	.04	.16*	-.14*	.03
22. Leader Tenure with Org	-.11	.06	-.13	-.01	-.14*	-.03	.02	.32**	-.09	.05
23. Leader Position Tenure	-.09	.01	-.05	.03	-.19**	-.06	-.01	.33**	-.08	-.09
24. Leader Tenure with Supv	-.22*	.02	-.04	-.06	-.27**	.02	-.15*	.22**	.01	.01
25. Leader Education Level	.01	-.16*	-.02	-.02	.23**	-.01	.05	-.05	.17*	.07
26. Total # of Employees	-.13	.19**	.03	.00	-.07	-.06	.00	.16*	-.30**	.15*
27. Industry	.10	-.15*	-.07	.02	.03	-.00	.10	-.06	.34**	-.10

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
1. Transformational Leadership									
2. Leader Affective-Identity MTL									
3. Leader Social-Normative MTL									
4. Leader P-O Fit									
5. Leader Needs-Supplies Fit									
6. Leader Demands-Abilities Fit									
7. Leader Perceptions of Need for Change									
8. Leader Organizational Climate									

Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
9. Leader Extraversion									
10. Leader Agreeableness									
11. Leader Conscientiousness									
12. Leader Emotional Stability									
13. Leader Openness									
14. Supervisor Rating of Leader Effectiveness									
15. Supervisor Perceptions of Need for Change									
16. Leader Age Range									
17. Leader Gender									
18. Leader # of Direct Reports									



Table 5 (cont.)

Variable	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
19. Do any of Leaders' Direct Reports Manage Other People?	--								
20. Length of time in Mgr / Supv role	.04	--							
21. # of Previous Leadership Workshops in past 3 years	.06	.21**	--						
22. Leader Tenure with Org	-.00	.23**	.19**	--					
23. Leader Position Tenure	.03	.39**	.09	.58**	--				
24. Leader Tenure with Supv	-.02	.19**	.03	.52**	.49**	--			
25. Leader Education Level	.20*	-.05	-.19**	.01	-.06	.07	--		
26. Total # of Employees	-.07	.02	.36**	.27**	.16*	.06	-.19**	--	
27. Industry	.06	.12	-.18**	-.04	-.16*	.04	.24**	-.39**	--

Note. N = 188-215. The reliability estimates ( $\alpha$ ) are presented in the diagonal. \*  $\rho < .05$ . \*\*  $\rho < .01$ . The 95% confidence interval does not include zero if  $r \geq .14$ .

Table 6  
*Follower-level Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Intercorrelations Matrix*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Transformational Leadership	2.63	0.50	(.95)							
2. Follower Job Satisfaction	6.01	1.19	.17**	(.91)						
3. Follower Intentions to Quit	1.89	1.41	-.16**	-.66**	(.91)					
4. Follower P-O Fit	3.63	0.85	.20**	.53**	-.41**	(.95)				
5. Follower P-S Fit	3.68	0.89	.44**	.40**	-.34**	.49**	(.97)			
6. Follower Task Performance	6.31	0.93	.04	.13**	-.12**	.05	.17**	(.91)		
7. Follower OCB	3.97	0.62	.14**	.19**	-.15**	.14**	.23**	.54**	(.93)	
8. Follower Age Range	3.44	1.16	-.04	.02	-.11**	-.10**	-.02	.03	.05	--

Table 6 (cont.)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Follower Gender	0.26	0.44	.04	.00	.04	-.06*	.01	-.12**	-.01	-.02
10. Follower Org Tenure	4.30	1.45	-.04	-.09**	.04	-.13**	-.05	.00	.05	.49**
11. Follower Position Tenure	3.73	1.44	-.03	-.08**	.02	-.11**	-.07**	-.01	.02	.47**
12. Follower Tenure with Supervisor	2.94	1.25	-.01	.02	.05	.00	.02	.11**	.17**	.20**
13. Whether Follower was Hired by Leader	1.68	0.47	-.08**	-.06*	-.01	-.10**	-.10**	-.09*	-.10**	.22**
14. Follower Education Level	3.23	1.21	.02	-.04	.10**	.02	.03	-.03	.02	-.16**

Table 6 (cont.)

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Transformational Leadership						
2. Follower Job Satisfaction						
3. Follower Intentions to Quit						
4. Follower P-O Fit						
5. Follower P-S Fit						
6. Follower Task Performance						
7. Follower OCB						
8. Follower Age Range						

Table 6 (cont.)

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14
9. Follower Gender	--					
10. Follower Org Tenure	-.04	--				
11. Follower Position Tenure	-.02	.73**	--			
12. Follower Tenure with Supervisor	.04	.50**	.51**	--		
13. Whether Follower was Hired by Leader	-.04	.39**	.37**	-.03	--	
14. Follower Education Level	.23**	-.11**	-.10**	-.00	-.04	--

Note. N = 738-1,284. The reliability estimates ( $\alpha$ ) are presented in the diagonal. \*  $\rho < .05$ . \*\*  $\rho < .01$ . The 95% confidence interval does not include zero if  $r \geq .06$  for all correlations except for those involving task performance or OCB. For the task performance and OCB correlations, the 95% confidence interval does not include zero if  $r \geq .08$ . Transformational Leadership was aggregated across followers and then repeated for each follower in order to compile this table.

### **Hypotheses 1a-1d**

Hypotheses 1a-1d stated that leaders' person-organization fit, affective-identity motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit will be positively related to followers' perceptions of transformational leader behaviors. Regression analysis was used as the technique for modeling and analyzing the relationship between a dependent variable and several independent variables. Specifically, this was tested via hierarchical (or stepwise) regression to examine the effects of these potential predictors after partialling out the effects of control variables. The first step of the regression was to include control variables in Step 1. The control variables were as follows: leader Big Five personality, whether the leaders' direct reports manage others, leader position tenure, and organizational climate. The first regression examined simultaneous effects of the four hypothesized predictors on transformational leadership. Social-normative motivation to lead was also included in the first analysis. As shown in Table 7, social-normative motivation to lead was not related to transformational leadership. Because of the minimal effect and because there was no theoretical reason to expect social-normative motivation to lead to impact the demonstration of transformational leadership behaviors, it was then removed from subsequent analyses.

Because of the decision to exclude social-normative motivation to lead from subsequent analyses, I next re-ran the initial regression without that variable. Again, the first step of the regression was to include control variables in Step 1. The only control variable to be significantly related to transformational leadership was that of position tenure ( $\beta = -.15, p < .05$ ) meaning that the longer someone has been in their managerial position, the less likely their direct reports are to view them as transformational leaders. The four proposed predictors of transformational leadership were then added in Step 2, which led to an increase in the overall model  $R^2$  of .06 ( $p < .05$ ). Standardized beta

Table 7  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results for All Potential Predictors of Transformational Leadership*

Variable	DV - Transformational Leadership
Step 1:	
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = -.09$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = .04$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = -.01$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = .07$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .08$
Do DRs manage others?	$\beta = -.14$
Leader Position Tenure	$\beta = -.15^*$
Organizational Climate	$\beta = .06$
<i>R</i>	.25
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.06
Step 2:	
Affective-Identity MTL	$\beta = .00$
Social-Normative MTL	$\beta = -.04$
Person-Organization Fit	$\beta = -.04$
Needs-Supplies Fit	$\beta = .08$
Demands-Abilities Fit	$\beta = .22^*$
<i>R</i>	.35
$\Delta R$	.10*
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.12
$\Delta R^2$	.06*

Note.  $N = 181$ .  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. \*  $p < .05$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: position tenure (-.11, .00) and demands-abilities fit (.04, .35).

Table 8  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Hypothesized Predictors of Transformational Leadership*

Variable	DV - Transformational Leadership
Step 1:	
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = -.09$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = .04$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = -.01$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = .07$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .08$
Do DRs manage others?	$\beta = -.14$
Leader Position Tenure	$\beta = -.15^*$
Organizational Climate	$\beta = .06$
R	.25
$R^2$	.06
Step 2:	
Affective-Identity MTL	$\beta = -.01$
Person-Organization Fit	$\beta = -.05$
Needs-Supplies Fit	$\beta = .09$
Demands-Abilities Fit	$\beta = .21^*$
R	.35
$\Delta R$	.10*
$R^2$	.12
$\Delta R^2$	.06*

Note. N = 181.  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. \*  $p < .05$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: position tenure (-.11, -.00) and demands-abilities fit (.04, .35).



coefficients were  $-.01$  (*ns*) for affective-identity motivation to lead,  $-.05$  (*ns*) for P-O fit,  $.09$  (*ns*) for needs-supplies fit, and  $.21$  ( $p < .05$ ) for demands-abilities fit (see Table 8)<sup>1</sup>. Based on the multiple regression results, it can be concluded that Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c that P-O fit, affective-identity motivation to lead, and needs-supplies fit respectively, would be positively related to transformational leadership behaviors were not supported. Hypothesis 1d, however, that demands-abilities fit is positively related to transformational leadership was supported.

### **Hypothesis 1e**

Hypothesis 1e stated that need for change will moderate the relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership, such that the positive relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership is stronger as need for change increases. Need for change was assessed both by leaders and by their own bosses (supervisors in the current study). This hypothesis was tested by examining both perceptions of need for change separately via regression. Considering that need for change in the department may be interpreted very differently by a leader from how his/her boss interprets it, each perspective was considered on its own merit. The analysis was first run with leader perceptions of need for change (see Table 9). Control variables and the other hypothesized predictors of transformational leadership were entered in Step 1. Leader demands-abilities fit and leader perceptions of need for change were entered in Step 2 (the predictors were mean-centered as per Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The interaction between the two variables was then entered in Step 3. The standardized beta coefficients for the interaction term was  $.02$  (*ns*). As mentioned, this hypothesis was also examined using supervisor (boss) perceptions of need for change (see Table 9). Control variables and the other hypothesized predictors of transformational leadership were entered in Step 1. Leader demands-abilities fit and supervisor perceptions of need for change were

---

<sup>1</sup> It is interesting to note that needs-supplies fit was significantly related to transformational leadership ( $\beta = .17, p < .05$ ) prior to the inclusion of control variables.

Table 9  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Interaction between Demands-Abilities Fit and Perceptions of Need for Change*

Variable	DV - Transformational Leadership - Leader Perceptions of Need for Change	DV - Transformational Leadership - Supervisor Perceptions of Need for Change
Step 1:		
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = -.09$	$\beta = -.09$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = .04$	$\beta = .04$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = -.01$	$\beta = -.01$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = .05$	$\beta = .05$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .08$	$\beta = .08$
Do DRs manage others?	$\beta = -.12$	$\beta = -.12$
Leader Position Tenure	$\beta = -.14$	$\beta = -.14$
Organizational Climate	$\beta = .00$	$\beta = .00$
Affective-Identity MTL	$\beta = .02$	$\beta = .02$
P-O Fit	$\beta = -.05$	$\beta = -.05$
Needs-Supplies Fit	$\beta = .19^*$	$\beta = .19^*$
R	.30	.30
$R^2$	.09	.09
Step 2:		
Demands-Abilities Fit	$\beta = .21^*$	$\beta = .21^*$
Perceptions of Need for Change	$\beta = -.15$	$\beta = .09$
R	.37	.35
$R^2$	.14	.13
Step 3:		
Demands-Abilities Fit x Perceptions of Need for Change	.02	-.07
R	.37	.36
$\Delta R$	.00	.01
$R^2$	.14	.13
$\Delta R^2$	.00	.00

Table 9 (cont.)

Note.  $N = 181$ .  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. \*  $p < .05$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: needs-supplies fit (.01, .29) and demands-abilities fit (.04, .34) for leader perceptions of need for change; needs-supplies fit (.01, .29) and demands-abilities fit (.03, .34) for supervisor perceptions of need for change.

entered in Step 2 (again both mean-centered). The interaction between the two variables was then entered in Step 3. The standardized beta coefficients for the interaction term was  $-.07$  (*ns*). Thus whether using need for change perceptions of leaders or of their bosses, Hypothesis 1e that need for change will moderate the relationship between demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership was not supported

### **Direct and Indirect Effects of Personality on Motivation to Lead**

While I controlled for the Big Five in the test of transformational leadership antecedents, I did have some concern about doing so as extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability have been shown to be positively related to affective-identity motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Hong, 2005; Lee, 2005; Sanchez, 2003; Van Iddekinge et al., 2009). As such, controlling for those traits in the current study may remove relevant variance in demonstrating motivation to lead as a predictor of transformational leadership. Therefore, I also tested a model in which direct effects of personality on transformational leadership are assessed as well as the indirect effects of personality on transformational leadership through the motivation to lead construct. As shown in Table 10, extraversion ( $\beta = .39, p < .01$ ), emotional stability ( $\beta = .13, p < .05$ ), and openness to experience ( $\beta = .20, p < .01$ ) all were positively related to affective-identity motivation to lead in the current study. However, none of the leader Big Five personality traits were related to transformational leadership; likewise, affective-identity motivation to lead was not related to transformational leadership.

Table 10  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Direct and Indirect Effects of Leader Personality on Motivation to Lead and Transformational Leadership*

Variable	Model 1 DV - Affective-Identity MTL	Model 2 DV - Transformational Leadership	Model 3 DV - Transformational Leadership
Step 1:			
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = .39^{**}$	$\beta = -.08$	$\beta = -.10$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = -.09$	$\beta = -.01$	$\beta = -.00$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = .11$	$\beta = -.03$	$\beta = -.03$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = .13^*$	$\beta = .10$	$\beta = .10$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .20^{**}$	$\beta = .11$	$\beta = .10$
Leader Affective-Identity MTL			$\beta = .04$
R	.54	.15	.15
$R^2$	.30	.02	.02

Note. N =214.  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: extraversion (.33, .65), emotional stability (.01, .32), and openness (.12, .53).

### **Indirect Assessment of Demands–Abilities Fit**

Effects of demands-abilities fit on transformational leadership were also examined using an indirect assessment of demands-abilities fit. Leader demands and abilities and manager demands and abilities were assessed using exploratory items, and polynomial regression was used to determine whether transformational leadership is highest when there is a match between demands and abilities. Six items were developed to assess whether leaders feel leadership or management responsibilities are part of their jobs (three for leader demands and three for manager demands; Kotter, 1990). The other six items then asked the leaders to assess whether they think they have the skills and abilities to perform each of the leadership or management demands (three for leader abilities and three for manager abilities). Polynomial regression and three-dimensional surface plots were used to determine the precise relationship between perceptions of leader demands and abilities (and separately for manager demands and abilities) in terms of predicting transformational leadership. As discussed by Kristof-Brown and Guay (2010; p. 21), “polynomial regression and surface plot analysis were introduced to the PE fit literature by Edwards (1994, 1995; Edwards & Parry, 1993) in response to the increasing popularity of profile comparison and difference score methods to calculate subjective and objective fit and assess their impact.” A strength of this technique is that instead of using one calculated number (such as a difference score), polynomial regression uses the form of the relationship between P and E and their associated higher order terms ( $P^2$ ,  $P \times E$ , and  $E^2$ ). Table 11 shows the results of the polynomial regression analyses and Figures 2 and 3 show the surface plots for leadership demands and manager demands, respectively.

For both relationships, the amount of variance explained in transformational leadership by the main effects, interaction, and quadratic effects of demands and abilities was statistically significant ( $R^2 = .06 - .08$ ). In examining the surface plot for the leadership demands and abilities, transformational leadership was the highest when

demands were low and abilities were high (shown by the highest point in the far left corner of Figure 2). Interestingly, transformational leadership was also high (and uniform) for low levels of ability no matter what the level of demand. The only point at which transformational leadership dropped was when demands and abilities were both high. Overall, transformational leadership decreased as the amount of leadership demand increased (shown by the lowest point in the rear center of Figure 2). While there was some interaction effect, that effect was not in the expected direction. It had been expected that transformational leadership would be at its highest when demands and abilities were congruent at high levels. That is, it was expected that transformational leadership would be highest when leaders perceived the demand to be leaders and felt they possessed the abilities to be leaders. This pattern of relationships implies that exact correspondence between leader-rated demands and abilities is not necessary for followers to perceive high levels of transformational leader behaviors.

The relationship between manager demands and abilities showed a different pattern (Figure 3). At any given level of demands, transformational leadership was higher for high ability than for low ability. The highest point (as shown in the far left corner of Figure 3) is where abilities are high and demands are low. While there was no expectation that managerial demands and abilities would be predictive of transformational leadership, this result is consistent with what was found for leadership demands and abilities. As abilities decreased, so did follower perceptions of transformational leadership (this is the opposite of what was shown for leadership; in that scenario transformational leadership went back up again at low levels of abilities). This pattern also demonstrates though that exact correspondence between demands and abilities is not necessary for followers to perceive high levels of transformational leader behaviors but rather that a high level of ability is best for transformational leadership regardless of the level of demands. With that being said, however, it is important to note that there may be problems with extrapolating response surface graphs to points where

few or no data occur (Atkins & Wood, 2002). Thus, caution needs to be taken in interpreting points on the graph below the midpoint of the demands and abilities scales considering that the number of ratings at the lower extremes was limited. Only 17.8% of leadership demands, 19.6% of leadership abilities, 18.7% of manager demands, and 17.3% of manager abilities fell below the midpoint of the scale.

Table 11  
*Results of Polynomial Regression Analysis for Perceptions of Leadership / Managerial Demands and Abilities*

Variable	Model 1 - Leadership Demands and Abilities DV - Transformational Leadership	Model 2 - Managerial Demands and Abilities DV - Transformational Leadership
Step 1:		
Constant	2.45	2.42
X (b <sub>1</sub> )	b = -.01	b = .00
Y (b <sub>2</sub> )	b = .20**	b = .19**
R	.23	.22
R <sup>2</sup>	.05	.05
Step 2:		
Constant	2.67	2.50
X (b <sub>1</sub> )	b = -.28	b = -.22
Y (b <sub>2</sub> )	b = .12	b = .28
X <sup>2</sup> (b <sub>3</sub> )	b = -.01	b = .06
XY (b <sub>4</sub> )	b = .29*	b = .08
Y <sup>2</sup> (b <sub>5</sub> )	b = -.14	b = -.09
R	.28	.24
ΔR	.05*	.02
R <sup>2</sup>	.08	.06
ΔR <sup>2</sup>	.03*	.01

Note. N = 214. ΔR<sup>2</sup> reflects the change in R<sup>2</sup> following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Values are unstandardized beta coefficients. X = demands rating; Y = abilities rating. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Figure 2  
*Surface Graph of the Relationship of Leadership Demands and Abilities Ratings with Transformational Leadership*

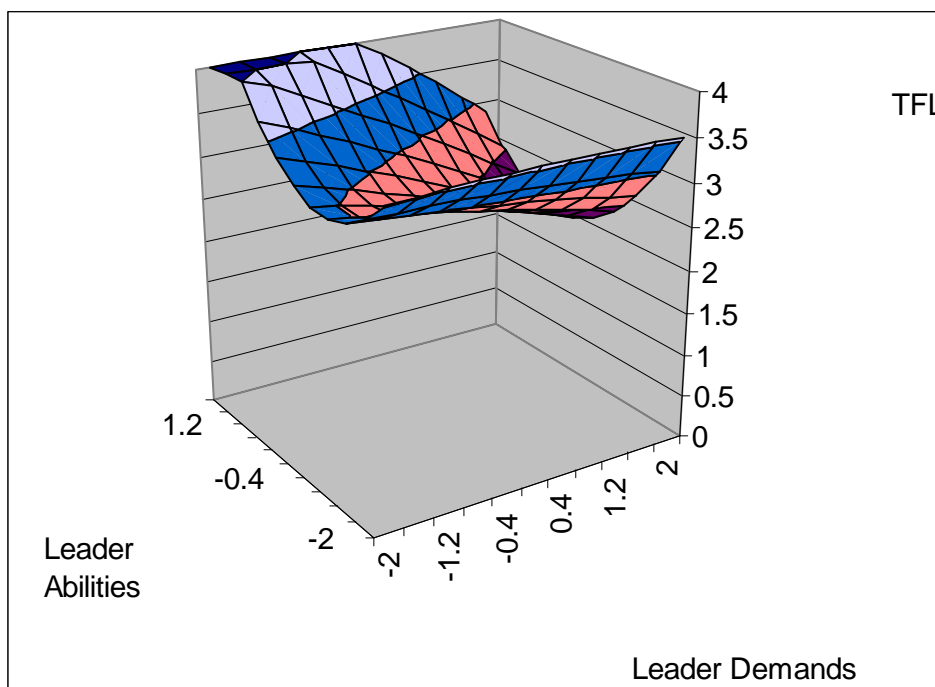
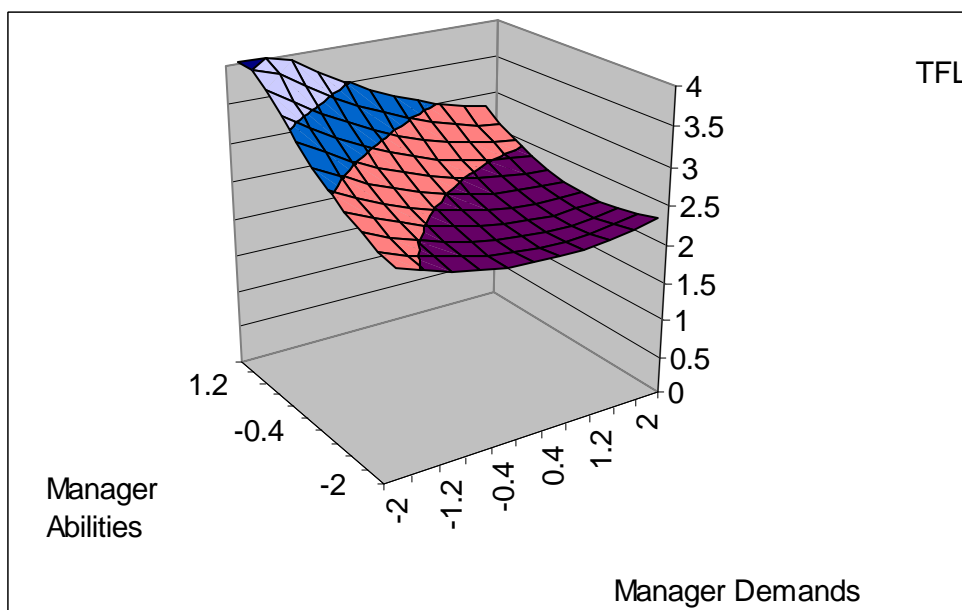


Figure 3  
*Surface Graph of the Relationship of Managerial Demands and Abilities Ratings with Transformational Leadership*





## **Hypothesis 2**

Hypothesis 2 stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to supervisor perceptions of leader effectiveness. While the above correlational results suggest that this will be a strong, positive relationship ( $r = .41, p < .01$ ), it is important to test this relationship via hierarchical regression after removing the effects of the leader and organizational-level control variables as well. This regression was run with the control variables included in Step 1; none of them were significantly related to leader effectiveness. Transformational leadership was then included in Step 2, which led to an increase in the overall model  $R^2$  of .19 ( $p < .01$ ). The standardized beta coefficient was .45 ( $p < .01$ ) for transformational leadership (see Table 12). Based on the hierarchical regression results, it can be concluded that Hypothesis 2 that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to supervisor perceptions of leader effectiveness was supported.

## **Group-level Mediation on Leader Effectiveness**

Another analysis that can be examined here is the potential of group-level mediation of transformational leadership in the relationship between the proposed fit predictors and boss ratings of leader effectiveness (see Table 13). Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation technique, the dependent variables are first regressed on the independent variable. Then the mediating variable is regressed on the independent variable. If the result is significant, it meets one requirement for mediation. Finally, the dependent variables are regressed on both the independent variable and mediating variable together. If both relationships are significant, partial mediation is present. In the first step (Model 1), all control variables were entered. In the second step (Model 1), leadership effectiveness was regressed on the four proposed predictors of transformational leadership. Only demands-abilities fit ( $\beta = .25, p < .01$ ) was significantly related to boss ratings of leader effectiveness. In Model 2, after the control

Table 12  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results in Predicting Leader Effectiveness*

Variable	DV – Supervisor-Rated Leader Effectiveness
Step 1:	
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = -.10$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = .11$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = -.03$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = -.06$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .02$
Do DRs manage others?	$\beta = -.09$
Leader Position Tenure	$\beta = -.05$
Organizational Climate	$\beta = .05$
R	.17
$R^2$	.03
Step 2:	
Follower perceptions of TFL	$\beta = .45^{**}$
R	.47
$\Delta R$	.30 <sup>**</sup>
$R^2$	.22
$\Delta R^2$	.19 <sup>**</sup>

Note. N =181.  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. <sup>\*\*</sup>  $p < .01$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: transformational leadership (.58, 1.08).

Table 13  
*Summary of Regression Analysis Results for Group-Level Mediation on Leader Effectiveness*

Variable	Model 1 DV - Leader Effectiveness	Model 2 DV - Transformational Leadership	Model 3 DV - Leader Effectiveness
Step 1:			
Leader Extraversion	$\beta = -.12$	$\beta = -.09$	$\beta = -.10$
Leader Agreeableness	$\beta = .13$	$\beta = .04$	$\beta = .11$
Leader Conscientiousness	$\beta = -.04$	$\beta = -.01$	$\beta = -.03$
Leader Emotional Stability	$\beta = -.07$	$\beta = .07$	$\beta = -.06$
Leader Openness	$\beta = .01$	$\beta = .08$	$\beta = .02$
Do DRs manage others?	$\beta = -.09$	$\beta = -.14$	$\beta = -.09$
Leader Position Tenure	$\beta = -.04$	$\beta = -.15^*$	$\beta = -.05$
Organizational Climate	$\beta = .04$	$\beta = .06$	$\beta = .05$
R	.19	.25	.17
$R^2$	.04	.06	.03
Step 2:			
Leader Affective-Identity MTL	$\beta = .06$	$\beta = -.02$	$\beta = .04$
Leader P-O Fit	$\beta = -.13$	$\beta = -.05$	$\beta = -.11$

Table 13 (cont.)

Leader Needs-Supplies Fit	$\beta = .03$	$\beta = .09$	$\beta = .00$
Leader Demands-Abilities Fit	$\beta = .25^{**}$	$\beta = .21^*$	$\beta = .16$
Transformational Leadership			$\beta = .42^{**}$
<i>R</i>	.32	.35	.50
$\Delta R$	.13*	.10*	.33**
$R^2$	.10	.12	.25
$\Delta R^2$	.06*	.06*	.22**

Note. N =181.  $\Delta R^2$  reflects the change in  $R^2$  following each step in the hierarchical regression models. Standardized beta coefficients are reported in each model. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ . 95% confidence intervals for significant betas are as follows: demands-abilities fit in Model 1 (.13, .69), position tenure in Model 2 (-.11, .00), demands-abilities fit in Model 2 (.04, .35), and transformational leadership in Model 3 (.51, 1.02).

variables were entered, transformational leadership was regressed on the four proposed predictors of transformational leadership. In this model, demands-abilities fit again was significant ( $\beta = .21, p < .05$ ). As Model 3 shows, control variables were again entered first. When transformational leadership, in addition to the leadership predictors, was entered into the equation predicting leader effectiveness, its standardized coefficient was significant ( $\beta = .42, p < .01$ ). The significant effect of demands-abilities fit ( $\beta = .16, ns$ ) decreased. Thus, transformational leadership mediated the relationship between demands-abilities fit and leader effectiveness.

### **Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM)**

While the first two hypotheses were tested via hierarchical regression, I tested the cross-level hypotheses using HLM (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) based on the recommendations of Gavin and Hofmann (2002) and widespread conceptualizations of leadership as a multilevel construct in recent years. HLM is particularly suitable to test cross-level relations when individual data are nested within groups (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). This is important as subjects in the current study were nested in work groups reporting to the same leader. These work groups are then nested within departments, which are nested within organizations. Using HLM to test cross-level interactions is superior to using ordinary least square (OLS) regression because including individuals from the same group violates regression assumptions and underestimates standard errors of group-level variables, leading to the overestimation of relationships (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998) despite the fact that the parameter estimates remain unbiased (Bliese, 2000). HLM takes the issue of correlated errors into consideration and provides more realistic and conservative statistical testing (Osborne, 2000). Hierarchical linear models provide both a conceptual and statistical method for investigating and reaching conclusions about relationships that cross levels of analysis. HLM also allows researchers to “investigate both lower-level and higher-level unit

variance in the outcome measure, while maintaining the appropriate level of analysis for the independent variables” (Hofmann, 1997, p. 726).

Another advantage of using HLM is that it recognizes that individuals within a group may be more similar than they are to people in another group and, therefore, may not provide independent observations (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000). As such, it can examine relationships within a particular level as well as between or across hierarchical levels. Although non-independence may not be as critical an issue as once suggested because it does not affect population parameter estimates (Bliese, 2000), HLM still removes variance and thus separates difference within and between individuals. While it was designed initially for research in the classroom to estimate variance between pupils within the same school (where there were approximately 30 students per teacher; as a result, the “standard” became needing a sample of 30 groups with 30 individuals in each group), HLM can still be used for smaller nested groups. In fact, Hofmann (1997, p. 740) stated that “if a large number of groups is present, then the number of observations required per group is reduced (e.g., 150 groups requires only five persons per group to obtain a power estimate of .90)”. In the current study, I have 215 leaders with an average of 5.97 followers per leader. Thus, the decision to use HLM for the multi-level hypotheses seems justified<sup>2</sup>.

### **Hypothesis 3a**

Hypothesis 3a stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower job satisfaction. To test Hypothesis 3a via HLM, follower perceptions of transformational leadership (a Level-2 predictor) were regressed on follower job satisfaction (a Level-1 outcome). The results using the full sample of followers was used in this analysis. These results are shown in Table 14.

---

<sup>2</sup> Despite the justified reasoning for testing the multi-level hypotheses via HLM using aggregated data, I also disaggregated the data to test the multi-level hypotheses via multiple regression. Though the HLM results are those reported in tables throughout this study, the regression results are also reported via footnotes.

Table 14  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	5.97	0.04	5.89	6.06
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	-0.03	0.03	-0.10	0.04
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.11	0.09	-0.27	0.06
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.02	0.09	-0.20	0.15
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.05	0.03	-0.02	0.11
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	0.06	0.07	-0.07	0.18
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	0.07	0.07	-0.07	0.21
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.01	0.11	-0.22	0.21
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.08	0.09	-0.25	0.08
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.01	0.06	-0.11	0.13
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	-0.04	0.10	-0.22	0.15
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	0.44**	0.09	0.26	0.62
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	1.38			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.08			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower job satisfaction =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower was hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;

$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*\*  $p < .01$

Consistent with Hypothesis 3a, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were significantly related to follower job satisfaction (95% confidence interval:  $0.26 < 0.44 < 0.62$ ) even after removing the effects of the control variables<sup>3</sup>.

### **Hypothesis 3b**

Hypothesis 3b stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be negatively related to follower intentions to quit. To test Hypothesis 3b via HLM, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were regressed on follower intentions to quit. The results using the full sample of followers are shown in Table 15. Consistent with Hypothesis 3b, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were significantly related to follower intentions to quit (95% confidence interval:  $-0.75 < -0.52 < -0.29$ ) even after partialling out the effects of control variables<sup>4</sup>.

### **Hypothesis 3c**

Hypothesis 3c stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower task performance (as rated by the leaders). To test Hypothesis 3c via HLM, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were regressed on follower task performance. The sample of followers for whom performance data was collected from leaders was used in this analysis. These results are shown in Table 16. Contrary to Hypothesis 3c, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were not related to follower task performance as the confidence interval failed to exclude zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.17 < 0.02 < 0.20$ )<sup>5</sup>.

---

<sup>3</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, transformational leadership was again significantly related to follower job satisfaction ( $\beta = .37, p < .01, 95\%$  confidence interval: 0.46, 0.63).

<sup>4</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, transformational leadership was again significantly related to follower intentions to quit ( $\beta = -.35, p < .01, 95\%$  confidence interval: -0.69, -0.49).

<sup>5</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, transformational leadership was significantly related to follower task performance ( $\beta = .15, p < .01, 95\%$  confidence interval: 0.08, 0.24).



Table 15  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Intentions to Quit*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	1.94	0.05	1.84	2.03
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.14*	0.04	0.06	0.22
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.08	0.11	-0.29	0.13
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.10	0.11	-0.32	0.13
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	-0.10*	0.04	-0.18	-0.02
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.10	0.07	-0.24	0.04
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	0.08	0.09	-0.09	0.25
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.10	0.13	-0.35	0.15
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	0.12	0.11	-0.09	0.34
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.03	0.08	-0.14	0.19
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	-0.07	0.11	-0.28	0.14
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	-0.52**	0.12	-0.75	-0.29
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	1.91			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.12			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower intentions to quit =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower was hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;

$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Table 16  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on Task Performance*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	6.33	0.05	6.24	6.42
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.08*	0.03	0.02	0.14
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.19*	0.07	-0.33	-0.05
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	0.11	0.09	-0.07	0.29
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.04	0.04	-0.03	0.11
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.03	0.09	-0.19	0.14
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	-0.05	0.08	-0.20	0.10
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	0.30*	0.13	0.05	0.54
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.02	0.10	-0.21	0.17
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.09	0.06	-0.03	0.21
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	0.06	0.10	-0.12	0.24
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	0.02	0.10	-0.17	0.20
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.61			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.16			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower task performance =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower was hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;

$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$

### **Hypothesis 3d**

Hypothesis 3d stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership will be positively related to follower OCB (as rated by the leaders). To test Hypothesis 3d via HLM, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were regressed on follower OCB. The results using the sample of followers for which performance data was collected from leaders was used in this analysis. These results are shown in Table 17. Consistent with Hypothesis 3d, follower perceptions of transformational leadership were significantly related to follower OCB (95% confidence interval:  $0.06 < 0.18 < 0.31$ ) even after partialling out the effects of control variables<sup>6</sup>.

### **Hypothesis 4a**

In terms of the potential moderators, Hypothesis 4a stated that follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower job satisfaction, such that the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction is stronger when P-S fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the full sample of followers. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-S fit on job satisfaction was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. An interaction effect is supported if the Level 2 predictors are significantly related to the slope from the Level 1 model. To minimize multi-collinearity, the Level 1 predictors were centered around the group mean and the Level 2 predictor around the grand mean as recommended for models in which interactions are tested (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). These results are shown in Table 18. Contrary to Hypothesis 4a, follower P-S fit did not

---

<sup>6</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, transformational leadership was again significantly related to follower OCB ( $\beta = .23, p < .01, 95\%$  confidence interval: 0.12, 0.23).

Table 17  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Effect of Transformational Leadership on OCB*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	3.97	0.03	3.90	4.03
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.09*	0.02	0.05	0.13
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.10*	0.05	-0.20	-0.00
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.11	0.07	-0.24	0.02
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.02	0.03	-0.03	0.07
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	0.03	0.05	-0.06	0.13
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	0.00	0.05	-0.10	0.10
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	0.16*	0.07	0.02	0.30
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.21*	0.07	-0.35	-0.06
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.04	0.05	-0.06	0.13
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	0.09	0.06	-0.03	0.21
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	0.18*	0.06	0.06	0.31
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.25			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.10			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower OCB =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower was hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;

$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$

Table 18  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Job Satisfaction*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
<b>Level 1</b>				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	5.96	0.43	5.10	6.81
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.00	0.03	-0.06	0.06
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	0.02	0.07	-0.12	0.16
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	0.61**	0.06	0.49	0.72
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	0.26*	0.07	0.13	0.39
<b>Level 2</b>				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	0.00	0.08	-0.15	0.16
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.00	0.03	-0.06	0.07
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	0.02	0.05	-0.09	0.12
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	0.04	0.06	-0.07	0.15
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.02	0.10	-0.22	0.18
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.06	0.08	-0.22	0.10
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.03	0.06	-0.08	0.14
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	0.01	0.09	-0.17	0.18
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	0.01	0.08	-0.14	0.16
<b>Cross-level interaction</b>				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	0.06	0.09	-0.12	0.24
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	-0.06	0.09	-0.22	0.11
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.99			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.07			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower job satisfaction =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;

$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction<sup>7</sup>. While the main effects of P-S fit (95% confidence interval:  $0.13 < 0.26 < 0.39$ ) were significant, the interaction did not explain significant variance and the confidence interval failed to exclude zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.22 < -0.06 < 0.11$ ).

#### **Hypothesis 4b**

Hypothesis 4b stated that follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower intentions to quit, such that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit is stronger when P-S fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the full sample of followers. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-S fit on intentions to quit was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. These results are shown in Table 19. Consistent with Hypothesis 4b, follower P-S fit did moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit. The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $0.02 < 0.26 < 0.50$ ) even after removing the effects of the control variables<sup>8</sup>. To interpret this effect, the relationship between transformational leadership and follower P-S fit in predicting follower intentions to quit was plotted at high and low levels of follower P-S fit (see Figure 4). Surprisingly, the pattern of results was not consistent with the hypothesized form of the interaction. Intentions to quit actually increased as

---

<sup>7</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-S fit and transformational leadership again failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.03$ , ns).

<sup>8</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-S fit and transformational leadership again moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit ( $\beta = .12$ ,  $p < .01$ , 95% confidence interval:  $.07, .25$ ). The pattern of the interaction was again contrary to the hypothesized direction.

Table 19  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Intentions to Quit*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	1.94	0.06	1.83	2.05
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.11*	0.04	0.04	0.18
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.20*	0.09	-0.38	-0.01
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	-0.51**	0.07	-0.65	-0.36
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	-0.31*	0.08	-0.46	-0.16
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.14	0.11	-0.35	0.07
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	-0.06	0.04	-0.13	0.02
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.07	0.07	-0.20	0.06
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	0.10	0.08	-0.05	0.24
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.09	0.13	-0.34	0.16
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	0.11	0.11	-0.10	0.31
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.01	0.08	-0.15	0.18
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	-0.12	0.11	-0.33	0.10
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	-0.06	0.11	-0.28	0.15
Cross-level interaction				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	-0.25*	0.11	-0.47	-0.03
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	0.26*	0.12	0.02	0.50
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	1.54			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.15			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

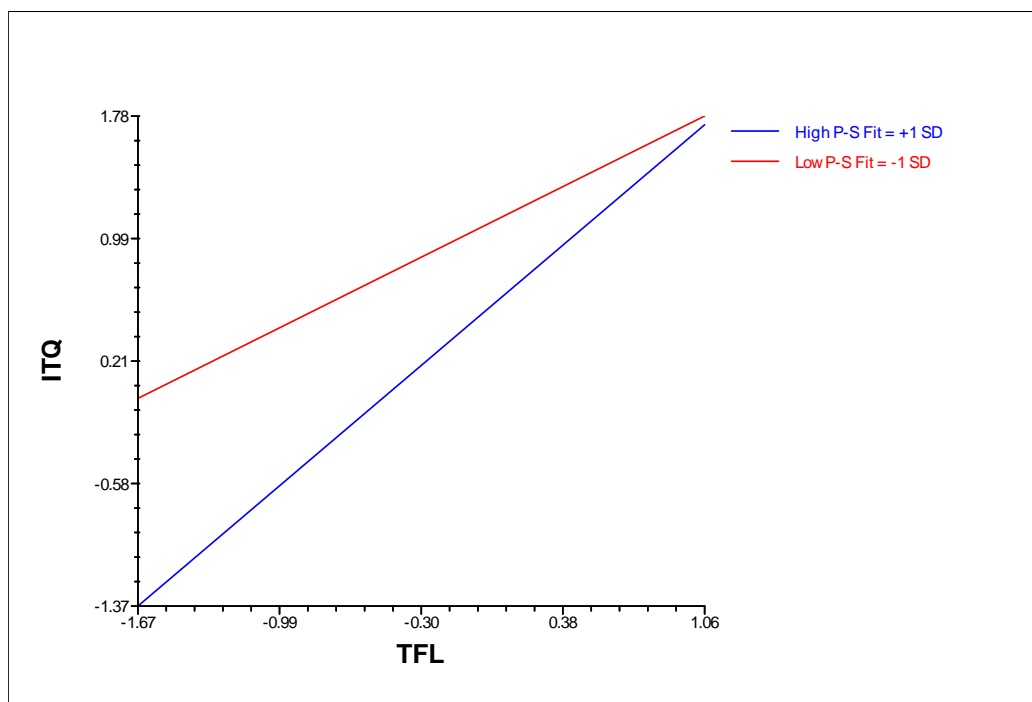
Level 1: follower intentions to quit =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;  
 Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  
 $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Figure 4  
*Interaction between Follower P-S Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Intentions to Quit*



transformational leadership increased. Further, the rise in intentions to quit was sharper for those with high levels of P-S fit.

#### **Hypothesis 4c**

Hypothesis 4c stated that follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower task performance, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance is stronger when P-S fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the sample of followers for which leaders had provided performance ratings. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-S fit on task performance was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. These results are shown in Table 20. Contrary to Hypothesis 4c, follower P-S fit did not



Table 20  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on Task Performance*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
<b>Level 1</b>				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	6.34	0.05	6.25	6.43
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.08*	0.03	0.02	0.15
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.16*	0.07	-0.29	-0.02
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	-0.02	0.05	-0.13	0.08
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	0.21*	0.06	0.09	0.32
<b>Level 2</b>				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	0.11	0.09	-0.06	0.29
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.03	0.04	-0.04	0.10
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.01	0.09	-0.18	0.16
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	-0.05	0.08	-0.20	0.10
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	0.29*	0.13	0.05	0.54
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.04	0.10	-0.24	0.15
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.09	0.06	-0.03	0.21
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	0.06	0.09	-0.12	0.24
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	-0.15	0.11	-0.35	0.06
<b>Cross-level interaction</b>				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	0.18*	0.09	0.01	0.36
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	-0.14	0.11	-0.36	0.07
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.58			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.16			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower task performance =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;  
 Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  
 $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$

moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance. While the main effects of P-S fit (95% confidence interval:  $0.09 < 0.21 < 0.32$ ) were significant, the interaction did not explain significant variance and the confidence interval failed to exclude zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.36 < -0.14 < 0.07$ )<sup>9</sup>.

#### **Hypothesis 4d**

Hypothesis 4d stated that follower perceptions of P-S fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower OCB, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB is stronger when P-S fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the sample of followers for which leaders had provided performance ratings. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-S fit on OCB was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. These results are shown in Table 21. Contrary to Hypothesis 4d, follower P-S fit did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB. While the main effects of P-S fit (95% confidence interval:  $0.04 < 0.11 < 0.17$ ) were significant, the interaction did not explain significant variance and the confidence interval failed to exclude zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.16 < -0.05 < 0.07$ )<sup>10</sup>.

#### **Hypothesis 4e**

Hypothesis 4e stated that follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower job satisfaction, such that the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction is

---

<sup>9</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, follower P-S fit moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance although not in the hypothesized direction ( $\beta = -.10$ ,  $p < .05$ , 95% confidence interval:  $-.17, -.01$ ).

<sup>10</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-S fit and transformational leadership again failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB ( $\beta = -.07$ , ns).

Table 21  
*Results of HLM Analyses Testing the Joint Influences of Transformational Leadership and Person-Organization Fit and Person-Supervisor Fit on OCB*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	3.98	0.03	3.91	4.05
Follower Tenure with Supv,	0.10*	0.02	0.06	0.14
$\gamma_{10}$				
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.07	0.05	-0.17	0.02
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	0.04	0.03	-0.02	0.10
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	0.11*	0.03	0.04	0.17
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.11	0.07	-0.23	0.02
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.02	0.03	-0.04	0.07
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{03}$	0.04	0.05	-0.05	0.14
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{04}$	-0.01	0.05	-0.10	0.08
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{05}$	0.15*	0.07	0.01	0.29
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{06}$	-0.21*	0.07	-0.36	-0.07
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{07}$	0.04	0.05	-0.05	0.14
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{08}$	0.10	0.06	-0.02	0.23
Transformational Leadership, $\gamma_{09}$	0.06	0.07	-0.07	0.19
Cross-level interaction				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	-0.04	0.06	-0.15	0.07
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	-0.05	0.06	-0.16	0.07
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )				
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )				

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower OCB =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{whether leaders' direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  
 $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$

stronger when P-O fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the full sample of followers. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-O fit on job satisfaction was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. For these results, refer back to Table 18. Contrary to Hypothesis 4e, follower P-O fit did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction. While the main effects of P-O fit (95% confidence interval:  $0.49 < 0.61 < 0.72$ ) were significant, the interaction did not explain significant variance and the confidence interval failed to exclude zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.12 < 0.06 < 0.24$ )<sup>11</sup>.

#### **Hypothesis 4f**

Hypothesis 4f stated that follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower intentions to quit, such that the negative relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit is stronger when P-O fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the full sample of followers. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-O fit on intentions to quit was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. For these results, refer back to Table 19. Consistent with Hypothesis 4f, follower P-O fit did moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit. The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.47 < -0.25 < -0.03$ ) even after removing the effects of the control variables<sup>12</sup>. To

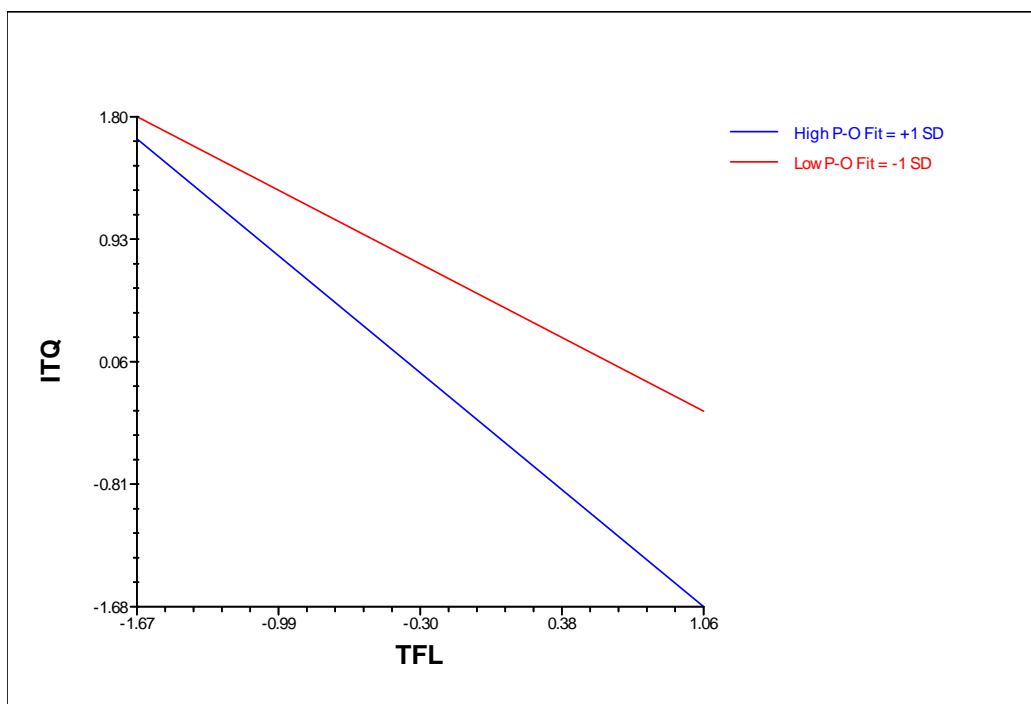
---

<sup>11</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.01$ , ns).

<sup>12</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit ( $\beta = .04$ , ns).

interpret this effect, the relationship between transformational leadership and follower P-O fit in predicting follower intentions to quit was plotted at high and low levels of follower P-O fit (see Figure 5). Unlike with P-S fit, this time the pattern of results was consistent with the hypothesized form of the interaction. Intentions to quit were negatively related to transformational leadership. The relationship was stronger for those with high levels of P-O fit.

Figure 5  
*Interaction between Follower P-O Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Intentions to Quit*



#### Hypothesis 4g

Hypothesis 4g stated that follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower task performance, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance is stronger when P-O fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the

sample of followers for which leaders had provided performance ratings. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-O fit on task performance was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. For these results, refer back to Table 20. Consistent with Hypothesis 4g, follower P-O fit did moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance. The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $0.01 < 0.18 < 0.36$ ) even after removing the effects of the control variables<sup>13</sup>. To interpret this effect, the relationship between transformational leadership and follower P-O fit in predicting follower task performance was plotted at high and low levels of follower P-O fit (see Figure 6). The pattern of results was indeed consistent with the hypothesized form of the interaction. Task performance was positively related to transformational leadership. The relationship was stronger for those with high levels of P-O fit.

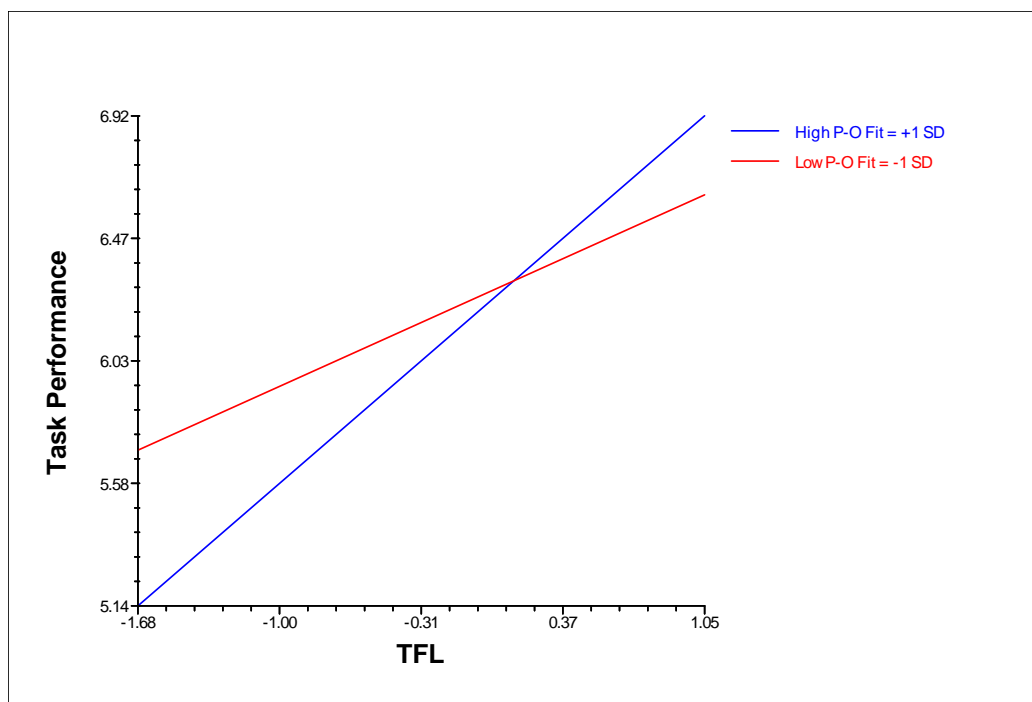
#### **Hypothesis 4h**

Hypothesis 4h stated that follower perceptions of P-O fit will moderate the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and follower OCB, such that the positive relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB is stronger when P-O fit is higher. This was tested via HLM using the sample of followers for which leaders had provided performance ratings. To test the interaction predicted, the joint influence of transformational leadership and P-O fit on OCB was examined. To do so, both the intercept and slopes from the Level 1 model were regressed on the Level 2 variable of transformational leadership. For these results, refer back to Table 21.

---

<sup>13</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance ( $\beta = .05$ , ns).

Figure 6  
*Interaction between Follower P-O Fit and Transformational Leadership in Predicting Follower Task Performance*



Contrary to Hypothesis 4h, follower P-O fit did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB (95% confidence interval:  $-0.15 < -0.04 < 0.07$ ) as the interaction did not explain significant variance and the confidence interval failed to exclude zero<sup>14</sup>.

### Hypothesis 5

The final hypothesis examined whether the entire model would be an example of moderated mediation. Based on earlier regression and HLM results, I only examined moderated mediation for the three hypotheses in which evidence of moderation was supported (Hypotheses 4b, 4f, and 4g) and for the hypothesized predictor in which results were supported (leader demands-abilities fit). As such, the moderated mediation test was

<sup>14</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership again failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower OCB ( $\beta = -.07$ , ns).

to examine whether leader demands-abilities fit influenced follower intentions to quit and task performance through their relationship with transformational leadership more strongly when follower P-S fit and P-O fit perceptions were higher.

I considered testing the entire model via the moderated mediation technique of Edwards and Lambert (2007), an analytical framework that combines moderation and mediation via regression and path analysis. I also considered the methods of Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) who developed two approaches (an SPSS macro and a moderator centering approach) to help explain how moderators influence paths (direct, indirect, and total effects) of mediated models. However their techniques have not been used to test multi-level models. While Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006) identified a method for multi-level moderated mediation, the authors acknowledge it is not suitable for models with upper-level mediation (2-2-1 mediation models; a level 2 independent variable impacting a level 1 dependent variable through a level 2 mediator) as I have in the current study. Thus, I opted instead to use the Baron and Kenny (1986) model to test for moderated mediation in the current study. This test was completed via HLM due to the multi-level nature of the model. While the Baron and Kenny approach to mediation can lead to confounding and erroneous conclusions at times, this is not the case with 2-2-1 mediation models (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010). For this type of multi-level mediation model, the recommended approach is to do grand-mean centering via HLM that follows the Baron and Kenny technique because it leads to an unconfounded estimate of mediation effects (Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). For an example of this type of mediation using the Baron and Kenny approach, see Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, and Rosen (2007).

Support for moderated mediation requires that several conditions be met. In Step 1, the independent variable (leader demands-abilities fit) must be related to the mediator (transformational leadership). In Step 2, the independent variable must also be related to the dependent variable (intentions to quit and task performance, respectively, in this



case). In Step 3, the interaction between transformational leadership and follower P-S and P-O fit must be related to the dependent variables even after controlling for the independent variable (leader demands-abilities fit). To test Step 1, it was shown via multiple regression that leader demands-abilities fit was significantly related to transformational leadership (refer back to Table 8). To test Step 2, I then examined whether leader demands-abilities fit was related to follower intentions to quit and task performance via HLM (see Tables 22 and 23) after controlling for leader, organizational, and follower control variables as well as the other hypothesized predictors of transformational leadership. In each table, Model 1 shows the effects of the control variables and antecedents of transformational leadership on intentions to quit and task performance, and Model 2 adds transformational leadership as a predictor. As shown, leader demands-abilities fit was not related to follower intentions to quit (Table 22; 95% confidence interval:  $-0.28 < 0.02 < 0.31$  in Model 1 and 95% confidence interval:  $-0.16 < 0.09 < 0.35$  in Model 2) or follower task performance (Table 23; 95% confidence interval:  $-0.12 < 0.10 < 0.31$  in Model 1 and 95% confidence interval:  $-0.13 < 0.09 < 0.31$  in Model 2) in either model as the confidence intervals failed to exclude zero<sup>15</sup>. Thus, the independent variable was not related to either dependent variable, which is one of the requirements for mediation. Instead, the results are consistent with an indirect relationship between the variables. According to Mathieu and Taylor (2006; p. 1039), “indirect effects are a special form of intervening effect whereby X and Y are not related directly (i.e., are uncorrelated), but they are indirectly related through significant relationships with a linking mechanism.”

---

<sup>15</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via regression, leader demands-abilities fit was not related to follower intentions to quit either prior to the inclusion of transformational leadership in the model ( $\beta = .01$ , ns) or with transformational leadership included in the model ( $\beta = .03$ , ns). Similarly, leader demands-abilities fit was not related to follower task performance either prior to the inclusion of transformational leadership in the model ( $\beta = .03$ , ns) or with transformational leadership included in the model ( $\beta = .02$ , ns), thus there was no support for mediation.

Table 22

*Results for Test of Transformational Leadership as a Mediator of the Relationship between Leader Demands-Abilities Fit and Follower Intentions to Quit*

	Model 1 - Without Transformational Leadership				Model 2 - With Transformational Leadership			
	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High			Low	High
Level 1								
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	1.94	0.05	1.84	2.05	1.93	0.05	1.83	2.02
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.15*	0.04	0.07	0.23	0.14*	0.04	0.07	0.22
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.07	0.11	-0.28	0.15	-0.09	0.11	-0.31	0.12
Level 2								
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.08	0.12	-0.31	0.15	-0.13	0.11	-0.35	0.09
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	-0.09	0.05	-0.18	0.00	-0.11*	0.04	-0.19	-0.02
Leader Affective-Identity MTL, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.04	0.07	-0.17	0.09	-0.04	0.07	-0.16	0.09
Leader P-O Fit, $\gamma_{04}$	0.00	0.11	-0.21	0.21	-0.01	0.10	-0.21	0.19
Leader Needs-Supplies Fit, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.27*	0.11	-0.48	-0.06	-0.25*	0.10	-0.44	-0.06
Leader Demands-Abilities Fit, $\gamma_{06}$	0.02	0.15	-0.28	0.31	0.09	0.13	-0.16	0.35
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{07}$	-0.03	0.08	-0.19	0.13	-0.03	0.08	-0.18	0.12
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{08}$	0.12	0.09	-0.06	0.31	0.09	0.09	-0.08	0.26
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{09}$	-0.13	0.14	-0.40	0.14	-0.10	0.13	-0.35	0.15
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{010}$	0.17	0.13	-0.07	0.42	0.15	0.11	-0.07	0.37

Table 22 (cont.)

Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{011}$	0.07	0.08	-0.10	0.23	0.06	0.08	-0.10	0.21
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{012}$	-0.11	0.11	-0.33	0.10	-0.08	0.10	-0.28	0.12
TFL, $\gamma_{013}$					-0.51**	0.11	-0.73	-0.29
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	1.90				1.91			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.19				0.11			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format (details on control variables omitted from table):

Model 1:

Level 1: follower Intentions to Quit =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

Model 2:

Level 1: follower Intentions to Quit =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{013} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Table 23

*Results for Test of Transformational Leadership as a Mediator of the Relationship between Leader Demands-Abilities Fit and Follower Task Performance*

	Model 1 - Without Transformational Leadership				Model 2 - With Transformational Leadership			
	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval		Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High	t		Low	High
Level 1								
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	6.33	0.05	6.24	6.41	6.32	0.05	6.23	6.41
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.08*	0.03	0.02	0.14	0.08*	0.03	0.02	0.14
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.20*	0.07	-0.35	-0.06	-0.20*	0.07	-0.35	-0.06
Level 2								
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	0.07	0.09	-0.12	0.25	0.07	0.09	-0.12	0.25
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.02	0.04	-0.05	0.10	0.02	0.04	-0.05	0.10
Leader Affective-Identity MTL, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.13*	0.06	-0.26	-0.01	-0.13*	0.06	-0.26	-0.01
Leader P-O Fit, $\gamma_{04}$	0.00	0.09	-0.17	0.17	0.00	0.09	-0.17	0.17
Leader Needs-Supplies Fit, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.12	0.08	-0.26	0.03	-0.12	0.08	-0.27	0.03
Leader Demands-Abilities Fit, $\gamma_{06}$	0.10	0.11	-0.12	0.31	0.09	0.11	-0.13	0.31
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{07}$	-0.01	0.09	-0.18	0.16	-0.01	0.09	-0.18	0.17
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{08}$	-0.00	0.08	-0.16	0.16	0.00	0.08	-0.16	0.16
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{09}$	0.29*	0.12	0.05	0.54	0.29*	0.12	0.05	0.53
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{010}$	0.00	0.11	-0.21	0.21	0.00	0.11	-0.21	0.21
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{011}$	0.12	0.06	-0.00	0.24	0.12	0.06	-0.00	0.24
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{012}$	0.08	0.09	-0.10	0.26	0.08	0.10	-0.11	0.26
TFL, $\gamma_{013}$					0.02	0.09	-0.17	0.20
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.61				0.61			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.16				0.16			

Table 23 (cont.)

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format (details on control variables omitted from table):

Model 1:

Level 1: follower task performance =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

Model 2:

Level 1: follower task performance =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether hired by leader}) + r_0$ ;

Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{013} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$

To test Step 3, I examined whether the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-S fit was significantly related to follower intentions to quit, whether the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit was significantly related to follower intentions to quit, and whether the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit was significantly related to follower task performance. While these interactions had been significant earlier (refer back to Tables 19-20), they also needed to be examined while controlling for the independent variable (leader demands-abilities fit) as well.

I first examined the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-S fit on follower intentions to quit while controlling for leader demands-abilities fit (see Table 24). The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $0.01 < 0.25 < 0.50$ ) even after removing the effects of leader demands-abilities fit and the other control variables<sup>16</sup>. The pattern of results was the same as the earlier moderator test for this relationship in that transformational leadership was positively related to intentions to quit (refer to Figure 4). The rise in intentions to quit was sharper for those with high levels of P-S fit.

I then examined the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit on follower intentions to quit while controlling for leader demands-abilities fit (also in Table 24). The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $-0.47 < -0.25 < -0.03$ ) even after removing the effects of leader demands-abilities fit and the other control variables<sup>17</sup>. The pattern of results was the same as the earlier moderator test for this relationship in that

---

<sup>16</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, follower P-S fit again moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit after controlling for leader demands-abilities fit although not in the hypothesized direction ( $\beta = .13, p < .01$ , 95% confidence interval: .08, .26).

<sup>17</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit after controlling for leader demands-abilities fit ( $\beta = .04$ , ns).

Table 24  
*Results for Test of Moderated Mediation of Follower P-S and P-O Fit in the Leader Demands-Abilities Fit → TFL → Follower Intentions to Quit Relationship*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	1.93	0.05	1.83	2.03
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.11*	0.04	0.05	0.18
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.21*	0.10	-0.40	-0.03
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	-0.51**	0.07	-0.64	-0.37
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	-0.31*	0.08	-0.46	-0.16
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.17	0.11	-0.38	0.03
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	-0.07	0.04	-0.16	0.01
Leader Affective-Identity MTL, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.07	0.06	-0.19	0.06
Leader P-O Fit, $\gamma_{04}$	0.08	0.10	-0.11	0.28
Leader Needs-Supplies Fit, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.28*	0.10	-0.48	-0.08
Leader Demands-Abilities Fit, $\gamma_{06}$	0.14	0.13	-0.11	0.39
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{07}$	-0.04	0.07	-0.17	0.10
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{08}$	0.10	0.08	-0.06	0.26
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{09}$	-0.10	0.13	-0.34	0.15
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{010}$	0.10	0.11	-0.11	0.30
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{011}$	0.04	0.08	-0.11	0.20
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{012}$	-0.12	0.10	-0.32	0.08
TFL, $\gamma_{013}$	-0.05	0.11	-0.27	0.16
Cross-level interaction				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	-0.25*	0.11	-0.47	-0.03
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	0.25*	0.12	0.01	0.50
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	1.54			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.14			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower intentions to quit =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;  
 Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{013} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 994 for Level 1 variables

N = 176 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Table 25  
*Results for Test of Moderated Mediation of Follower P-O Fit in the Leader Demands-Abilities Fit → TFL → Follower Task Performance Relationship*

	Coefficient	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Low	High
Level 1				
Intercept, $\gamma_{00}$	6.34	0.05	6.25	6.43
Follower Tenure with Supv, $\gamma_{10}$	0.08*	0.03	0.02	0.15
Whether Hired by Leader, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.17*	0.07	-0.31	-0.03
Follower P-O Fit, $\gamma_{30}$	-0.02	0.06	-0.13	0.09
Follower P-S Fit, $\gamma_{40}$	0.20*	0.06	0.08	0.31
Level 2				
Do Direct Reports Manage Others, $\gamma_{01}$	0.08	0.09	-0.10	0.26
Leader Position Tenure, $\gamma_{02}$	0.02	0.04	-0.05	0.09
Leader Affective-Identity MTL, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.12	0.07	-0.25	0.01
Leader P-O Fit, $\gamma_{04}$	0.00	0.09	-0.17	0.18
Leader Needs-Supplies Fit, $\gamma_{05}$	-0.11	0.07	-0.26	0.04
Leader Demands-Abilities Fit, $\gamma_{06}$	0.07	0.11	-0.15	0.29
Organizational Climate, $\gamma_{07}$	0.01	0.09	-0.16	0.19
Leader Extraversion, $\gamma_{08}$	-0.00	0.08	-0.15	0.15
Leader Agreeableness, $\gamma_{09}$	0.29*	0.12	0.05	0.54
Leader Conscientiousness, $\gamma_{010}$	-0.02	0.11	-0.24	0.19
Leader Emotional Stability, $\gamma_{011}$	0.12	0.06	-0.01	0.24
Leader Openness, $\gamma_{012}$	0.08	0.10	-0.11	0.26
TFL, $\gamma_{013}$	-0.14	0.10	-0.33	0.06
Cross-level interaction				
TFL x P-O Fit, $\gamma_{31}$	0.18	0.09	0.003	0.36
TFL x P-S Fit, $\gamma_{41}$	-0.15	0.11	-0.36	0.06
Within-group variance ( $\sigma^2$ )	0.58			
Between-group variance ( $\tau_{00}$ )	0.17			

Notes. Summary of the model in equation format:

Level 1: follower task performance =  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 * (\text{follower tenure with supervisor}) + \beta_2 * (\text{whether follower hired by leader}) + \beta_3 * (\text{follower P-O fit}) + \beta_4 * (\text{follower P-S fit}) + r_0$ ;  
 Level 2:  $\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} * (\text{do direct reports manage others}) + \gamma_{02} * (\text{leader position tenure}) + \gamma_{03} * (\text{leader affective-identity MTL}) + \gamma_{04} * (\text{leader P-O fit}) + \gamma_{05} * (\text{leader needs-supplies fit}) + \gamma_{06} * (\text{leader demands-abilities fit}) + \gamma_{07} * (\text{organizational climate}) + \gamma_{08} * (\text{leader extraversion}) + \gamma_{09} * (\text{leader agreeableness}) + \gamma_{010} * (\text{leader conscientiousness}) + \gamma_{011} * (\text{leader emotional stability}) + \gamma_{012} * (\text{leader openness}) + \gamma_{013} * (\text{transformational leadership}) + U_0$ ;  $\beta_1 = \gamma_{10}$ ;  $\beta_2 = \gamma_{20}$ ;  $\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + \gamma_{31} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ ;  $\beta_4 = \gamma_{40} + \gamma_{41} * (\text{transformational leadership})$ .

N = 588 for Level 1 variables

N = 149 for Level 2 variables

\*  $p < .05$



transformational leadership was negatively related to intentions to quit (refer to Figure 5). The drop in intentions to quit was sharper for those with high levels of P-O fit.

I next examined the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit on follower task performance while controlling for leader demands-abilities fit (see Table 25). The interaction did explain significant variance and the confidence interval excluded zero (95% confidence interval:  $0.003 < 0.18 < 0.36$ ) even after removing the effects of leader demands-abilities fit and the other control variables<sup>18</sup>. The pattern of results was the same as the earlier moderator test for this relationship in that transformational leadership was positively related to task performance (refer to Figure 6). The rise in task performance was sharper for those with high levels of P-O fit.

Though moderated mediation likely does not exist since the potential mediation relationships in Step 2 were not significant, I continued in an attempt to be thorough based on the indirect effects work of Mathieu and Taylor (2006). The last step was thus to regress intentions to quit and task performance on both leader demands-abilities fit and on the transformational leadership x P-S fit interaction term (and transformational leadership x P-O fit interaction term) to determine whether the interaction was significantly related to the dependent variables (refer to Tables 24 and 25). Support for the moderated mediation hypothesis would have required that leader demands-abilities fit was significantly related to follower intentions to quit (and follower task performance) while controlling for the Mediator x Moderator interaction. That was not the case (Table 24: 95% confidence interval:  $-0.11 < 0.14 < 0.39$ <sup>19</sup>; Table 25: 95% confidence interval:  $-0.15 < 0.07 < 0.29$ <sup>20</sup>). However, the evidence for the indirect relationship remained.

---

<sup>18</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, the interaction of follower P-O fit and transformational leadership failed to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance after controlling for leader demands-abilities fit ( $\beta = .05$ , ns).

<sup>19</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, leader demands-abilities fit was not related to follower intentions to quit after controlling for the Mediator x Moderator interaction ( $\beta = .05$ , ns).

<sup>20</sup> When the data were disaggregated and tested via multiple regression, leader demands-abilities fit was not related to follower task performance after controlling for the Mediator x Moderator interaction ( $\beta = .02$ , ns).

Thus, leader demands-abilities fit and the follower outcomes of intentions to quit and task performance are indirectly related through significant relationships with the linking mechanism of transformational leadership.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

During the last few decades, the study of transformational leadership has focused mostly on leaders themselves. Research evidence has demonstrated that transformational leadership has positive effects on people, teams, and organizations (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Transformational leadership has been shown to lead to higher levels of satisfaction, commitment, and performance (Bass, 1985; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). However, there is still very limited information regarding the complex set of antecedents that predict transformational leadership. For example, no prior study has examined how person-environment fit impacts who exhibits transformational leadership behaviors. In this study, I examined person-organization fit, affective-identity motivation to lead, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit in terms of their potential for predicting transformational leader behaviors. These constructs are all consistent with the notion that a leader may be viewed as more transformational in some situations than in others.

In addition, researchers have yet to examine follower differences in perceptions of fit as moderators in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower attitude / performance outcomes despite several calls for more research on followers (e.g., Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Klein & House, 1995; Yukl, 1999). This dissertation thus also examined how follower fit perceptions impact their response to transformational leaders. The impact of the situation on leaders and of the leader on followers must come together to create the “fire” that ignites energy and commitment in followers, thus leading to additional positive outcomes. Given that this is a relatively untapped area, the current study examined the role of follower P-S fit and P-O fit as potential moderators of the transformational leadership-follower outcomes relationship. As such, I integrated these constructs to examine both their independent and joint effects in predicting follower attitudes and performance. Thus the primary purpose of this study was to answer research questions regarding how leader situational fit perceptions influence their

transformational leadership behaviors and how follower perceptions of fit interact with transformational leadership to influence their own response to those leaders.

Using a sample of 215 leaders, their bosses, and 1,284 direct reports, this study used a rigorous methodological strategy that included surveying both lower-level and higher-level leaders plus direct reports from ten organizations. The study had a relatively large sample with strong response rates. In addition, the use of ten organizations from a variety of industries increased both external validity and generalizability. To my knowledge, this is the first study to systemically examine these potential predictors of transformational leadership as well as the moderating effects of follower fit on the relationships between transformational leadership and follower attitudes and performance.

This chapter next focuses on the interpretation of results for each set of hypotheses. I then discuss practical implications of the study for managers and organizations. That is followed by limitations of the current study, ideas for future research, and an overall conclusion.

### **Hypotheses 1a-1e**

The results of the study revealed several interesting findings. The first set of hypotheses examined potential predictors of transformational leadership. While most often used in recruitment or selection research, the P-J fit dimension of demands-abilities fit appears to potentially be a predictor of transformational leadership. With no control variables in the regression equation, both demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit were significantly related to transformational leadership. However, when results also took into account the leader and organizational-level control variables to examine the effects of these potential predictors after partialling out the effects of leader (leader Big Five personality, whether direct reports manage others, and position tenure) and organizational-level (organizational climate) control variables, only demands-abilities fit remained significant. Demands-abilities fit represents how well an individual feels their

KSAs match the requirements of the job. If someone feels they have the abilities to fulfill a leadership role, they will have higher leader self-efficacy, which has been shown to increase motivation and performance (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Demands-abilities fit has also been argued to lead to stronger task performance (Edwards & Shipp, 2007), which would be represented by leader behaviors and effectiveness in the case of a leadership role. Interestingly, demands-abilities fit was the only capacity variable examined as a predictor of transformational leadership (none of the motive variables - P-O fit, motivation to lead, and needs-supplies fit - had a significant effect on transformational leadership). The findings of the current study demonstrate that leaders' perceptions of situational fit are important as leader demands-abilities fit is positively related to transformational leadership behaviors. Demands-abilities fit should be included with other known antecedents of transformational leadership. If one perceives that they possess the abilities to meet the demands of their leadership role, they are more likely to demonstrate transformational leader behaviors that lead to positive follower outcomes. These findings on leader demands-abilities fit are consistent with the notion that situational fit matters and that leaders may be viewed as more transformational in some settings than in others.

In addition to asking leaders to directly assess the fit between their demands and abilities, leaders also separately assessed the leadership and managerial demands in their jobs as well as their ability to successfully meet leadership and managerial demands. This allowed me to determine whether transformational leadership is highest when there is a match between demands and abilities. The demands items were created to assess leaders' perceptions of the demands in their role in terms of specific behaviors normally attributed to leaders or managers (Kotter, 1990). The abilities items were created to assess leaders' perceptions of their ability to meet those respective demands.

For leadership demands and abilities, transformational leadership decreased as leadership demands increased. As transformational leadership was also high (and

uniform) for low levels of ability no matter what the level of demand, perhaps some leaders are very transformational regardless of whether they feel they possess the abilities to fulfill the leadership portions of their duties. The only point at which transformational leadership dropped was when demands and abilities were both high, perhaps because transformational leaders may be rating themselves lower on ability than they really are. Interestingly, the interaction effect was not in the expected direction. It was expected that transformational leadership would be highest when leaders perceived the demand to be leaders and having the abilities to be leaders. Considering transformational leadership is highest when abilities are high, it is possible that these leaders are always demonstrating transformational leader behaviors but that the behaviors appear even more to followers when the leaders are not overwhelmed by high demands to be leaders. Thus, when leaders are not overwhelmed by leadership demands but actually have the time to act transformational and demonstrate behaviors such as communicating a shared vision, inspiring followers to exceed expectations, and providing developmental opportunities, followers observe these behaviors and likely respond favorably to them.

The relationship between manager demands and abilities showed a different pattern. At any given level of demands, transformational leadership was higher for high ability than low ability. The highest point was where abilities are high and demands are low. As abilities decreased, so did follower perceptions of transformational leadership (this is the opposite of what was shown for leadership; in that scenario transformational leadership went back up again at low levels of abilities). This pattern demonstrates that a high level of managerial ability is associated with higher levels of transformational leadership regardless of the level of demands. These findings contradict the earlier direct demands-abilities fit findings that showed the congruence between demands and abilities was very important and potentially predictive of transformational leadership due to the positive relationship between them.

Though the results for needs-supplies fit did not remain significant in multiple regression after control variables were added, it still has some positive effect on transformational leadership. This is due to someone feeling the leadership role provides what they need from a job. When leaders feel they have the motivation and resources to successfully exhibit transformational leader behaviors, they are more likely to provide more focused coaching/mentoring, provide challenging developmental opportunities, and feel commitment from the organization. As a result, they are more likely to demonstrate transformational leader behaviors in exchange for the opportunities provided to them by the organization. Nevertheless, the fact that the relationship between needs-supplies fit and transformational leadership became nonsignificant when the control variables were added suggests that it is spurious (or artifactual) in nature and not a true effect but rather that the relationship was inflated by the absence of relevant control variables. Thus, needs-supplies fit shares variance with one or more control variables and is likely not predictive of transformational leadership.

The findings regarding the other two proposed predictors (affective-identity motivation to lead and P-O fit) also have implications. First, it appears that affective-identity motivation to lead is not related to greater demonstration of transformational leadership behaviors. This is surprising considering that leaders with high levels of this construct want to lead because of their desire to do so and the enjoyment they get from doing so. Considering that people with this type of motivation to lead feel they are in the right situation and have higher levels of self-efficacy, they should be more confident in their leadership skills and thus be motivated to become even better leaders. Perhaps this construct is indeed best as an antecedent of leadership effectiveness (or emergence) as was its purpose when developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001). It is possible though that affective-identity motivation to lead will be related to other types of leadership, rather than specifically leading to transformational leadership.

Second, P-O fit did not have a significant effect on transformational leadership. Intuitively, it makes sense that if a leader feels his/her personal values align with the values of the organization, then he/she should be more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership behaviors that benefit the organization (such as discussing their personal values and how they relate to the organization, motivating followers to meet increased expectations, and developing these followers to be leaders the organization will need in the future). The results of this study suggested that is not the case though. Perhaps there is essentially no relationship between P-O fit and transformational leadership because either high or low fit could engender transformational leadership. For example, high P-O fit may lead to transformational leadership because the leader is supporting the organization's values. Likewise, low P-O fit could lead to transformational leadership because the leader is trying to bring about change. As Bass (1985) stated, transformational leadership is strongly concerned with change. If these leaders feel such a strong match with the organization already though, perhaps there is no need to bring about considerable change and thus these leaders are not demonstrating transformational leader behaviors that are subsequently perceived by their followers.

Within the current study, 53 of the 215 (24.7%) leaders rated themselves below the midpoint for P-O fit, thus providing evidence that there is not restriction of range. Of those 53 leaders, 31 were rated above the mean in transformational leadership by their followers, while the other 22 were rated below the mean in transformational leadership by their followers. Of those 31 who were rated above the mean, the average rating on transformational leadership was 3.14. For those 22 rated below the mean, the average rating on transformational leadership was 2.23. Thus 58.5% of those leaders who self-rated their P-O fit below the mean on that scale were rated above the transformational leadership mean rating by their followers. Perhaps these leaders are even more aware of their values and that they do not fit with their organizations than are those rated below the



mean on transformational leadership. This aligns with the notion that some leaders with lower levels of P-O fit may well be transformational even when their values do not fit or that they are trying to bring about change to their organizations.

Need for change was also assessed in the current study (from both leaders and their bosses) to see if it may interact with demands-abilities fit to impact transformational leadership behaviors. Interestingly, the interaction was not significant regardless of whether need for change perceptions were from the leaders or from their bosses. This suggests that the relationship between leader demands-abilities fit and transformational leadership does not differ based on need for change. Nevertheless, the overarching importance of need for change in transformational leadership may well remain significant in transformational leadership theory.

### **Hypothesis 2**

The second hypothesis stated that follower perceptions of transformational leadership would be positively related to supervisor perceptions of leader effectiveness. If followers are happy and performing well, team performance is likely also strong. As such, supervisors would be more likely to rate these leaders as being effective. Hierarchical regression confirmed this finding thus demonstrating that followers and high-level leaders tend to share common perceptions about low-mid level leaders. That is important in that it shows a leader's boss and subordinates seem to be in agreement on whether someone is a good leader. Further, it was shown that transformational leadership mediates the relationship between leader demands-abilities fit and boss ratings of leader effectiveness. Thus, leader demands-abilities fit is positively related to (and potentially an antecedent of) transformational leadership, which in turn, is positively related to boss ratings of leader effectiveness. In sum, leader demands-abilities fit thus has both direct effects on boss ratings of leader effectiveness and also indirect effects on boss ratings of leader effectiveness through transformational leadership. This is an important addition to

the transformational leadership literature as it confirms the importance of leader situational fit in the transformational leadership process between leaders and followers.

### **Hypotheses 3a-3d**

The third set of hypotheses examined whether transformational leadership would be related to follower attitude (job satisfaction and intentions to quit) and performance (task and OCB) outcomes. It should be noted that while followers provided self-report data on their attitudes, the leaders provided the ratings of the followers' performance. These hypotheses were analyzed with HLM after partialling out the effects of the leader, follower, and organization-level control variables. While controlling for leader personality potentially partialled out relevant variance because of the relationship between leader personality and transformational leadership established in prior research, it was included to make the hypothesis testing more conservative. Transformational leadership was significantly related to follower job satisfaction even after removing the effects of the control variables. This finding is consistent with prior research, which demonstrated that transformational leadership leads followers to become more satisfied with their jobs. For the relationship between transformational leadership and follower intentions to quit, results supported the expected negative relationship even after partialling out the effects of control variables. This is also consistent with prior research that transformational leadership reduces the likelihood that followers will seek other jobs.

Transformational leadership was also significantly related to follower OCB even after partialling out the effects of all control variables. This finding is also consistent with prior research that showed transformational leaders motivate followers to perform voluntary or extra-role behaviors beyond just those in their job descriptions. In combination, these results confirm that transformational leadership is related to positive follower attitudes and to increased levels of follower OCB. The followers have higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of intentions to quit when their leader is transformational. The followers also perform more extra-role or voluntary behaviors

when their leader is transformational. These findings are consistent both with prior empirical research and with transformational leadership theory.

Results took an unexpected turn, however, when it came to analyzing the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance as the hypothesized positive relationship was not found. Transformational leadership had virtually no effect on follower task performance in the current study. One potential reason may have to do with the current state of the economy. As mentioned, many employees are having to perform several extra tasks to account for people that were victims of downsizing. With this being the case, they are likely not able to dedicate as much time to their own tasks as they once did but they are helping in other areas to make up for the downsized employees (perhaps this is why a significant positive effect of transformational leadership was still found on OCB but not on task performance). It would be interesting to conduct this same study during a time when the economy is strong to see how results may compare.

It is possible that in this study the impact of the economy on leaders and followers is acting as a neutralizer of leadership and thus suppressing the relationship between transformational leadership and task performance. As noted by substitutes for leadership theory, neutralizers are “characteristics which make it effectively impossible for relationships and/or task-oriented leadership to make a difference” (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; p. 395). This impact from the economy could ultimately be influencing situational factors such as training opportunities, task-provided feedback concerning accomplishments, organizational rewards not being within the leaders’ control, and also spatial distance between leaders and followers. All of these categories were identified by Kerr and Jermier as potential neutralizers of leadership.

#### **Hypotheses 4a-4h**

While the first three hypotheses have several expected findings, only three of the hypothesized moderators significantly interacted with transformational leadership to

impact follower outcomes. Both follower P-S fit and P-O fit were examined as moderators in the relationships between transformational leadership and the follower outcomes (job satisfaction, intentions to quit, task performance, and OCB). In each case, the fit perception was expected to moderate the relationship such that the relationship would be stronger as the level of follower fit increased. While these fit constructs have been considered as mediators in past research, it is important to note that at any given point in time, there will be variance in followers' perceptions of values congruence. As these differences will likely influence receptiveness to transformational leadership, I felt there was also a need to examine these fit constructs as moderators as that had not been done previously in the literature.

Of the proposed moderators, support was found for the interaction of transformational leadership and person-supervisor fit influencing intentions to quit (intentions to quit was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-supervisor fit), the interaction of transformational leadership and person-organization fit influencing intentions to quit (intentions to quit was negatively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-organization fit), and also for the interaction of transformational leadership and person-organization fit influencing task performance (task performance was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of person-organization fit). Each of these are discussed further below.

The interaction between follower P-S fit and transformational leadership on follower intentions to quit is an interesting example of how transformational leadership and follower fit with the situation may interact to influence follower attitudes. While intentions to quit were lower for those with high levels of P-S fit, the pattern of the interaction was not in the hypothesized direction. Intentions to quit was positively related to transformational leadership and the relationship was stronger for those with higher

levels of P-S fit. Because the direction of the interaction was unexpected, I further examined the effects of follower fit to try to determine what was occurring within this sample. To be conservative, I had tested the effects of both follower fit measures (P-O fit and P-S fit) simultaneously. Considering that transformational leadership was negatively related to intentions to quit in the main effects test, I was surprised to find the interaction positively related to intentions to quit for both high and low levels of P-S fit. Because P-S fit and P-O fit were correlated at .49, I tested each potential interaction individually to see if the unexpected pattern was a result of multi-collinearity. However, the direction of the interaction was in the same unexpected pattern regardless of whether P-S fit was considered on its own or in combination with P-O fit.

Follower P-O fit also moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and intentions to quit. This is another example of how transformational leadership and follower fit with the situation can influence follower attitudes. Consistent with the hypothesized form of the interaction, intentions to quit was negatively related to transformational leadership and the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of P-O fit. This suggests that perhaps combining a transformational leader with a high level of perceived values congruence with the organization will result in followers wanting to remain with the organization for the long-term in some capacity. This is likely to continue as long as the followers have a transformational leader who is able to tap into their sense of values alignment with the organization.

Follower P-O fit also moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and follower task performance. Task performance was positively related to transformational leadership and the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of P-O fit. This is an example of how transformational leadership and follower fit with the situation can interact to influence follower performance as well. These followers seem to identify with the organization, respond to the vision of the organization, see their own role in the vision, and view the organization's goals as their own. As a result, they

are more willing to improve performance for the good of the organization and are excited to be developed as future leaders within their respective organizations. As followers with high levels of P-O fit feel less strain (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), they will be more willing and able to improve performance for the good of the organization when challenged to exceed expectations. This is an important addition to the transformational leadership literature. Even though transformational leadership had no main effects results on task performance in the current study, it still led to higher follower task performance when combined with high levels of follower P-O fit.

Thus, both follower P-S fit and P-O fit show some moderating potential in certain situations in the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes. The fact that the current study considers follower fit as a moderator in the transformational leadership - follower outcomes relationships makes it unique. This extends current transformational leadership and fit research by showing that follower situational fit did indeed influence response to transformational leadership behaviors. Transformational leadership theory can thus be adapted to include the important effects of both leader and follower situational fit.

Four of the five other moderator tests showed significant main effects findings even though the moderating effects were not significant. Instead of making followers more receptive to transformational leadership, those tests demonstrated that follower fit seems to have a direct main effect on follower outcomes. The four moderator tests that yielded significant main effects findings were for P-S fit on job satisfaction, P-S fit on OCB, P-S fit on task performance, and also P-O fit on job satisfaction (the only moderator test which did not yield either a significant interaction or significant main effects was that of P-O fit on OCB). These findings confirm the importance of follower fit with the situation whether it is in a moderating capacity or from main effects. Either way, follower fit plays an important role in the transformational leadership - follower outcomes relationships and should have a more prevalent role as we go forward in

teaching transformational leadership to the doctoral students who will be our future researchers.

Taken together, the present moderator findings contribute to the transformational leadership and fit literatures by showing effects may change depending on follower perceptions of their own fit. While a closer examination of industry or organizational effects seems warranted, this study does show that transformational leadership is indeed more effective in certain situations than others. Likewise, some followers are more susceptible to the effects of transformational leaders than others, as shown by the follower moderators. Managers who demonstrate transformational leadership behaviors on a consistent basis can expect reduced intentions to quit and higher task performance from followers who perceive higher levels of fit with the organization.

### **Hypothesis 5**

There was no support for the model as an example of moderated mediation, primarily due to the fact that the significant independent variable (leader demands-abilities fit) was not related to the dependent variables (intentions to quit and task performance) from which evidence of moderation was supported. However, the relationships were such that leader demands-abilities fit and follower intentions to quit and task performance were indirectly related through their significant relationships with the linking mechanism of transformational leadership. This is an important contribution to the transformational leadership literature and also challenges future researchers to find other similar relationships as we continue to strive for a more complete understanding of what predicts transformational leadership.

### **Practical Implications**

While there were several important theoretical implications, this study also provides several important contributions for managers and organizations. For example, it appears that organizations should consider the P-J fit dimension of demands-abilities fit (and even needs-supplies fit to some extent) to better assess their own employees to

predict who may be effective leaders within the organization. This step appears to be important for organizations whether promoting from within or hiring those externally who have a strong fit with the leadership role they will fill. Too many times, organizations have the perspective that the best technicians will be the best leaders or managers. While that would be ideal, it is simply not realistic. Being an effective leader requires a different skill set. Many people are not comfortable with manager / leader responsibilities and many intentionally avoid positions with those duties because they do not feel they possess the skill set, patience, or confidence needed to excel. Therefore, it is foolish not to attempt to ensure that someone will fit with the leadership role prior to promoting them from within or hiring them from an external source.

Organizations should definitely be interested in identifying leaders who feel they possess the KSAs to fit with the duties of their leadership role. This is confirmed by the findings of the indirect items that assessed demands and abilities. When leaders are not overwhelmed by leadership demands but actually have the time to act transformational and demonstrate behaviors such as communicating a shared vision, inspiring followers to exceed expectations, and providing developmental opportunities, followers observe these behaviors and likely respond favorably to them. This is important to both managers and organizations as it appears that if leaders do not have quite as much leadership demand placed on them, they will actually act more transformational. Not only would it benefit leaders if there were not so much pressure on them to be leaders, but it would also lead to more positive follower outcomes as the leaders could take the time to provide more focused coaching / mentoring and provide challenging developmental opportunities.

Another important implication for managers and organizations comes from the findings that leaders' own bosses and direct reports appear to be in agreement on whether someone is a good leader (either transformational as assessed by followers or effective as assessed by bosses). Considering the bosses have the power to give raises and the followers have to report to these leaders on a daily basis, this agreement across levels is



very beneficial to organizations for all parties involved. It keeps them on the same page regarding who is and who is not a good leader. If bosses were rewarding leaders for being effective but followers thought these people were poor leaders, it could result in very negative consequences (such as low morale, low productivity, and high turnover) for the organizations. Along those same lines, it was shown that transformational leadership mediated the relationship between leader demands-abilities fit and boss ratings of leader effectiveness. Thus, leader demands-abilities fit not only has the potential to help show organizations who is more likely to demonstrate transformational leader behaviors, but it also has indirect effects on boss ratings of leader effectiveness as well.

The findings on follower fit also have practical importance for managers and organizations. As shown by the moderators, some followers are more susceptible to the effects of transformational leaders than others. Thus managers who demonstrate transformational leadership behaviors on a consistent basis can expect reduced intentions to quit and higher task performance from followers who perceive higher levels of fit with the organization. Follower P-S and P-O fit perceptions had either significant main effects or significant interactions with transformational leadership on follower outcomes in seven of the eight moderator tests analyzed. This shows how important the role of follower fit is in influencing follower attitudes and performance. In almost all situations examined, higher levels of follower fit were beneficial to the follower outcomes, which benefits the organizations as well. For example, combining a transformational leader with followers who have high levels of perceived values congruence with the organization results in followers wanting to remain with the organization. This is important for organizations to know so that they can not only attract the right employees but retain them as well. Followers with high levels of fit are more likely to identify with the organization, respond to the vision of the organization, and view the organization's goals as their own. As a result, they are more willing to improve performance for the good of the organization and are excited to be developed as future leaders within the organization.

With the continued chaos in organizations (corporate mergers, layoffs, shifting demographics, increased workplace diversity, continued advances in technology, and uncertainty about the economy), transformational leadership is likely to become and remain even more important in future years. Leaders will need to demonstrate confidence, provide direction, and motivate followers to remain engaged and committed to their organizations' objectives. Strong leaders are needed to push followers to perform beyond expectations and subsequently to achieve levels of excellence, sustain a positive culture, and motivate followers to become good leaders themselves. Whether companies choose to hire these leaders from other companies or develop them from within the organization, having transformational leaders is critical to an organization's survival in these challenging times, especially with job satisfaction numbers being at all-time lows nationwide (MSNBC, 2010). Although better leaders alone will not be enough to completely reverse that trend, the ability of transformational leaders to influence follower attitudes and motivate followers to perform beyond expectations is well supported in leadership research (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Followers need leaders they can believe in.

Overall, the present study contributes to the transformational leadership and fit literatures by demonstrating the effects of both leader and follower fit. In terms of potentially predicting transformational leadership, leader demands-abilities fit is of significant importance and should be considered as a likely antecedent. For followers, the combination of follower P-O fit with a transformational leader will result in higher levels of task performance and lower intentions to quit.

### **Limitations**

Although this study possesses several strengths, there are many limitations as well. First, while demands-abilities fit holds strong potential as a predictor of transformational leadership, these results should be interpreted with caution as it is not possible to infer strong causality or directionality from cross-sectional research. With

that being said though, theory supports the causal direction suggested by the hypothesized model. Nevertheless, longitudinal or experimental research is needed in the future to replicate these findings and examine these possibilities further.

Second, there is heavy reliance on follower ratings for several of the measures so results may be inflated by common source bias. Followers provided ratings of transformational leadership, their own fit perceptions, and their own attitudes. However with that being said, common source bias is rarely strong enough to invalidate research findings (Doty & Glick, 1998) and is not as much of an issue in moderator studies as it is in mediator studies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Additionally, steps were taken to minimize common source bias by having follower outcomes rated by both leaders (performance) and followers (attitudes) and by having perceptions of leader effectiveness come from the leaders' bosses rather than from the followers who provided the transformational leadership ratings.

Third, because the study used data from 10 organizations, there is a fairly small number of leaders from each organization. At the same time, the large sample and multi-organization focus should give the study increased external validity and more generalizability. Fourth, the ICC(2) figure for transformational leadership (0.63) is a bit lower than what is considered ideal, however, that is a function of group size. While group size is small in the current study (5.97), there is a large number of groups being represented which adds to the credibility of the study. Similarly, the use of HLM with only approximately 6 followers per group could also be called into question as it was originally developed for groups with 30 or more people. As mentioned though, Hofmann (1997, p. 740) stated that "if a large number of groups is present, then the number of observations required per group is reduced (e.g., 150 groups requires only five persons per group to obtain a power estimate of .90)".

Next is the unknown impact the current state of the economy may have had on the study. With job satisfaction at historical lows, many people feeling there is no loyalty in

the workplace anymore, employees having to perform multiple positions to off-set victims of downsizing, and managers not having as much time to focus on being transformational, it is difficult to know for certain how the results may have differed in a strong economy.

Last, while it is possible that the use of direct measures of perceived fit could have also been an issue as they are related to affect/satisfaction (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006) and can suffer from common source bias because both components are evaluated by the same source, that likely did not contribute to the non-significant effect of leader P-O fit on transformational leadership. These types of fit items are the most commonly used (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010), and as noted by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005, p. 318), “the differences in direct and indirect measures of fit are greatest in pre-entry context.”

### **Future Research**

The current study raises many questions and ideas to be considered in future research as we continue to seek valuable exploration in leadership research. Many of these items have been discussed earlier in this chapter. For example, while leader demands-abilities fit (and needs-supplies fit to some extent) appears to be a potential antecedent of transformational leadership due to the positive relationship between them, researchers should continue to seek other situational factors (and especially other capacity variables) that may be predictive of transformational leadership to gain a more complete picture of what makes someone transformational. For that reason, researchers should also continue to examine other salient antecedent variables to be able to explain greater variance. A few possibilities might include embeddedness, perceived organizational support, self-awareness, motivation to learn, adaptability, resiliency, intrinsic motivation, proactivity, emotion recognition, and core self-evaluations. The impact of these and other variables should be pursued over time via longitudinal studies. Researchers should also investigate further to explore why affective-identity motivation

to lead and P-O fit were not predictive of transformational leadership in the current study and whether they may be predictive of other types of leadership.

Future research should consider the role of the current state of the economy on the findings of this study and perhaps attempt to replicate them during more stable economic times. The economy seems to have a potential impact on why transformational leadership did not result in higher levels of follower task performance. It is possible that numerous downsizings have led to people performing more duties than normal and thus they are not performing their own jobs as well as they may have in the past.

In terms of the follower moderator findings, while only three of the moderator tests resulted in significant interactions, this remains a plausible area for future researchers to continue to examine further. The three significant interactions and main effects findings from four of the other follower fit relationships should provide ample reason for researchers to consider these or other situational fit dimensions when conducting research on outcomes of transformational leadership. Future research should also attempt to understand the reason for the unexpected interaction between P-S fit and transformational leadership on intentions to quit. While the direct effects of both P-S fit and transformational leadership on intentions to quit were negative as expected, the interaction between them led to a positive relationship with intentions to quit.

While the current study narrowly focused on transformational leadership, future research should also consider other similar leadership frameworks, such as servant leadership or authentic leadership. We should also continue to examine what predicts the other types of leadership from the Full Range Model (i.e., transactional, management by exception, and laissez faire).

Future research should also consider taking into account others' perceptions of leaders via 360-degree feedback, such as co-workers, peers, and customers. However, we also need to consider leaders' own perceptions of their leadership behaviors rather than just relying on follower ratings; perhaps followers just do not recognize certain

transformational leadership behaviors and some leaders are actually more transformational than we give them credit for.

We also need to strive for inclusion of all followers when conducting leadership research. We will only learn the full picture if all relevant sources of data are utilized. At a minimum, we need more random selection of followers but preferably including all of them to eliminate the possibility of selection bias on the part of leaders. At the very least, we need to control for and assess response bias so antecedent research is more credible. In the present study, HR provided a complete list of followers for the participating leaders from the majority of the organizations. In some companies, leaders were asked to send me lists of all of their direct reports. In those cases, it is possible that selection bias was present if those leaders excluded certain followers who they felt would give them lower leadership ratings.

There should also be additional focus on other contextual characteristics at the leader, follower, and organizational levels and more focus on other potential follower moderators. For example, we still need to examine follower personality traits to see how they impact response to leadership. This could be the Big Five but also more narrow personality traits such as proactive personality, core self-evaluations, and resiliency. For some of these personality variables, arguments could likely be made in either direction depending on the trait. For example, some researchers may argue that follower conscientiousness is more likely to moderate the transformational leadership-follower outcomes relationships such that the higher the level of conscientiousness, the stronger the relationship. This could be because their hard-working and responsible nature will make them more receptive to transformational leaders who challenge them to go above and beyond. Other researchers may argue that transformational leaders may not be able to coax much more effort out of some conscientious individuals as they already work hard and practice their own self-development techniques, meaning that they will perform well even without a transformational leader. Either way, these are interesting questions

that should be further examined. Other potential follower moderators could include P-J fit (needs-supplies and demands-abilities), trust, justice, perceived organizational and supervisor support, empowerment, and frequency of communication with supervisors.

Another avenue for future research is to use qualitative methods and ask more open-ended questions to give followers the ability to explain answers and to collect more rich data. Many followers emailed me during data collection to say there were places that they did not feel a number-rating was adequate to explain their answers and wanted a chance to provide more reasoning for the answers they provided.

Finally, there are other random questions yet to examine. For example, does leader fit lead to follower fit and does transformational leadership (because of the significant time and energy invested) result in leader burnout or work-family conflict due to role accumulation? We often focus only on the positive side of transformational leadership, however it is important to determine whether there are also negative outcomes on the leaders themselves so that we can avoid unethical behaviors and abusive supervision.

### **Conclusion**

The primary purpose of this study was to answer research questions regarding how leader situational fit perceptions influence their transformational leadership behaviors and how follower fit perceptions interact with transformational leadership to influence their response to those leaders. These research questions are of importance as we strive to understand the impact of fit on the transformational leadership process between leaders and followers. In this study, I found that leader demands-abilities fit has a positive relationship with transformational leadership. Thus, fit of leaders to the situation influences the extent to which transformational leader behaviors are exhibited. Of the proposed moderators, support was found for the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-S fit influencing intentions to quit (however, intentions to quit was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for

those with higher levels of P-S fit), the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit influencing intentions to quit (intentions to quit was negatively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of P-O fit), and also for the interaction of transformational leadership and follower P-O fit influencing task performance (task performance was positively related to transformational leadership; the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of P-O fit). In terms of big picture findings, the present study contributes to the transformational leadership and fit literatures by demonstrating the effects of both leader and follower fit. Leader demands-abilities fit should be considered as a potential antecedent of transformational leadership, whereas combining follower P-O fit with a transformational leader will result in higher levels of follower task performance and lower intentions to quit. While these are important findings, the current study also raises many new questions as well. Hopefully, these results will stimulate further investigation and lead future researchers to build on the findings of this study to develop a better understanding of these relationships. More research is needed as we continue to explore new ways to ignite the fire between transformational leaders and their followers.



## REFERENCES

- Adkins, C. L., Russell, C. J., & Werbel, J. D. (1994). Judgments of fit in the selection process: The role of work value congruence. *Personnel Psychology, 47*, 605-623.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin, 84*, 888-918.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 411-423.
- Ansoff, H. I., & Sullivan, P. A. (1991). Strategic responses to environmental turbulence. In R. H. Kidman & I. Kidman (Eds.), *Making organizations competitive: Enhancing networks and relationships across traditional boundaries* (pp. 21-50). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Antonakis, J., & Dietz, J. (2011). Looking for validity or testing it? The perils of stepwise regression, extreme-scores analysis, heteroscedasticity, and measurement error. *Personality and Individual Differences, 50*, 409-415.
- Arthur, W., Jr., Bell, S. T., Villado, A. J., & Doverspike, D. (2006). The use of person-organization fit in employment decision making: An assessment of its criterion-related validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 786-801.
- Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. *Journal of Management, 34*, 325-374.
- Atkins, P. W. B., & Wood, R. E. (2002). Self- versus others' ratings as predictors of assessment center ratings: Validation evidence for 360-degree feedback programs. *Personnel Psychology, 55*, 871-904.
- Atwater, L., & Dionne, S. (2007). A process model of leader-follower fit. In C. Ostroff & T. A. Judge (Eds.), *Perspectives on organizational fit* (pp. 183-208). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Atwater, L. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1993). Personal attributes as predictors of superiors' and subordinates' perceptions of military academy leadership. *Human Relations, 46*, 645-668.
- Avolio, B. J. (1994). The "natural": Some antecedents to transformational leadership. *International Journal of Public Administration, 17*, 1559-1581.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1991). *The full range of leadership development: Basic and advanced manuals*. Binghamton, NY: Bass, Avolio, & Associates.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1995). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire technical report*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. J. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.

- Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology, 60*, 421-449.
- Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*, 951-968.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A., & Locke, E. A. (2003). Negative self-efficacy and goal effects revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 87-99.
- Barbuto, J. E., Jr. (2005). Motivation and transactional, charismatic, and transformational leadership: A test of antecedents. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*, 26-40.
- Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The emotional intelligence of transformational leaders: A field study of elected officials. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 146*, 51-64.
- Barbuto, J. E., Fritz, S. M., Matkin, G. S., & Marx, D. B. (2007). Effects of gender, education, and age upon leaders' use of influence tactics and full range leadership behaviors. *Sex Roles, 56*, 71-83.
- Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 827-832.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, K. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*, 1-26.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist, 52*, 130-139.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development. In R. W. Woodman & W. A. Passmore (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development* (Vol. 4, pp. 231-272). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1997). *Full range model of leadership development: Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. L., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 207-218.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 181-217.
- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 103-118.
- Bauer, D. J., Preacher, K. J., & Gil, K. M. (2006). Conceptualizing and testing random indirect effects and moderated mediation in multilevel models: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 11*, 142-163.
- Becker, T. E. (2005). Potential problems in the statistical control of variables in organizational research: A qualitative analysis with recommendations. *Organizational Research Methods, 8*, 274-289.
- Berman, F. E., & Miner, J. B. (1985). Motivation to manage at the top executive level: A test of the hierarchic role-motivation theory. *Personnel Psychology, 38*, 377-391.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations* (pp. 349-381). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bommer, W. H., Rich, G. A., & Rubin, R. S. (2005). Changing attitudes about change: Longitudinal effects of transformational leader behavior on employee cynicism about organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 733-753.
- Bommer, W. H., Rubin, R. S., & Baldwin, T. T. (2004). Setting the stage for effective leadership: Antecedents of transformational leader behavior. *Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 195-210.
- Bono, J. E., & Anderson, M. H. (2005). The advice and influence networks of transformational leaders. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 1306-1314.
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 901-910.
- Bretz, R. D., Ash, R. A., & Dreher, G. F. (1989). Do people make the place? An examination of the attraction-selection-attrition hypothesis. *Personnel Psychology, 42*, 561-581.

- Brief, A. P. (1998). *Attitudes in and around organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brown, M. E., & Trevino, L. K. (2006). Socialized charismatic leadership, values congruence, and deviance in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 954-962.
- Brown, M. E., & Trevino, L. K. (2009). Leader-follower values congruence: Are socialized charismatic leaders better able to achieve it? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 478-490.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K.A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136-162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bryk, A. S., & Raudenbush, S. W. (1992). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Buchanan, T., Johnson, J. A., & Goldberg, L. R. (2005). Implementing a five-factor personality inventory for use on the internet. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 21*, 116-128.
- Buford, B. A. (2001). *Management effectiveness, personality, leadership, and emotional intelligence: A study of the validity evidence of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I)*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Iowa, Iowa City.
- Burbach, M. E. (2004). *Testing the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range leadership as moderated by cognitive style and self-concept*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Cable, D. M., & DeRue, D. S. (2002). The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 875-884.
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1994). Pay preferences and job search decisions: A person-organization fit perspective. *Personnel Psychology, 47*, 317-348.
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person-organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 67*, 294-311.
- Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, & F. J. Pirozzolo (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership* (pp. 54-74). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Chan, K-Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: Understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 481-498.
- Chatman, J. A. (1989). Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 333-349.
- Chatman, J. A. (1991). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 36*, 459-484.

- Chen, C., & Chiu, S. (2008). An integrative model linking supervisor support and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Psychology, 23*, 1-10.
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 331-346.
- Church, A. H., & Waclawski, J. (1998). The relationship between individual personality orientation and executive leadership behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 71*, 99-125.
- Cohen, J., & Cohen, P. (1983). *Applied multiple regression/correlational analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Colbert, A. E. (2004). *Understanding the effects of transformational leadership: The mediating role of leader-follower value congruence*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Iowa, Iowa City.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review, 12*, 637-647.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organization effectiveness*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Costa, P. T., Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor (NEO-FFI) Inventory Professional Manual*. Odessa, FL: PAR.
- Crant, J. M., & Bateman, T. S. (2000). Charismatic leadership viewed from above: The impact of proactive personality. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 63-75.
- D'Alessio, F. A. (2006). *The influence of personality, critical thinking, and emotional intelligence attributes in Peruvian managers' leadership*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix.
- Day, D. V., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. (2009). *An integrative approach to leader development: Connecting adult development, identity, and expertise*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Day, D. V., Zaccaro, S. J., & Halpin, S. M. (2004). *Leader development for transforming organizations: Growing leaders for tomorrow*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- DeGroot, T., Kiker, D. S., & Cross, T. C. (2000). A meta-analysis to review organizational outcomes related to charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 17*, 356-371.
- DeHoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2009). Neuroticism and locus of control as moderators of the relationships of charismatic and autocratic leadership with burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 1058-1067.
- Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*, 417-440.

- Doty, D. H., & Glick, W. H. (1998). Common methods bias: Does common methods variance really bias results? *Organizational Research Methods, 1*, 374-406.
- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*, 735-744.
- Dvir, T., & Shamir, B. (2003). Follower developmental characteristics as predicting transformational leadership: A longitudinal field study. *Leadership Quarterly, 14*, 327-344.
- Dubinsky, A. J., Yammarino, F. J., & Jolson, M. A. (1995). An examination of linkages between personal characteristics and dimensions of transformational leadership. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 9*, 315-335.
- Duehr, E. E. (2006). *Personality, gender, and transformational leadership: Investigating differential prediction for male and female leaders*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.
- Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*, 569-591.
- Eden, D., & Leviatan, U. (1975). Implicit leadership theories as a determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 736-741.
- Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person-job fit: A conceptual integration, literature review, and methodological critique. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 6; pp. 283-357). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Edwards, J. R. (1994). The study of congruence in organizational behavior research: Critique and a proposed alternative. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 58*, 51-100 (erratum, 58, 323-325).
- Edwards, J. R. (1995). Alternatives to difference scores as dependent variables in the study of congruence in organizational research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 64*, 307-324.
- Edwards, J. R., Cable, D. M., Williamson, I. O., Lambert, L. S., & Shipp, A. J. (2006). The phenomenology of fit: Linking the person and environment to the subjective experience of person-environment fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 802-827.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods, 12*, 1-22.
- Edwards, J. R., & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organizational research. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*, 1577-1613.

- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (1999). Work and family stress and well-being: An Examination of person-environment fit in the work and family domains. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 77, 85-129.
- Edwards, J. R., & Shipp, A. J. (2007). The relationship between person-environment fit and outcomes: An integrative theoretical framework. In C. Ostroff & T. A. Judge (Eds.), *Perspectives on organizational fit* (pp. 209-258). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Klein, K. J. (2001). Predicting followers' preferences for charismatic leadership: The influence of follower values and personality. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 153-179.
- Eid, J., Johnsen, B. H., Bartone, P. T., & Nissestad, O. A. (2008). Growing transformational leaders: Exploring the role of personality hardiness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 29, 4-23.
- Erdogan, B., & Enders, J. (2007). Support from the top: Supervisors' perceived organizational support as a moderator of leader-member exchange to satisfaction and performance relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 321-330.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior*. Don Mills, Ontario Canada: Addison-Wesley.
- French, J. R. P., Jr., Rogers, W., & Cobb, S. (1974). Adjustment as person-environment fit. In G. V. Coelho, D. A. Hamburg, & J. E. Adams (Eds.), *Coping and adaptation* (pp. 316-333). New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Fuller, J. B., Patterson, C. E. P., Hester, K., & Stringer, D. Y. (1996). A quantitative review of research on charismatic leadership. *Psychological Reports*, 78, 271-287.
- Gagne, M., & Deci, E. L. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 331-362.
- Gavin, M., & Hoffman, D. (2002). Using hierarchical linear modeling to investigate the moderating influence of leadership climate. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 15-33.
- Glick, W. H. (1985). Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 601-616.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48, 26-34.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1999). A broad-bandwidth, public domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models. In I. Mervielde, I. Deary, F. De Fruyt, & F. Ostendorf (Eds.), *Personality psychology in Europe* (Vol. 7; pp. 7-28). Tilburg, The Netherlands: Tilburg University Press.
- 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. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 219-247.

- Hartsfield, M. K. (2003). *The internal dynamics of transformational leadership: Effects of spirituality, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.
- Hautala, T. (2006). The relationship between personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Management Development, 25*, 777-794.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist, 55*, 1217-1230.
- Hofmann, D. A. (1997). An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management, 23*, 723-744.
- Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management, 24*, 623-641.
- Hofmann, D. A., Griffin, M. A., & Gavin, M. B. (2000). In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski, (Eds.), *Multilevel theory research and methods in organizations* (pp. 467-511). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. (2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person-organization fit and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*, 389-399.
- Hong, Y. (2005). *Motivation to lead: Antecedents and resulting leader emergence*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Saint Mary's University (Canada).
- House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*, 321-338.
- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge* (pp. 189-207). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- House, R. J. (1995). Leadership in the twenty-first century: A speculative inquiry. In A. Howard (Ed.), *The changing nature of work* (pp. 411-450). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 891-902.
- Howell, J. M., & Higgins, C. A. (1990). Champions of technological innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 35*, 317-341.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review, 30*, 96-112.



- Hoyle, R. H., & Panter, A. T. (1995). Writing about structural equation models. In R.H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 158-176). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hrinda, A. A. (2007). *United States Coast Guard transformational leaders use of positive psychological capacities*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.
- Huang, M-P., Cheng, B-S., & Chou, L-F. (2005). Fitting in organizational values: The mediating role of person-organization fit between CEO charismatic leadership and employee outcomes. *International Journal of Manpower*, 26, 35-49.
- Jones, G. R., & George, J. M. (1998). The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 531-546.
- Joreskog, K., & Sorbom, D. (1993). *LISREL User's Reference Guide*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95, 54-78.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 751-765.
- Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 261-271.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core self-evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 17-34.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 755-768.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 949-964.
- Jung, D., Yammarino, F. J., & Lee, J. K. (2009). Moderating role of subordinates' attitudes on transformational leadership and effectiveness: A multi-cultural and multi-level perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 586-603.
- Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. (2007). Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32, 500-528.
- Keller, R. T. (2006). Transformational leadership, initiating structure, and substitutes for leadership: A longitudinal study of research and development project team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 202-210.

- Keller, T. (1999). Images of the familiar: Individual differences and implicit leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly*, *10*, 580-607.
- Kelley, R. E. (1988). In praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review*, *66*, 142-148.
- Kerr, S. J., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitute for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *22*, 375-403.
- Klein, K. J., & House, R. J. (1995). On fire: Charismatic leadership and levels of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly*, *6*, 183-198.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). The Guilford Press, NY: New York.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990). *A force for change: How leadership differs from management*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Koys, D. J., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1991). Inductive measures of psychological climate. *Human Relations*, *44*, 265-285.
- Krishnan, V. R. (1996). *Value systems of transformational leaders, and the relationship between transformational leadership and value system congruence of subordinates*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University, Philadelphia, PA.
- Krishnan, V. R. (2002). Transformational leadership and value system congruence. *International Journal of Value-based Management*, *15*(1), 19-33.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, *49*, 1-49.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Guay, R. P. (2010). Person-environment fit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Volume 3, pp. 3-50). Washington, DC: APA.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, *58*, 281-342.
- Landau, J., & Hammer, T. H. (1986). Clerical employees' perceptions of intraorganizational career opportunities. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*, 385-404.
- Lee, K. & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*, 157-164.
- Lee, P. C. (2005). *Cognition and affect in leader behavior: The effects of spirituality, psychological empowerment, and emotional intelligence on the motivation to lead*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.

- Leung, S. L., & Bozionelos, N. (2004). Five-factor model traits and the prototypical image of the effective leader in the Confucian culture. *Employee Relations*, 26, 62-71.
- Lim, B-C., & Ployhart, R. E. (2004). Transformational leadership: Relations to the five-factor model and team performance in typical and maximum contexts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 610-621.
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297-1349). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78, 167-203.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership. A meta-analytic review. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385-425.
- Martin, C. A., & Bush, A. J. (2006). Psychological climate, empowerment, leadership style, and customer-oriented selling: An analysis of the sales manager - salesperson dyad. *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, 34, 419-438.
- Martin, R., & Epitropaki, O. (2001). Role of organizational identification on implicit leadership theories (ILTs), transformational leadership and work attitudes. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations*, 4, 247-262.
- Masterson, S. S. (2001). A trickle-down model of organizational justice: Relating employees' and customers' perceptions of and reactions to fairness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 594-604.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Taylor, S. R. (2006). Clarifying conditions and decision points for mediational type inferences in organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 1031-1056.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267-298.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion*, 3, 97-105.
- McClelland, D. C., & Burnham, D. H. (1976). Power is the great motivator. *Harvard Business Review*, 54, 100-110.

- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the five-factor model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 51-87). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Meglino, B. M., & Ravlin, E. C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management*, *24*, 351-389.
- Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*, 424-432.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*, 61-89.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *61*, 20-52.
- Miner, J. B. (1974). Motivation to manage among women: Studies of business managers and educational administrators. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *5*, 197-208.
- Miner, J. B. (1976). Levels of motivation to manage among personnel and industrial relations managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *61*, 419-427.
- Miner, J. B. (1978). Twenty years of research on role-motivation theory of managerial effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, *31*, 739-760.
- Miner, J. B., & Crane, D. P. (1981). Motivation to manage and the manifestation of a managerial orientation in career planning. *Academy of Management Journal*, *24*, 626-633.
- Mitchell, T. R., & Daniels, D. (2003). Motivation. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology, volume twelve: Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 225-254). New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Morrison, E. W. (1994). Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*, 1543-1567.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *14*, 224-247.
- MSNBC.com. (2010, January 5). *Americans' job satisfaction falls to record low: Economists warn discontent could stifle innovation, hurt U.S. productivity*.
- Muchinsky, P. M., & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *31*, 268-277.

- Norman, S. M. (2006). *The role of trust: Implications for psychological capital and authentic leadership*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
- Northouse, P. G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Offerman, L. R., Kennedy, J. K., & Wirtz, P. W. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *Leadership Quarterly*, 5, 43-58.
- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 775-802.
- Osborne, J. W. (2000). Advantages of hierarchical linear modeling. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 7(1). Retrieved from <http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=1>.
- Ostroff, C., & Schmitt, N. (1993). Configurations of organizational effectiveness and efficiency. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 1345-1361.
- Patterson, M. G., West, M. A., Shackleton, V. J., Dawson, J. F., Lawthom, R., Maitlis, S., Robinson, D. L., & Wallace, A. M. (2005). Validating the organizational climate measure: Links to managerial practices, productivity, and innovation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 379-408.
- Peterson, S. J., Walumbwa, F. O., Byron, K., & Myrowitz, J. (2009). CEO positive psychological traits, transformational leadership, and firm performance in high-technology start-up and established firms. *Journal of Management*, 35, 348-368.
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 327-340.
- Pillai, R., & Meindl, J. R. (1998). Context and charisma: A "meso" level examination of the relationship of organic structure, collectivism, and crisis to charismatic leadership. *Journal of Management*, 24, 643-671.
- Ployhart, R. E., Lim, B-C., & Chan, K-Y. (2001). Exploring relations between typical and maximum performance ratings and the five factor model of personality. *Personnel Psychology*, 54, 809-843.
- Ployhart, R. E., Schneider, B., & Schmitt, N. (2006). *Staffing organizations: Contemporary practice and theory*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Meta-analysis of the relationships between Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership and employee job attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 380-399.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method bias in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.

- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1*, 107-142.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bacharach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26*, 513-563.
- Popper, M., & Mayseless, O. (2007). The building blocks of leader development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 28*, 664-684.
- Pratt, M. G. (1998). To be or not to be? Central questions in organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations: Building theory through conversations* (pp. 171-207). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 42*, 185-227.
- Preacher, K. J., Zyphur, M. J., & Zhang, Z. (2010). Testing multilevel mediation in the social sciences: A complete theoretical and empirical framework. *Psychological Methods, 15*, 209-233.
- Quigley, N. R. (2003). *The relationship between leader core self-evaluations, team feedback, leader efficacy, transformational leadership, team efficacy, team goals, team action and transition processes, and team performance*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, College Park.
- Resick, C. J., Whitman, D. S., & Weingarden, S. M. (2009). The bright-side and the dark-side of CEO personality: Examining core self-evaluations, narcissism, transformational leadership, and strategic influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 1365-1381.
- Roberts, N. C., & Bradley, R. T. (1988). Limits of charisma. In J. A. Conger & R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 253-275). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Ross, S. M., & Offermann, L. R. (1997). Transformational leaders: Measurement of personality attributes and work group performance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*, 1078-1086.
- Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. (2005). Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*, 845-858.
- Rynes, S. L., Tolbert, P. S., & Strausser, P. G. (1988). Aspirations to manage: A comparison of engineering students and working engineers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 32*, 239-253.

- Sanchez, S. A. (2003). *The relationship among motivation to lead, cognitive ability, and personality*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Our Lady of the Lake University, San Antonio, TX.
- 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.
- Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S. L., Zhou, X., & DeChurch, L. A. (2006). An investigation of path-goal and transformational leadership theory predictions at the individual level of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*, 21-38.
- Schulte, M. J. (2003). *Emotional intelligence: A predictive or descriptive construct in ascertaining leadership style or a new name for old knowledge?* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Our Lady of the Lake University, San Antonio, TX.
- Seo, M., Jin, S., & Shapiro, D. L. (2008, August). *Do happy leaders lead better? Affective and attitudinal antecedents of transformational leadership behavior*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Conference, Anaheim, CA.
- Shamir B. (2007). From passive recipients to active coproducers: Followers' roles in the leadership process. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. C. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl* (pp. ix-xxxix). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science, 4*, 577-594.
- Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M. (1998). Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*, 387-409.
- Shanock, L. R., & Eisenberger, R. (2006). When supervisors feel supported: Relationships with subordinates' perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 689-695.
- Shao, L., & Webber, S. (2006). A cross-cultural test of the 'five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership'. *Journal of Business Research, 59*, 936-944.
- Shivers-Blackwell, S. (2006). The influence of perceptions of organizational structure and culture on leadership role requirements: The moderating impact of locus of control and self-monitoring. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 12*, 27-49.
- Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). (2009). Small and medium-sized businesses and the recession. *Workplace Visions, 3*. Available from <http://www.shrm.org/Research/FutureWorkplaceTrends/Documents/09-0520WorkplaceVisions-MemberMailing-FINAL.pdf>

- Sosik, J. J. (2005). The role of personal values in the charismatic leadership of corporate managers: A model and preliminary field study. *Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 221-244.
- Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. I. (2010). *Full range leadership development: Pathways for people, profits, and planet*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Sosik, J. J., & Megerian, L. E. (1999). Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance. *Group & Organization Management, 24*, 367-390.
- Sosik, J. J., Potosky, D., & Jung, D. I. (2002). Adaptive self-regulation: Meeting others' expectations of leadership and performance. *Journal of Social Psychology, 142*, 211-232.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In J. C. Turner & H. Giles (Eds.), *Intergroup behaviour* (pp. 66-101). Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
- Tepper, B. J., & Taylor, E. C. (2003). Relationships among supervisors' and subordinates' procedural justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Academy of Management Journal, 46*, 97-105.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review, 15*, 666-681.
- Towler, A. (2005). Charismatic leadership development: Role of parental attachment style and parental psychological control. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 11*, 15-25.
- Triandis, H. C. (1980). Value, attitudes and interpersonal behavior. In M. M. Page (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation, beliefs, attitude and values* (Vol. 1, pp. 195-259). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska.
- Turner, J. C., & Haslam, S. A. (2001). Social identity, organizations, and leadership. In M. Turner (Ed.), *Groups at work* (pp. 25-42). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Turner, N., Barling, J., Epitropaki, O., Butcher, V., & Milner, C. (2002). Transformational leadership and moral reasoning. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 304-311.
- Vandenberghe, C., Stordeur, S., & D'hoore, W. (2002). Transactional and transformational leadership in nursing: Structural validity and substantive relationships. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 18*, 16-29.
- VanIddekinge, C. H., Ferris, G. R., & Heffner, T. S. (2009). Test of a multistage model of distal and proximal antecedents of leader performance. *Personnel Psychology, 62*, 463-495.
- Vecchio, R. P., Justin, J. E., & Pearce, C. L. (2008). The utility of transactional and transformational leadership for predicting performance and satisfaction within a path-goal theory framework. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, 81*, 71-82.



- Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63*, 473-489.
- Walter, F., & Bruch, H. (2007). Investigating the emotional basis of charismatic leadership: The role of leaders' positive mood and emotional intelligence. In C. E. J. Hartel, N. M. Ashkanasy, & W. J. Zerbe (Eds.), *Research on emotion in organizations* (Vol. 3): Functionality, intentionality, and morality (pp. 55-85). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier.
- Walter, F., & Bruch, H. (2009). An affective events model of charismatic leadership behavior: A review, theoretical integration, and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 35*, 1428-1452.
- Walumbwa, F. O., & Lawler, J. J. (2003). Building effective organizations: Transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviours in three emerging economies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*, 1083-1101.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Lawler, J. J., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). Leadership, individual differences, and work-related attitudes: A cross-culture investigation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 56*, 212-230.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Lawler, J. J., Avolio, B. J., Wang, P., & Shi, K. (2005). Transformational leadership and work-related attitudes: The moderating effects of collective and self-efficacy across cultures. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*, 2-16.
- Wang, G., Oh, I-S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2009, August). *Transformational leadership and follower performance: A meta-analytic review*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting for the Academy of Management, Chicago, IL.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1997). Extraversion and its positive emotional core. In R. Hogan, J. A. Johnson, & S. R. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 767-793). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization* (T. Parsons, Trans.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Weierter, S. J. M. (1997). Who wants to play "follow the leader?" A theory of charismatic relationships based on routinized charisma and follower characteristics. *Leadership Quarterly, 8*, 171-193.
- Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*, 601-617.
- Wofford, J. C., Whittington, J. L., & Goodwin, V. L. (2001). Follower motive patterns as situational moderators for transformational leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13*, 196-211.

- Yammarino, F. J., Dionne, S. D., Chun, J. U., & Dansereau, F. (2005). Leadership and levels of analysis: A state-of-the-science review. *Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 879-919.
- Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 285-305.
- Yun, S., Cox, J., & Sims, H. P., Jr. (2006). The forgotten follower: A contingency model of leadership and follower self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*, 374-388.
- Zhang, Z., Zyphur, M. J., & Preacher, K. J. (2009). Testing multilevel mediation using hierarchical linear models. *Organizational Research Methods, 12*, 695-719.
- Zhu, W., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2009). Moderating role of follower characteristics with transformational leadership and follower work engagement. *Group & Organization Management, 34*, 590-619.

APPENDIX  
DISSERTATION SURVEY ITEMS

### Leader Survey 1 Items

**Section 1 – Your Leadership Behaviors:** The following items describe your leadership behaviors as you perceive them. Please assess the degree to which you feel each item describes your leadership behaviors using the following scale.

0 = not at all

4 = frequently, if not always

Only sample items for the MLQ-5x are provided here due to MLQ copyright restrictions. Sample items include:

1. I instill pride in others for being associated with me. (idealized influence - attributed)
2. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. (idealized influence - behavior)
3. I talk optimistically about the future. (inspirational motivation)
4. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. (intellectual stimulation)
5. I spend time teaching and coaching. (individualized consideration)

Copyright: Mind Garden - MLQ-5x

**Section 2 – Your Attitudes about Your Job and the Organization:** The following items assess your attitudes about your job and the organization in which you work. Please assess the degree to which you agree or disagree with each item using the following scale.

1 = strongly disagree

7 = strongly agree

1. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group
2. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others (R)
3. I am definitely not a leader by nature (R)
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others
5. I believe that I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader (R)
6. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in
7. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader (R)
8. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in
9. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group
10. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked
11. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members
12. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others

13. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked
14. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can
15. It is not right to decline leadership roles
16. It is an honor and privilege to be asked to lead
17. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them
18. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me (R)

1 = not at all  
5 = completely

1. The things that I value in life are similar to the things that my organization values
  2. My personal values match my organization's values and ideals
  3. My organization's values provide a good fit with the things that I value
- 
1. There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job
  2. The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job
  3. The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job
- 
1. We need to change the way we do some things in my work unit.
  2. We need to improve the way we operate in my work unit.
  3. We need to change the operations in my work unit to help the organization become more effective.
  4. New ideas are readily accepted here.
  5. The company is quick to respond when changes need to be made.
  6. Managers here are quick to spot the need to do things differently.
  7. The organization is very flexible; it can quickly change procedures to meet new conditions and solve problems as they arise.
  8. People in this organization are always searching for new ways of looking at problems.
  9. Assistance in developing new ideas is readily available.
- 
1. The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills
  2. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job
  3. My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me
  4. To what degree do you believe your job requires planning and budgeting (such as establishing agendas, setting timetables, or allocating resources)?

5. To what degree do you believe your job requires organizing and staffing (such as providing structure, hiring employees, or establishing procedures)?
6. To what degree do you believe your job requires controlling and problem solving (such as developing incentives, creating solutions, or taking corrective action)?
7. To what degree do you believe your job requires establishing direction (such as creating a vision, clarifying the big picture, or setting strategies)?
8. To what degree do you believe your job requires aligning people (such as communicating goals, seeking commitment, or building teams)?
9. To what degree do you believe your job requires motivating and inspiring (such as energizing employees, empowering subordinates, or satisfying unmet needs)?
10. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to plan and budget (such as establishing agendas, setting timetables, or allocating resources)?
11. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to organize and staff (such as providing structure, hiring employees, or establishing procedures)?
12. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to control and problem solve (such as developing incentives, creating solutions, or taking corrective action)?
13. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to establish direction (such as creating a vision, clarifying the big picture, or setting strategies)?
14. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to align people (such as communicating goals, seeking commitment, or building teams)?
15. To what degree do you think you possess the skills and abilities to motivate and inspire (such as energizing employees, empowering subordinates, or satisfying unmet needs)?

**Section 3 – Your Personality Traits:** The following items describe your personality traits as you perceive them. Please assess the degree to which you feel each item describes your personality using the following scale.

1 = very inaccurate

5 = very accurate

1. Am the life of the party
2. Feel little concern for others (R)
3. Am always prepared
4. Get stressed out easily (R)
5. Have a rich vocabulary
6. Don't talk a lot (R)
7. Am interested in people

8. Leave my belongings around (R)
9. Am relaxed most of the time
10. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas (R)
11. Feel comfortable around people
12. Insult people (R)
13. Pay attention to details
14. Worry about things(R)
15. Have a vivid imagination
16. Keep in the background(R)
17. Sympathize with others' feelings
18. Make a mess of things (R)
19. Seldom feel blue
20. Am not interested in abstract ideas (R)
21. Start conversations
22. Am not interested in other people's problems (R)
23. Get chores done right away
24. Am easily disturbed (R)
25. Have excellent ideas
26. Have little to say (R)
27. Have a soft heart
28. Often forget to put things in their proper place (R)
29. Get upset easily (R)
30. Do not have a good imagination (R)
31. Talk to a lot of different people at parties
32. Am not really interested in others (R)
33. Like order
34. Change my mood a lot (R)
35. Am quick to understand things
36. Don't like to draw attention to myself (R)
37. Take time out for others
38. Shirk my duties (R)
39. Have frequent mood swings (R)
40. Use difficult words
41. Don't mind being the center of attention
42. Feel others' emotions
43. Follow a schedule
44. Get irritated easily (R)
45. Spend time reflecting on things
46. Am quiet around strangers (R)
47. Make people feel at ease
48. Am exacting in my work
49. Often feel blue (R)
50. Am full of ideas

**Section 4 - Demographics:** Please answer the following demographic questions.

How old are you now?

- Under 21 years old
- 21-30 years old
- 31-40 years old
- 41-50 years old
- 51-60 years old
- Over 60 years old

Your sex?

- Male
- Female

How many direct reports do you have?

How many of your direct reports manage/supervise other people?

How long have you been in a leadership/management/supervisory role?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- Over 10 years

How many previous leadership/management/supervisory classes or workshops have you attended in the past three years?

- None
- 1-2
- 3-4
- 5 or more

How long have you worked for your current organization?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- Over 10 years

How long have you worked in your current position?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years



- 6-10 years  
 Over 10 years

How long have you worked for your current supervisor?

- Less than 6 months  
 6 months to 1 year  
 1-2 years  
 3-5 years  
 6-10 years  
 Over 10 years

What is your highest level of education?

- High School Diploma / GED  
 Some college but less than Associates Degree  
 Associates Degree  
 Bachelors Degree  
 Masters Degree  
 Beyond Masters Degree

### Leader Survey 2 Items

**Your Direct Reports:** I am interested in the performance of your direct reports. Below, write the initials of your first direct report. Consider that person's performance as you respond to the items below.

Direct Report Initials: \_\_\_\_\_

1 = strongly disagree  
 7 = strongly agree

1. Adequately completes assigned duties
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform (R)
7. Fails to perform essential duties (R)

1 = strongly disagree  
 5 = strongly agree

1. Helps others who have been absent
2. Willingly give his/her time to help others who have work-related problems
3. Adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off

4. Goes out of his/her way to make newer employees welcome in the work group
  5. Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations
  6. Gives up time to help others who have work or non-work problems
  7. Assists others with their duties
  8. Shares personal property with others to help their work
- 
1. Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image
  2. Keeps up with developments in the organization
  3. Defends the organization when other employees criticize it
  4. Shows pride when representing the organization in public
  5. Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization
  6. Expresses loyalty toward the organization
  7. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems
  8. Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization

These items are completed for each of the leader's direct reports.

### Direct Report Survey Items

**Section 1 – Your Supervisor's Leadership Behaviors:** The following items describe your supervisor's leadership behaviors as you perceive them. Please assess the degree to which you feel each item describes your supervisor's leadership behaviors using the following scale.

0 = not at all

4 = frequently, if not always

Only sample items for the MLQ-5x are provided here due to MLQ copyright restrictions. Sample items include:

1. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her. (idealized influence - attributed)
2. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. (idealized influence - behavior)
3. Talks optimistically about the future. (inspirational motivation)
4. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. (intellectual stimulation)
5. Spends time teaching and coaching. (individualized consideration)

Copyright: Mind Garden - MLQ-5x

**Section 2 – Your Attitudes about Your Job and the Organization:** The following items assess your attitudes about your job and the organization in which you work.

Please assess the degree to which you agree or disagree with each item using the following scale.

1 = strongly disagree

7 = strongly agree

1. In general, I like working here
2. All in all, I am satisfied with my job
3. In general, I don't like my job (R)

1. I am actively looking for a job outside the organization
2. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave the organization
3. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job

1 = not at all

5 = completely

1. The things that I value in life are similar to the things that my organization values
2. My personal values match my organization's values and ideals
3. My organization's values provide a good fit with the things that I value
4. The things that I value in life are similar to the things that my supervisor values
5. My personal values match my supervisor's values and ideals
6. My supervisor's values provide a good fit with the things that I value

**Section 3 - Demographics:** Finally, please answer the following demographic questions.

How old are you now?

- Under 21 years old
- 21-30 years old
- 31-40 years old
- 41-50 years old
- 51-60 years old
- Over 60 years old

Your sex?

- Male
- Female

How long have you worked for your current organization?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years

- 6-10 years
- Over 10 years

How long have you worked in your current position?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- Over 10 years

How long have you worked for your current supervisor?

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- Over 10 years

Were you hired by your current supervisor?

- Yes
- No

What is your highest level of education?

- High School Diploma / GED
- Some college but less than Associates Degree
- Associates Degree
- Bachelors Degree
- Masters Degree
- Beyond Masters Degree

### Supervisor Survey Items

**Section 1 – Your Direct Report’s Leadership Effectiveness:** One of your direct reports is participating in this leadership study. The following items describe your direct report’s leadership effectiveness as you perceive it. Please assess the degree to which you feel each item describes your direct report’s leadership effectiveness using the following scale. The direct report who you are rating is the one who is identified in the email message to you.

1 = very poor

7 = very strong

1. In comparison to others who hold similar jobs in your organization
2. On his/her demonstrated ability to motivate employees to exert extra effort
3. On his/her ability to manage and direct the activities of his/her subordinates
4. On his/her ability to lead his/her subordinates to meet group performance goals
5. Overall, as a leader

**Section 2 – Your Direct Report’s Need for Change in His/Her Work Unit:** The following items assess your perceptions about whether your direct report’s role as a manager/leader includes the need to bring about change in his/her work unit. Please assess the degree to which you feel each item describes your direct report’s need for change using the following scale. The direct report who you are rating is the one who is identified in the email message to you. These items are for use in the study only and would not be shared with your direct report even if you authorized sharing data from Section 1.

1 = not at all

5 = completely

1. This direct report’s role as a manager requires him/her to change how things are done in his/her work unit.
2. This direct report’s role as a manager requires him/her to improve operations in his/her work unit.
3. This direct report’s role as a manager requires him/her to change the operations in his/her work unit to help the organization become more effective.