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The International Journal of Leadership Studies (IJLS) is a refereed scholarly journal that exists to provide a forum for leadership scholars within the U.S. and around the world. To stimulate scholarly debate and a free flow of ideas, the IJLS is published in electronic format and provides access to all issues free of charge.

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From the Editor

Dr. William O. Welch, III

Greetings, fellow travelers.

First, I want to say a few words about the challenges we at IJLS have faced over the last six months. I want to assure our readers and authors that we are nearly caught up and will have everything back on track for the Volume 9 Issues this winter and next spring. We deeply appreciate your patience and your commitment to IJLS.

In this issue, we offer another broad variety of leadership research and theory, beginning with the leadership relationship in creating knowledge in organizations, followed by a consideration of psychological capital as a new lens for understanding employee fit and attitudes. Next up in turn are: a consideration of the authentic leadership literature from a Malaysian perspective; a German-based empirical study that proposes the importance of a homogeneous transformational leadership climate for organizational performance, and concluding with American Red Cross workers' perceptions of disaster response leadership.

The Practitioner's Corner this issue addresses the focus of leadership development in multinational companies. Finally, we provide an excellent review of J. S. Nielsen's *The Myth of Leadership* (2004).

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Article Abstracts

BOOK REVIEW: *THE MYTH OF LEADERSHIP* (2004) BY J. S. NIELSEN

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This provocative book is an excellent presentation of an alternative leadership perspective which is long overdue. Nielsen (2004) argues that the common elite hierarchical leadership perspective actually robs many individuals in an organization of the opportunity to contribute and share in the elements of organizational success, productivity, and more cohesive teamwork.

PRACTITIONER'S CORNER: THE FOCUS OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN MNCS

Holly B. Tompson
Florida Southern College, USA

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The University of Tampa, USA

Academic research on leadership has prescribed dozens of theories for how leaders can become more effective. However, the extent to which academic research has influenced companies remains unclear. While companies are acutely aware of the importance of leadership, the specific ways that they train their leaders has not been a common focus of academic research. When companies design leadership training programs, what leadership competencies do they emphasize? This paper presents the results of a survey that was answered by senior managers of over 300 multinational companies. The results show how companies are emphasizing some leadership competencies over others, and show which training emphases are associated with higher levels of organizational performance.

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LEADERSHIP ACTIVITIES AND THEIR IMPACT ON CREATING KNOWLEDGE IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Knowledge is a critical resource for organizations working in dynamically-competitive environments. In any organization, leaders who have the power to incite and influence knowledge creation activities are at a natural advantage in their ability to play a central role in the process of knowledge creation. While researchers have emphasized a strong link between leadership styles and knowledge creation, the role of leadership in knowledge creation activities has attracted scant attention. We argue that decoding the relationship between leadership and knowledge creation is important, as it helps identify leadership activities that facilitate knowledge creation, and thus build competitive power for organizations. Based on extant literature, we develop five propositions underscoring the role of leadership in knowledge creation processes. Ultimately, a theoretical model establishing links between leadership, knowledge creation activities, and possible outcomes of these leadership activities is attempted.

Psychological Capital: A New Lens for Understanding Employee Fit and Attitudes

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The purpose of this study is to investigate whether or not the similarities between employees' and their leaders' psychological capital (PsyCap) adds to the understanding of person-organization fit, employee engagement, and job satisfaction. This study examines working adults (N=1002), mostly from the U.S. Results indicate that the insights to understanding person-to-organization fit are enhanced when employees' and leaders' Psycap levels are similar. While the concept of fit between employees and their work environment is not new, this is the

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first empirical assessment considering the extent of PsyCap similarity between leaders and followers as it relates to person-to-organization fit. Implications from this study as well as recommendations for future studies are discussed.

AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER LEARNING INSTITUTION: A CASE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY MALAYSIA (IIUM).

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Institute of Education, International Islamic University Malaysia, Malaysia.

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This study investigated the pattern of authentic leadership. The purpose of this study is to test if self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency are predictors of authentic leadership among administrative heads at International Islamic University IIUM. An authentic leader reflects the extent to which there is congruence between leader's actions, intention, moral compasses, self reflexivity, self concept, self development, altruistic actions, authenticity, psychological well-being, and internal regulation. This research is a case study, focusing on data collected from administrative staff at IIUM. The results of the regression indicated that the four predictors (self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency) explained authentic leadership. The tested model provides empirical evidence about the pattern of authentic leadership in higher education, thus confirming the presence of authentic leadership in organizations.

THE IMPORTANCE OF A HOMOGENEOUS TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CLIMATE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

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Heike Bruch
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This study puts a core assumption of the recently-emerged concept of transformational leadership (TFL) climate under direct empirical scrutiny; namely, that it is not only the average level (i.e., the mean perceptions among employees), but also the level of homogeneity (i.e., the variance in perceptions) which is important for understanding the effect of TFL climate on

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organizational outcomes. By developing and testing an interaction hypothesis in a dual-source dataset containing 107 small- and medium-sized organizations, we extend previous knowledge in two important ways. First, we extend the limited empirical evidence on TFL climate by relating it for the first time to organizational performance. Second, we test the previously assumed, but never investigated, assumption of homogeneity for the TFL climate construct at the organizational level. Our results show that it is important to investigate such underlying core assumptions, as the average level of TFL climate was found to relate more strongly to organizational performance with increasing levels of homogeneity in TFL climate.

DISASTER RESPONSE LEADERSHIP: PERCEPTIONS OF AMERICAN RED CROSS WORKERS

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Our Lady of the Lake University, U.S.A.

Penny Pennington Weeks
Oklahoma State University, U.S.A.

Diane Montgomery
Oklahoma State University, U.S.A.

The purpose of this exploratory study was to describe the perceptions and implicit theories of Red Cross workers toward their leaders in the context of disaster emergency response. This study utilized Q-methodology to examine the perceptions of Red Cross workers from multiple locations in the United States through the theoretical frame of charismatic and transformational leadership. The method considered the ways in which views of leadership vary among Red Cross workers, resulting in four distinct leader prototypes among the Red Cross workers: *Show Me the Way*; *See Me, Then Tell Me*; *Stand Beside Me*; and *Please Understand Me*.

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This provocative book is an excellent presentation of an alternative leadership perspective which is long overdue. Nielsen (2004) argues that the common elite hierarchical leadership perspective actually robs many individuals in an organization of the opportunity to contribute and share in the elements of organizational success, productivity, and more cohesive teamwork.

Jeffrey S. Nielsen's (2004) *The Myth of Leadership: Creating Leaderless Organizations* provides an excellent alternative organizational construct for dealing with the complexity and dynamic nature of the current work environment, discarding the damaging and limiting hierarchical approach to managing organizations. Among the plethora of leadership and management literature, this book offers a much-needed and novel perspective worth further serious exploration and reflection.

Context

Nielsen (2004) presents a strong case for how the common elite hierarchical perspective actually robs many individuals in an organization of the opportunity to contribute and share in the elements of organizational success, productivity, and more cohesive teamwork. He further argues that you cannot make an organization worth working in unless you are joyously engaged. Based on his experience in consulting, he concludes that genuine communication only occurs between equals, and secrecy frequently breeds corruption and abuse of power.

Nielsen (2004) cites a common recent revelation: the best decisions are made close to where the work is done, through open communication and participation of experienced and knowledgeable employees. This is because genuine communication and cooperation will occur only between peers. Unfortunately, even the most benign and open-minded leaders [managers] will in the end create dependence and compliance in their direct reports, not interdependence and commitment.

The central problem, according Nielsen, is the myth of leadership, which is an illusion and plays to our human disposition to see history as a series of dramatic events involving only a

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few heroic, gifted individuals. As Nielsen explains, this perspective overlooks and devalues the impact of a vast majority of people who lack status and recognition, but who truly contribute to making things work. These rank-based assumptions rob many employees of self-worth and create irresolvable tensions for others. Therefore, the myth of leadership hinders the natural evolution and success of organizations and minimizes employee enjoyment of a meaningful life in the organization.

Author

Jeffrey S. Nielsen is a consultant who specializes in strategy, organization development, and training. His firm, Intellectual Capital Development, focuses on helping individuals think strategically and act like business owners. Nielsen began his consulting and training career with the Franklin Covey Company, traveling extensively to consult with Fortune 100 companies and agencies of the U.S. government. He has also worked with Right Management Consultants, Inc., an international outplacement and organizational consulting firm. A former Teaching Fellow at Boston College, Nielsen is currently a visiting lecturer at Brigham Young University.

Audience

This book is beneficial for researchers and practitioners in any organization struggling for insights on how to keep up with the complexity and pace of change in the current work environment or simply not satisfied with the traditional ways of making decisions and conducting strategic planning.

Content Overview

According to Nielsen, when allowed to share in business deliberations, individual employees expand their range of concerns beyond the narrow self-interest to include a disciplined concern for the well-being of the whole organization. Most rank-based organizations discourage individual participation in decision making. Deprived of a share in business deliberations, individual employees become almost totally absorbed with their own concerns and needs.

Nielsen introduces a new paradigm of organization called peer-based. He describes peer-based, as one lacking the traditional hierarchical approach to management (what he calls rank-based), where decisions are reserved for the select few (who Nielsen argues actually are not sufficiently informed) and employees are expected to simply comply and not question their seniors. His new paradigm proposes dismissing the notion of hierarchical leader or leadership and changing organizations from the traditional rank-based thinking and decision-making approach to one where all are invited to participate in decisions and planning, based on their expertise and experience.

Nielsen contrasts the typical rank-based assumptions, structure, and practices with those of the peer-based approach, and describes how the new approach would produce much better results. Peer-based thinking allows everyone to find their unique talents and make their authentic contribution to create a stronger organization.

Nielsen concludes with a discussion on how an organization can transition from rank-based to peer-based, develop a peer-based strategy, and what a "leaderless" organization may look like.

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Comparison

Nielsen is not the first to propose a different model for how decisions are made. Turbulent environments have long been regarded as compelling organizations to manage uncertainty more actively (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Stacey, 2001), to exploit change as an opportunity (Drucker, 1999) and to evolve their business processes and management philosophies frequently (Stalk, 1988; Eisenhardt, 1989; Strader, Lin, & Shaw, 1998; Senge & Carstedt, 2001). However, organizations often have difficulty changing strategy and structure (adapting) quickly enough for keeping pace with the demands of uncertainty and change (Hannan & Freeman, 1984; Eisenhardt & Sull, 2001).

McCrimmon (2006), Pearce and Conger (2003), and Raelin (2003) wrote that complexity demands leadership from more than just the executives, and, in some situations, everyone. Leadership is another important element of agility and adaption in an organization. Although many organizations assume the leadership needs to come from the top, the research of Collins and Porras (1994) found no evidence to support the hypothesis that great leadership is the distinguishing variable for agile and adaptive (innovative) organizations. This means a different kind of employee is needed for agility and adaption, not a strictly compliant one.

Raelin (2003) described an alternative organizational approach to leadership where the classic approach for dealing with complex conceptual situations is shifted from only the highest levels to involvement of individuals at lower levels. This encourages all members to share in the process of deciding what and when changes are required and how to implement them. His model requires all members of the organization to exhibit flexibility and adaptability in dynamic environments, and offered recommendations for how individuals could be mentored to develop these characteristics. Raelin encouraged promotion of shared leadership, team work, and collaboration on decisions, beginning with less complexity and graduating to the more complex situations as the team develops more capability and confidence. However, where Raelin never quite moved away from the paternalistic nature of management, Nielsen makes it clear this is a fundamental requirement.

Appraisal of Ideas

Peer-based thinking shows great promise for creating an environment where the ideas and expertise of all employees are valued and more likely to be considered in the decision making processes that are necessary for effectively dealing with the current environment. There are examples of very successful organizations, such as W. L. Gore, living and operating as peer-based organizations. These provide validity to the concept but also require further study to understand the degree to which the peer-based principles are related to success.

It is important to point out that Nielsen's characterization of leader and leadership is about decision making, which McCrimmon (2006) and Rost (1991) make clear is actually management, not leadership. According to Rost (1991), many authors have distinguished between leadership and management (Graham, 1988; Jacobs, 1970; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Selznick, 1957; Zaleznik, 1977). Rost cited Selznick (1957) as the first who wrote that "leadership is not equivalent to office-holding or high prestige or authority or decision-making" (p. 130). He defined *management* as a relationship based on authority, and *leadership* as a relationship based on influence. McCrimmon (2006) argues that leadership is simply any

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influence process based on a change idea, and management is about making decisions or facilitating the change idea. Nielsen does fall victim to the common error of viewing leadership as a decision making role. That said, while Nielsen is not clear on the distinction, his recommendations are consistent with the notions of employees taking more responsibility for leadership and management in the organization.

Conclusion

This book is a must-read for anyone who is looking for a completely different perspective on how to effectively deal with the complex and dynamic work environment for which the traditional hierarchical management approach is insufficient. Nielsen's concept offers fertile territory for research into what makes organizations extraordinary.

About the Author
Charles Sanders holds a Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership from Regent University. He is an organizational development consultant with Alion Science and Technology Corporation, as well as adjunct professor in business management for Spring Arbor University. With more than 30 years of experience in management and leadership, policy development, strategic planning, and training and learning, including corporate staff support at all levels, he has provided advice to the Office of the Secretary of Defense, Joint Chiefs of Staff, U.S. Navy Staff, Joint Forces Command, and other executive-level government and industry officials in matters of organizational development, training and learning policy, and plans, methods, and technologies.
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The Focus of Leadership Development in MNCs

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Academic research on leadership has prescribed dozens of theories for how leaders can become more effective. However, the extent to which academic research has influenced companies remains unclear. While companies are acutely aware of the importance of leadership, the specific ways that they train their leaders has not been a common focus of academic research. When companies design leadership training programs, what leadership competencies do they emphasize? This paper presents the results of a survey that was answered by senior managers of over 300 multinational companies. The results show how companies are emphasizing some leadership competencies over others, and show which training emphases are associated with higher levels of organizational performance.

Introduction

As the globalization trend continues, multinational companies (MNCs) recognize that leaders must learn to be effective in cross-cultural environments. By all measures, effective leadership is difficult in a "domestic" setting, and adding expatriate duties makes leadership even more challenging. Leadership training and development is commonly used by companies for preparing "high potentials" to assume new roles at higher levels in the organization. Evidence of this trend toward combining leadership development with cross-cultural training is evident in the U.S. Army (Proctor, 2009), educational administration (Rhodes & Brundrett, 2009), and of course academic study of leadership (van Emmerik, Euwema, & Wendt, 2008). Increasingly, the business press has also addressed leadership development. At least two titles publish issues that rank companies according to their expertise at developing leaders. *Fortune* publishes an annual issue titled "The Top Companies for Leaders" (IBM was ranked #1 most recently) while *BusinessWeek* publishes the "Best Companies for Leadership" (GE was ranked #1).

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Are companies successful in building the leadership competencies of their employees? In spite of the current focus on globalization and leadership development, there is evidence that the effectiveness of these efforts remains low. The American Society for Training & Development (ASTD) reported that only 41% of leaders are satisfied with the leadership development opportunities that their employers are providing (Pace, 2008). We know that globalization is a permanent part of managing organizations. We know that leadership development is important, but it appears that many companies do not provide leadership training that meets the demands of the employees who need it most. Most alarming, this problem is not new. In 1998, Gregersen, Morrison, and Black published the results of their study on global leadership development. According to responses from *Fortune* 500 companies, 85% of the companies did not have enough leaders, and 67% had leaders with fewer capabilities than were required to do their jobs. Today, fifteen years later, what are companies doing to build their leaders' competencies? The purpose of this paper is two-fold: to identify 1) which global leadership competencies are emphasized most heavily by organizations, and 2) which competencies are associated with strong organizational performance.

We define global leadership development as "activities that help leaders develop a set of competencies that are critical to the business success of organizations competing in a global marketplace. A global leadership program/curriculum tends to focus on competencies designed specifically for global leaders as opposed to leaders operating in a single country and dealing with a single national market" (AMA, 2010, p. v). With limited Human Resources (HR) budgets that must be spread across many regions and employees, companies want to provide training that will be the most efficacious. Existing literature has not adequately identified which foci of global leadership development are associated with organizational performance. This paper, therefore, will report the results of a recent comprehensive survey that addressed leadership development techniques in a large sample of MNCs.

There is strong evidence that MNCs are keenly aware of the need to for leadership development. First, any expatriate leadership role is known to be a very challenging job assignment. Employees who occupy these positions face many more challenges than their colleagues who are in merely "domestic" leadership roles. The added complexity of leadership in an MNC often requires specialized training to improve the likelihood of leadership success. Second, leadership development is thought to improve retention rates in MNCs. Leaders in MNCs must have sufficient resources, personnel, and personal competencies to feel like they can be successful. Otherwise, expatriate leadership assignments are fraught with high rates of failure. Costs of expatriate failure have been widely documented, with the main costs being loss of personal and corporate reputation, loss of market share, disruption in customer focus, missed business opportunities, and costs of re-training (Shen, 2005).

Research Questions

Our first research question asks which leadership competencies are most commonly emphasized by MNCs. The traditional academic research on leadership theories certainly influences how companies train their leaders, but it does not tell us what MNCs are currently doing with regard to leadership development. For example, Quatro, Waldman, & Galvin (2007, p. 428) argued that, due to the numerous high-profile leadership failures, "leadership development programs and initiatives may need to be holistic in their scope." In response to

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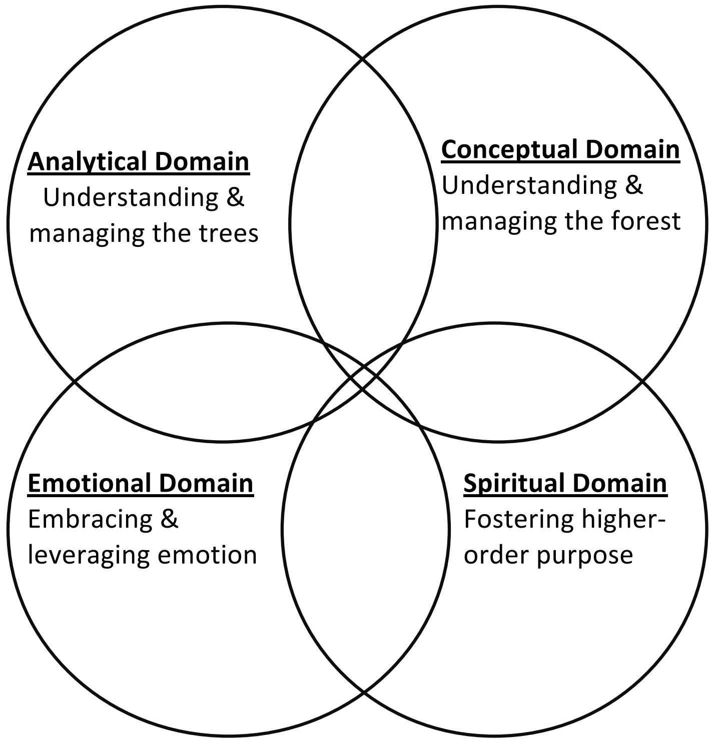
leadership lapses, they prescribed the ACES model of leadership development. Their model seeks to improve leadership training by expanding it to cover analytical, conceptual, emotional, and spiritual realms of leadership. See Figure 1.

Figure 1: ACES Model of Holistic Leadership
Quatro et al. (2007)



In spite of the innumerable prescriptive theories on leadership like the ACES Model, there is little existing research on how MNCs actually develop their leaders. Most research has been small sample case studies that examine the practices of a few companies. Fulmer, Gibbs, and Goldsmith (2000) identified six MNCs with the best practices in leadership development. A similar approach was used by Fulmer, Stumpf, and Bleak (2009) to study the leadership development practices at Caterpillar and PepsiCo. A compelling stream of research was conducted and reviewed by Clarke, Bailey, and Burr (2008) in the UK. They performed semi-structured interviews with 17 managers, then longer interviews with a smaller group of those managers. Overall, they were thoroughly critical of the leadership training that they discovered in the sample of companies. They concluded that leadership development

> "…in practice is an unfocused and extremely diffuse activity. It was also not evaluated well and was poorly aligned to business needs. This malaise was the product of four interrelated factors: aligning leadership development strategy to

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> HR best practice rather than medium/long-term business needs, lack of senior management vision for leadership development, poor quality HR thinking, and differing agendas and organisational politics." (2008, p. 825)

Typically, preparing leaders for global or cross-cultural assignments means teaching them to appreciate new cultures. However, "training executives and managers the habits and customs native to a particular country has become woefully inadequate in terms of preparing today's leaders for building relationships and conducting business in various situations" (Lifelong Learner Report, 2004). To date, little research has studied the competencies that are important for global leaders as compared to leaders in purely domestic firms. Instead, most research is based on the assumption that leadership competencies are universal. But in fact, extant research has not studied effective leadership competencies among leaders who have global responsibilities. In other words, until recently the literature on leadership competencies hasn't made a clear distinction between global and national competencies. Even fewer research studies have identified the impact of global competencies on actual organizational performance.

In addition to studying the leadership competencies that companies emphasize, we were also curious about whether leadership training is associated with organizational performance. Our second research question asks whether higher-performing companies emphasize leadership competencies that are different than the ones emphasized by lower-performing companies.

Method

Sample

This research was conducted by the authors in conjunction with the Institute for Corporate Productivity and the American Management Association. A 34-item Likert scale survey was developed to determine whether companies were offering global leadership development, and if so, which leadership competencies were being emphasized in the training. For example, some companies might emphasize language training while others might focus their training efforts on emotional intelligence. Several measures of organizational performance were also included. A link to the on-line survey was emailed to recipients in March 2010 and 343 usable responses were received. Respondents were high-level management and HR executives in MNCs. All the items in the survey asked questions about the type of leadership development that was currently being provided for employees in the company.

Variables

Respondents were asked to report the extent to which their companies provided leadership training in twelve areas. For example, one question was "To what extent does the company's leadership development program emphasize 'multicultural awareness'?" Other items asked about the emphasis on competencies like "execution of global strategies" and "innovation management." For each leadership competency, the respondent indicated the extent to which the competency was emphasized in the company's leadership training programs. The responses were collected using a 5-point Likert scale, with a 5 indicating the company emphasized the

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competency to a very high extent. A response of 1 indicated the company did not emphasize the competency at all in its leadership development efforts.

We also wanted to know whether higher-performing companies tended to train their leaders differently than lower-performing companies. It would be interesting to know whether there are systematic differences between the high- and low-performing companies. The first two dependent variables were accounting measures of organizational performance: revenue (DV1) and profitability (DV2). We used self-report measures about the company's performance at the time of the survey compared to its performance five years earlier. Answers were reported on a 5-point scale from "current performance at an-all time high" to "current performance is at an all-time low." This allowed us to examine the recent trend in the company's recent performance instead of collecting performance data at a single point in time.

Results

The sample was mostly large, multinational companies. In the sample, 55% of the companies had annual revenue above $100 million, 83% had more than 100 employees, 65% were companies headquartered in the US, 10% were from Canada, 3% from the UK, and 1-2% came from each of the following: China, Australia, France, Germany, Japan, India, and Malaysia. The answer to our first research question ("Which competencies are most heavily emphasized in leadership training?") is illustrated in Table 1. It shows a rank-ordered list of the leadership competencies, sorted by popularity. The first column lists the leadership competency and the second column shows the mean score of each competency, according to how extensively it was emphasized by the sample companies. The range is 1 to 5, with 5 indicating the competency was emphasized to a "very high extent." The third column shows the percentage of companies that reported the competency was emphasized to a "high extent" (score =4) or a "very high extent" (score = 5).

According to Table 1, the clear favorite among global leadership training programs was critical thinking and problem solving. It had a mean score of 3.70 on the 5-point Likert scale. In the sample, 62% of respondents emphasize critical thinking in their leadership training to a high or very high extent. On the other end of the results, emotional intelligence is heavily emphasized by only 39% of respondents.

Table 1: To what extent does your company train its leaders for these competencies?

Global Leadership Competency	Mean Score	Companies answering 4 or 5
Critical thinking & problem solving	3.70	62%
Change management	3.56	56%
Building & leading cross-cultural teams	3.52	55%
Ability to influence & build coalitions	3.50	54%
Execution of global strategies	3.40	51%
Multicultural awareness & knowledge	3.38	48%
Interpersonal & political savvy	3.35	46%

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Effective oral & written communication	3.34	46%
Innovation management	3.33	44%
Expansion of organization's brand	3.28	46%
Agility to manage global shifts	3.20	42%
Emotional intelligence	3.16	39%

Tables 2 and 3 show the results of the regression analyses. Both regression equations describe a line with a slope significantly different from zero. For DV1 (revenue) the p-value of the equation was estimated at .047 and for DV2 (profits) the p-value was estimated at .05. Because each equation was significant, we examined the beta weights of the independent variables in the equation to determine which were the best predictors of the dependent variables. See Table 4. In the first two equations, two competencies were significant at $p < .05$: *interpersonal & political savvy* and *expansion of the organization's brand*.

Table 2: Regression Results for DV1 (Revenue)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Adjusted R^2
Regression	17.407	12	1.451	1.800	.047	.027
Residual	265.146	329	.806			
Total	282.553	341				

Table 3: Regression Results for DV2 (Profitability)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Adjusted R^2
Regression	15.823	12	1.319	1.7538	.05	.026
Residual	247.363	326	.759			
Total	263.186	338				

Table 4: To what extent does your company train its leaders for these competencies?

Global Leadership Competency	t-values DV1 (revenue)	t-values DV2 (profits)
Critical thinking & problem solving	.466	-.401
Change management	-1.19	1.07
Building & leading cross-cultural teams	.005	-.341
Ability to influence & build coalitions	-.136	-.531
Execution of global strategies	-1.36	-1.66
Multicultural awareness & knowledge	1.758	2.074
Interpersonal & political savvy	2.256*	2.00*
Effective oral & written communication	.534	-.544

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Innovation management	-.181	.596
Expansion of organization's brand	3.286**	3.021**
Agility to manage global shifts	.651	.839
Emotional intelligence	-.82	-.220

* p < .05
** p < .01

Discussion

The most interesting result of this research is shown by comparing the results from Table 1 and Table 4. The leadership competencies that are the most commonly emphasized (i.e. "critical thinking" and "change management" at the top of the list in Table 1) are not the ones that are associated with the best performing companies. And the inverse is true too. The pattern suggests that less popular training foci are the ones associated with better organizational performance. Among the twelve forms of leadership development, the 7th and 10th most common (according to Table 1) are the ones that are significantly associated with stronger financial performance. According to Table 4, *interpersonal and political savvy* (7th) and *expansion of the company's brand* (10th) are both associated with the highest levels of revenue and profitability. This research deserves to be replicated, but our results here suggest that companies might be emphasizing their global leadership development methods without regard to financial performance. This result begs the question of exactly how companies decide what leadership competencies to emphasize. Maybe companies emphasize competencies that are easier to teach, or competencies that the leaders request, or competencies that a host country manager recommends. In any case, it appears that companies are consistently emphasizing some leadership competencies that are easy or popular, but they are not associated with higher organizational performance.

Implications for Practice

Given our data and methods, we cannot infer causality. At this point, it would be dangerous to conclude that the differences in organizational performance were caused by the different training foci that some companies used. However, the result does conform to the common notion that, to be successful, companies must distinguish themselves from others. Successful strategies are characterized by a unique set of activities—companies must develop unique competencies if they want to create and maintain a competitive advantage. When companies merely build their strategies on activities that are easy or popular, the best performance they can hope for is competitive parity (Nattermann, 2000). In our sample, the companies that emphasized the "unpopular" leadership training methods were the ones that had better financial performance that the companies that "followed the crowd." Managers might make the mistake of thinking that the pursuit of differentiation applies only to product or service characteristics. Indeed, products should be unique in their market, but companies should also seek to differentiate themselves through all aspects of the value chain. There are ample opportunities to develop idiosyncratic skill sets among employees that can be leveraged into competitive advantage (Pfeffer, 1995). One way to build an organizational advantage through

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excellent employees is by providing training that adequately prepares leaders for overseas assignments.

How should organizations develop their leaders? Our analysis identified two specific skills that were associated with higher organizational performance. First, *interpersonal & political savvy* is important, especially as leaders are preparing for expat assignments. Good leaders know how to navigate through office politics, gather resources, build coalitions, and persuade people to follow. Furthermore, there are many nuanced differences between national cultures, so it is not surprising that interpersonal savvy is heavily emphasized among MNCs that have higher financial performance. Our data do not expose the methods that companies use to enhance interpersonal savvy, but we assume companies emphasize basic human relations skills for building trusting relationships with colleagues. Second, *expansion of the organization's brand* was also emphasized in the MNCs with higher financial performance. Normally, branding is considered to be an activity within the marketing function. But our data suggest that the best companies expect their leaders to take a role in branding too. Even the leaders with backgrounds in engineering or finance must recognize that, essentially, they are always branding. Stakeholders associate leaders and senior managers with their company (e.g., we always associate Bill Gates with Microsoft, Steve Jobs with Apple, and Jack Welch with GE). Even outside the office or on vacation, it can be assumed that leaders are always branding. Of course the branding can be done well or not; the better companies in our sample specifically identify branding as an area for emphasis during leadership development.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was two-fold: first, to identify the most frequently used practices in the development of global leadership programs and, second, to highlight when disparities exist between the most popular practices and the most effective practices. We found evidence that, in some cases, the most common courses of action are not the most effective.

Of course, these findings are not the final word. Every organization has a unique culture, employee population, programs, and challenges, and these factors influence which strategies and tactics are truly best practices. Still, all things being equal, we believe the findings from this study are a good place to begin for organizations intent on developing, implementing, or improving their global leadership development initiatives.

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LEADERSHIP ACTIVITIES AND THEIR IMPACT ON CREATING KNOWLEDGE IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Knowledge is a critical resource for organizations working in dynamically-competitive environments. In any organization, leaders who have the power to incite and influence knowledge creation activities are at a natural advantage in their ability to play a central role in the process of knowledge creation. While researchers have emphasized a strong link between leadership styles and knowledge creation, the role of leadership in knowledge creation activities has attracted scant attention. We argue that decoding the relationship between leadership and knowledge creation is important, as it helps identify leadership activities that facilitate knowledge creation, and thus, build competitive power for organizations. Based on extant literature, we develop five propositions underscoring the role of leadership in knowledge creation processes. Ultimately, a theoretical model establishing links between leadership, knowledge creation activities, and possible outcomes of these leadership activities is attempted.

Knowledge is considered the most important resource for organizations working in dynamically-competitive environments (Grant, 1996). In a high-competition environment, an organization's ability to assimilate members' knowledge and construct new knowledge determines its competitive power (Smith, Collins, & Clark, 2005). That knowledge creation activities help build competitive power has been well-demonstrated by scholars who have studied a wide range of organizations (Berman, Down, & Hill, 2002; Murmann, 2003; Tallman, Jenkins, Henry, & Pinch, 2004).

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In any organization, leaders who have the power to incite and influence knowledge creation activities are at a natural advantage in their ability to play a central role in the process of knowledge creation and thus build competitive power for organizations. While scholars have emphasized a strong link between leadership styles and knowledge creation, the role of leadership in knowledge-creation activities has attracted scant attention (Mitchell & Boyle, 2009; Tse & Mitchell, 2010). Researchers investigating the role of leadership on knowledge creation have focused on issues such as finding and differentiating the role of transformational and transactional leadership in knowledge management and creation (Bryant, 2003); examining the extent to which transformational leadership contributes to creativity inside organizations (Pieterse, Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010; Shin & Zhou, 2003); depicting the role of transformational leadership in facilitating constructive cognitive effects on team knowledge creation (Mitchell & Boyle, 2009); and investigating how open-mindedness and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) quality help in underpinning the effect of transformational leadership on knowledge creation (Tse & Mitchell, 2010). Researchers have also examined the influence of transformational leadership style on employees' innovative behavior at both the individual as well as the organizational level (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003).

As evident, while extant literature probes the effect of leadership style on knowledge-creation activities, little attention has been paid to identifying leadership activities that help in knowledge creation. This paper fills an important void by identifying such leadership activities that have the potential to affect knowledge-creation processes inside an organization. For the purpose of this paper, a leader is one who is entrusted with decision making powers, i.e. they have power to incite and influence certain activities that can affect the process of knowledge creation inside an organization.

Completing the Chain of Knowledge Creation

The inability of managers to transform available information into knowledge of action is a serious impediment that affects the process of decision making inside organizations (Churchman, 1964). As improper decision-making affects creation of knowledge, employees who are better able to transform data into knowledge are an important asset for any organization. As Churchman (1964) argues, the major impediment in any decision making process is the failure to understand the basic model of knowledge creation (Figure 1).

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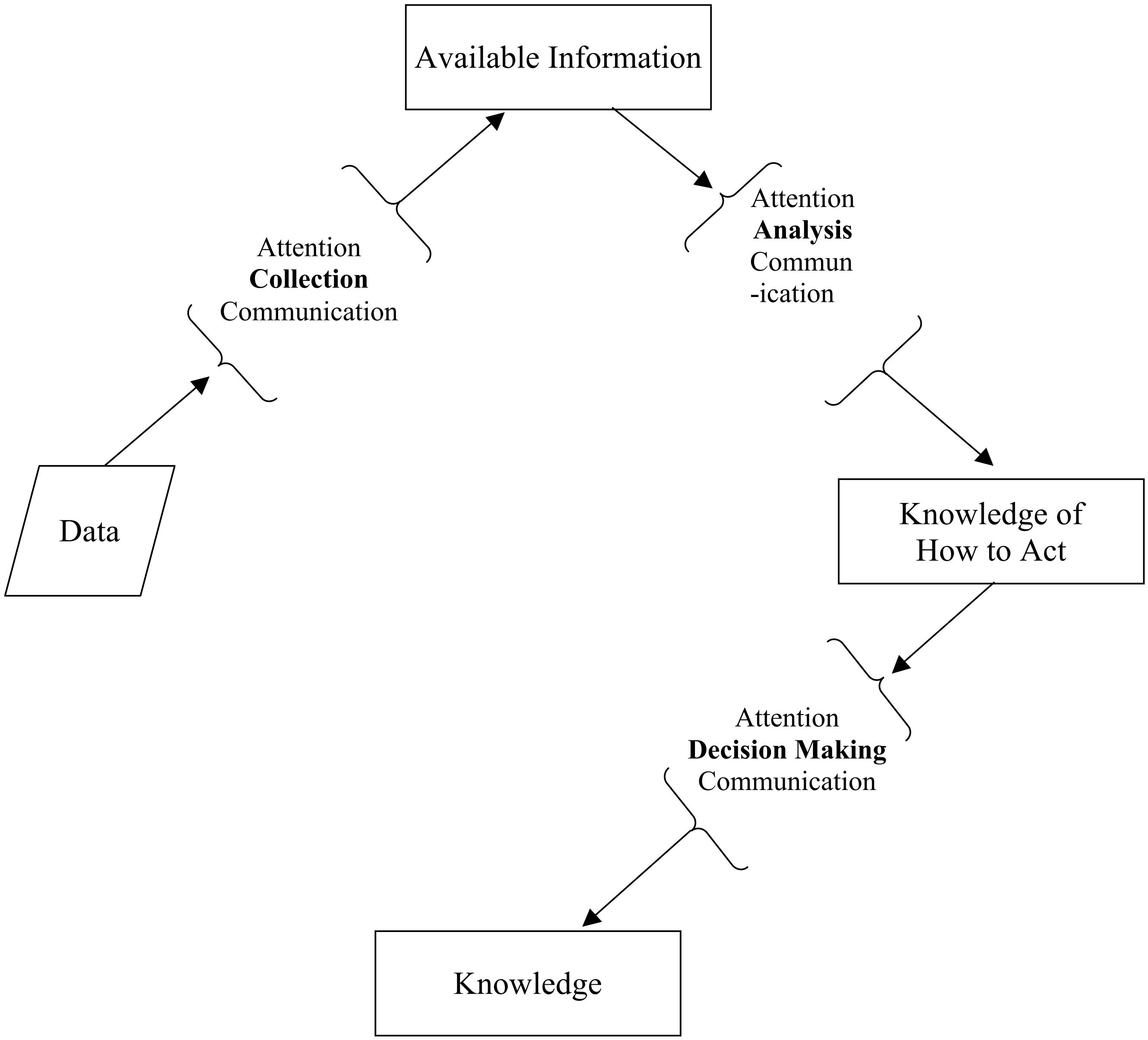

Figure 1: Model of Knowledge Creation

As evident from the model, proper attention, collection, and communication of data leads to information available for analysis. A thorough analysis of the available information helps turn it into "knowledge of how to act" but not "knowledge," per se. This knowledge of how to act can next be turned into "knowledge" through proper decisions. A closer look at the model suggests the importance of "attention" and "communication" in the chain of knowledge creation: they are common constituents at each level of transformation. Furthermore, both these factors can be equated with what Nonaka (1994) describes as employees' commitment to the knowledge creation process.

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For an organization, the process of conversion of data into knowledge through the process of "chain of knowledge creation" does not happen at a single stage. In almost all cases, the conversion process involves multiple levels (i.e. individual, group, organizational, and inter-organizational) with different people getting involved at each level (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995,); this in turn demands commitment from each member involved in the whole process. Such commitments can only be found in what Davenport and Prusak (1998) identify as a "knowledge oriented culture." A defining characteristic of a knowledge-oriented culture is employees' positive orientation to knowledge and their readiness to share it (Davenport, De Long, & Beers, 1998). As recruiting and retaining the right talent is the key to establishment of such cultures (Haesli & Boxall, 2005), leaders should encourage recruiting, retaining, and rewarding employees who are committed to knowledge creation processes.

Proposition 1: Leaders advocate recruiting, retaining, and rewarding employees committed to knowledge creation processes.

Rendering a Common Platform for Sharing Experiences

Knowledge and Its Two Dimensions—Tacit and Explicit

Michael Polanyi's (1997) identification of the two dimensions of knowledge (viz. tacit and explicit) is a major contribution to organizational studies in the field of knowledge management. Polanyi, in opposition to the prevalent thought in western tradition (Gill, 2000; Polanyi & Sen, 2009), argued that "we can know more than we can tell." His arguments lead us to an intriguing situation. If we know more than what we can say, then there should be some way to share what we know so that new knowledge is created: effectively, mobilization and conversion of tacit knowledge should lead to some form of knowledge creation (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). It has been argued that conversion of tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge is a prerequisite to knowledge amplification so that it becomes a part of organization's knowledge network (Herschel, Nemati, & Steiger, 2001). Nonetheless, we should not see the process of knowledge creation as a one-way linear process between tacit and explicit. In fact, knowledge creation process involves a four-way flow between tacit and explicit modes (Nonaka, 1994):

Tacit to Tacit: Knowledge is created through the process of Socialization where individuals share experiences through observation, imitation, and practice

Explicit to Explicit: Knowledge is created through the process of Combination where individuals exchange and combine knowledge through exchange mechanisms

Tacit to Explicit: Conversion of knowledge through the process of Externalization; metaphor (imaginative and intuitive learning through symbols) plays an important role

Explicit to Tacit: Conversion of knowledge through the process of Internalization; reflection in action (reflecting while experiencing) plays an important role

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Here we focus on the process of "socialization" in a context where an individual interacts with a group in order to gain tacit knowledge shared by its members. Such tacit knowledge could be knowledge of how to act in a given context; for example "practical consciousness" that are held tacitly by actors are often hard to explain (Evans & Brooks, 2005). Many facets of organizational culture are shared tacitly by groups, and if someone wants to get incorporated in a group, one must learn those facets. The key to learning such facets lies in tacit to tacit knowledge transfer: a process that determines extensive socialization and further internalization of knowledge through proper analysis of received inputs.

Apart from being a powerful cultural communication process, socialization and combination are considered processes that emphasize knowledge creation; the remaining two processes (i.e., externalization and internalization) emphasize knowledge utilization. Moreover, as the process of socialization involves spending time together inside the same environment rather than sharing of knowledge through written and verbal instructions (Nonaka & Konno, 1998), a common platform for interaction would be a prerequisite. Such a platform could include group meetings and activities where members can share their experiences.

Proposition 2: In rendering a common platform to employees for sharing experiences, leaders expedite the process of knowledge creation

Providing Adequate and Safe Means of Expression

Sloan (2006) argues that providing explicit means of expression helps in challenging deep-rooted beliefs and traditional knowledge that might have become obsolete; this in turn helps develop innovative and strategic capacities for organizations. Nonetheless, there are challenges with any means of expression in terms of their adequacy and suitability.

In large organizations, employees often come from varied backgrounds differing in the way they prefer to speak out their minds. In such cases, it becomes the responsibility of a leader to open many "doors of communication," like public forums, and shape "conversation rituals" so that new participants are incorporated easily (Von Krogh, Ichijō , & Nonaka, 2000); such doors of communication can also take the form of technology-mediated communication processes, as their role in proper dissemination of existing and new knowledge has been well established (Shu-hsien, 2003). Scholars have also stressed the importance of computer-mediated communication in belief sharing and consensual interpretations leading to knowledge creation (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Henderson, Sussman, & Thomas, 1997). Such technological infrastructures, apart from helping organizational members, help create new knowledge through inter-organizational networks as well (Malhotra, Gosain, & Sawy, 2005).

While providing adequate means of expression is important, even more important is the presence of mutual trust, as lack of trust inhibits organizational members from expressing themselves (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Even in the wake of adequate means of expression, employees may prefer to remain silent if they feel a lack of psychological safety arising out of beliefs that voicing ideas and concerns would lead to negative consequences (Detert & Burris, 2007). As Detert and Edmondson (2011) argue, leaders must remain proactive by dismantling beliefs that foster silence and build up an environment where speaking up is invited and

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rewarded. Once such an environment is built, a proper system could be put in place that makes it easy to save representations of what is learned and make it accessible to all (McInerney & Mohr, 2007).

In an organizational setting, providing such means of expression and initiating a trustworthy environment comes under the purview of leaders (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002); thus, it can be reasoned that, by providing safe and adequate means of expression to employees, leaders help create knowledge through the process of combination.

Proposition 3: Leaders help in the process of knowledge creation by providing employees adequate and safe means of expression.

Forging Knowledge Links between Uniquely Capable Companies

Though researchers have focused a lot on the dichotomy of knowledge in terms of tacit and explicit forms, there are other ways to look at it. A prominent one, though of a similar nature, is expressed by Badaracco (1991), who defines organizational knowledge in terms of its mobility-, migratory-, and embedded knowledge. Badaracco terms migratory knowledge as that kind of knowledge which can be transferred from one firm to another firm easily. The prerequisites to migration of knowledge are: a) ability of knowledge to be packaged; b) employees' ability to open that package; c) incentives for opening the package; and d) absence of barriers that would otherwise stop employees from opening the packages. As opposed to migratory knowledge which resides in "tidy, mobile packages like books and formulas, in machines, and in minds of individuals," embedded knowledge is personal to the firm and resides primarily in "specialized relationships among individuals and groups and in the particular norms, attitudes, information flows, and ways of making decisions that shape their dealings with each other" (Badaracco, 1991, pp. 79-80). Considering that embedded knowledge is specific to a firm, it is hard to transfer it to any other firm. Moreover, since all firms have some kind of specific embedded knowledge, firms may like to share their specialized capabilities with other firms in order to create knowledge. In such a scenario, firms may like to explore the possibility of having knowledge link alliances for mutual benefit. Such knowledge links help create new knowledge by helping a company combine its special capabilities with that of other(s) (Badaracco, 1991).

The knowledge links can also be visualized as links inside the "knowledge networks," a concept that punctuates the importance of "organizations-as-networks" rather than organizations as "inventories of knowledge" (Contractor, 2002). The knowledge networks contain collective competencies that help create new products and services (Contractor & Monge, 2002). As Li (2002) contends, these knowledge networks should not be restricted to organizational boundaries but should be expanded to include judicious information and knowledge sharing with other organizations. As organizations have scarce resources, leaders should try developing knowledge links with organizations that share common goals, even in cases where the organizations are in a competing relationship (Hackney, Desouza, & Irani, 2008). Nonetheless, knowledge-sharing practices are reported to be obstructed due to policy constraints and restrictions arising out of differences in organizational cultures, and these challenges must be countered before the new practices are put in place, or else knowledge sharing might be hindered (Pardo, Cresswell, Jing, & Thompson, 2001). However, once the challenges to knowledge-sharing are sorted out, inter-

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organizational collaboration leads to successful transfer of knowledge from one organization to another, in effect creating knowledge mutually beneficial for one another (Hardy, Phillips, & Lawrence, 2003).

> Proposition 4: By forging knowledge links between uniquely capable companies, leaders help create new knowledge.

Investing in Strategically Relevant Training Programs

The importance of training and educating the workforce has been highlighted by leaders from different and diverse sectors. The oft-quoted line, "the only way America can compete and win in the 21st century is to have best-educated, best trained workforce in the world," (Clinton & Gore, 1992, p. 6) only shows how important it is for any country to keep an updated pool of knowledge resources for a healthy survival. Turning to the value of educational and training programs for "business organizations," it has been shown that there is a positive relationship between implementation of training programs and productivity growth (Bartel, 1994; Ottersten & Mellander, 1999).

Nonaka and Toyama (2003) reason that training programs help in the process of internalization of knowledge; the explicit knowledge imparted during training sessions (in the form of written documents or lectures) helps enrich the tacit knowledge base of trainees, effectively creating new knowledge that can be utilized on the job. Moreover, as training programs often bring people with diverse sets of skills under one roof, they provide a mature environment for knowledge creation (Fong, 2003). Training is also beneficial in that it acquaints organizational members with available information repositories and knowledge-sharing systems and teaches their effective use (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002). Training programs help create smart employees who get their work done in a better and more efficient manner because of the acquisition of new skills. Training and development activities also contribute to creating an atmosphere where employees get better opportunities for job success and growth. Better opportunities in terms of job success and growth help create a "virtuous spiral of success" for both the individual as well as the organization (Lawler, 2003). Accordingly, organizations should focus on developing a training strategy so that they are better equipped to face the future needs in terms of employee skills and knowledge inventory (Lawler & Worley, 2006).

> Proposition 5: By investing in strategically important training programs, leaders help in the process of knowledge creation.

The Propositional Model

All five propositions thus far formulated are related to leadership activities that try to set up conditions that allow easy facilitation of knowledge creation. Setting conducive conditions is important as any form of leadership cannot directly influence knowledge creation, instead leaders should manage resources and create a context in which knowledge creation can take place (Keursten & van der Klink, 2003). Nonetheless, the role of leaders is important, as their task is to support emerging processes and to commit with full responsibility to activities that

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foster knowledge creation (Nonaka & Konno, 1998). Having identified the leadership activities that help in the process of knowledge creation, we arrive at the following theoretical model, underlining the respective activities with their likely outcomes (Figure 2):

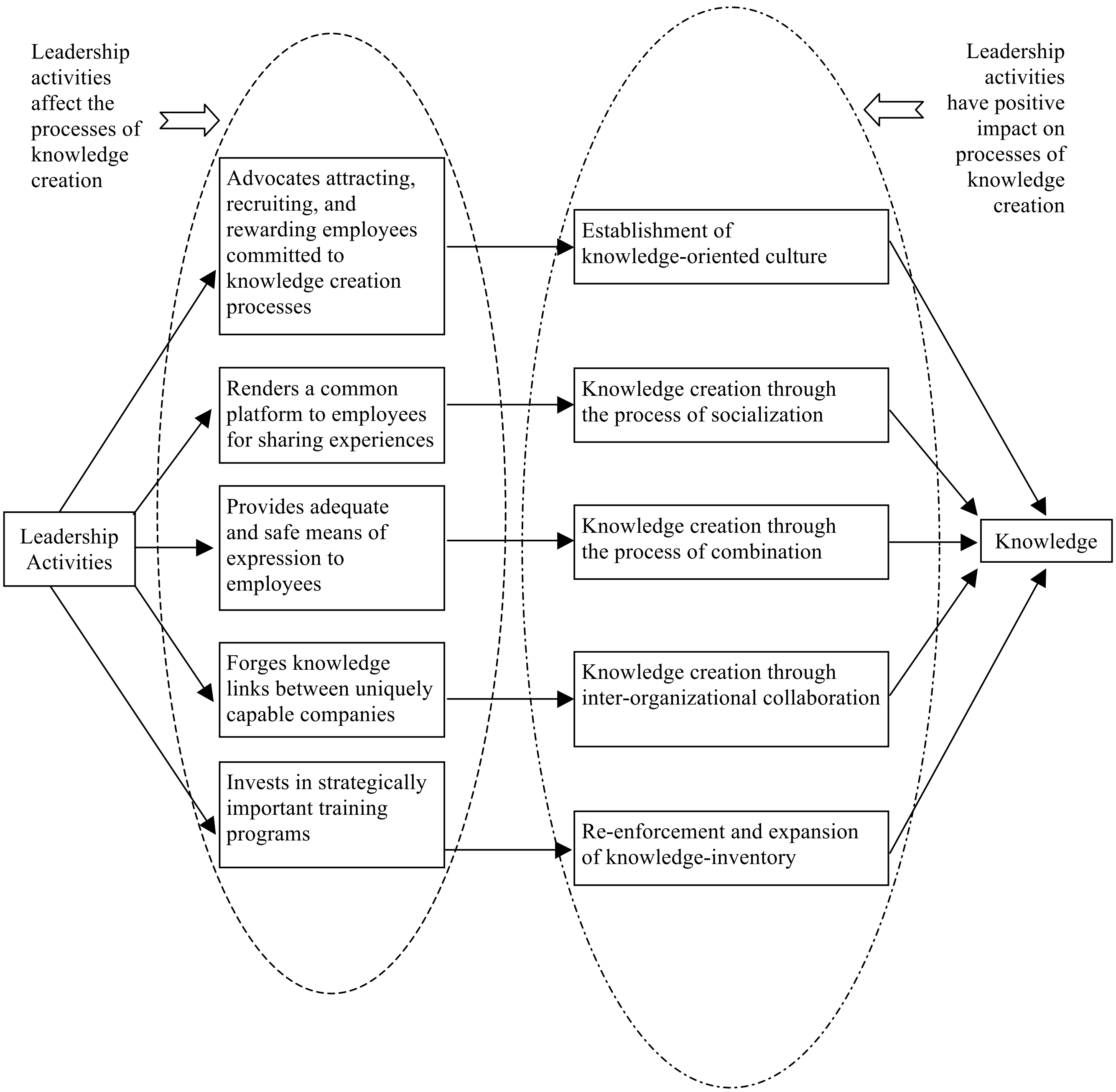

Figure 2: Role of Leadership in Knowledge Creation Activities

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The five propositions that we formulated could be put in the following way: leaders help recruit the best talent and provide them a common platform for expression. For better utilization of members' knowledge, leaders provide adequate and safe means of expression to organizational members. Owing to limitations in terms of organizational capabilities to develop different kinds of knowledge, leaders forge knowledge links with other organizations. As continual training is a prerequisite for updating one's skills, and developing new competencies, leaders help employees with new training facilities.

We attempted a basic model linking leadership activities to their outcomes and their further effect on knowledge creation. The model, however, does not account for all the possibilities in which leaders can affect knowledge creation activities. Here, we mention some studies that have the potential to further our model and give it a comprehensive look. O'Dell and Grayson (1998) emphasize leaders' role in establishing and reinforcing a supportive culture where knowledge is shared and created. In a similar vein, Zárraga and Bonache (2003) note that an atmosphere of mutual trust, active empathy, lenience in judgment, and high care is essential for knowledge creation, and that the presence of a leader in any team helps in the creation of such an environment. Orlikowski (2002) underlines the leader's role in creating a situation where organizational members would have an opportunity to build and maintain social networks, thus leading to a situation where knowledge would be shared and created. Similarly, Moitra and Kumar (2007) underline the role of leadership in development of social interactions among team members separated by geographical borders: they argue that, by developing social networks that help systematically catalyze social interactions across borders, leaders help facilitate knowledge-sharing processes.

These studies, as evident, have focused on the role that leadership plays in knowledge creation activities. Our model tries to incorporate them as best as possible, but to assert that our model accounts for all possible ways in which leadership affects the process of knowledge creation would be an overstatement. We attempted a basic model, as our intention was to fill an important gap in literature: that of identifying leadership activities that affect knowledge-creation processes inside an organization. It should be noted that only a generic model was attempted; as such, the model has huge potential to be furthered. All the same, we reason that understanding the link between leadership activities and knowledge creation is important, as it would help organizations better shape the leadership behavior of decision makers, thus effectively building a favorable environment for knowledge creation.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL: A NEW LENS FOR UNDERSTANDING EMPLOYEE FIT AND ATTITUTES

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The purpose of this study is to investigate whether or not the similarities between employees' and their leaders' psychological capital () adds to the understanding of person-organization fit, employee engagement, and job satisfaction. This study examines working adults (N=1002), mostly from the U.S. Results indicate that the insights to understanding person-to-organization fit are enhanced when employees' and leaders' PsyCap levels are similar. While the concept of fit between employees and their work environment is not new, this is the first empirical assessment considering the extent of PsyCap similarity between leaders and followers as it relates to person-to-organization fit. Implications from this study as well as recommendations for future studies are discussed.

Introduction

Newspaper headlines across the country continue to convey a not-so-positive outlook for today's businesses and that there are very challenging decisions to make about the future. Decisions such as

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whether or not to plan furlough days, reduce employer contributions to retirement plans, cut the number of hours employees work, or to eliminate positions altogether are just a few of the tough decisions being made on a regular basis. In light of these challenging times, it easy to understand how employees might feel less connected to their organizations, that they do not fit, or that they are less satisfied with their jobs overall. On the other hand, there might be important insights to understand how, even in these difficult times, some of today's employees continue to fit in, elect to engage in their work surroundings, and feel satisfied with their jobs.

The framework of this study stems from positive psychology and its interface with employee fit, employee engagement, and job satisfaction. Previous research has examined the role that psychological capital, or PsyCap, has on positive organizational variables such as trust and performance (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010). Further, extant research has considered the positive effects of employee PsyCap on follower attitudes (e.g., Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008a; Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007a). However, to date, the concept of examining the similarity between employees' and their leaders' positive psychological states has not been considered in the management literature. Therefore, in this paper, we examine the potential relationship between leaders' and followers' PsyCap (comprised of optimism, hope, resilience, and self-efficacy) and how their perception of fit relates to the follower's level of work engagement, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational fit. This inquiry may be valuable in understanding the role of PsyCap as a positive explanation for work interactions, especially in light of the challenges, and often negative, perspective that many organizations face today.

Positive Psychology and Psychological Capital

There is increased support for the positive outcomes that can result from the focus on positive psychology (Sheldon & King, 2001; Luthans 2002a, 2002b; Luthans et al., 2007a; Peterson & Seligman, 2004), which shifts the traditional focus on what is wrong with people (i.e., neuroses, deviant behavior, etc.) to what is right with people (positive flourishing, virtues, optimism, hope, etc.) (for a review see Roberts, 2006 and/or Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Drawing from theory in positive psychology and applying it to the workplace, positive organizational behavior (POB) has predominantly focused on advancing knowledge of state-like capacities (Luthans et al., 2007a; Wright, 2003), such as hope (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 1996), resilience (Masten, 2001), optimism (Seligman, 1998), and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Current research in the area of POB has evolved into examining a higher order factor comprised of these four components into PsyCap, which is defined as "an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive reference (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success" (Luthans et al., 2007b:3). Drawing from Hobfoll's (2002) psychological resource theory, PsyCap has been shown to be both theoretically (Luthans et al., 2007b) and empirically (Luthans et al., 2007a) supported as a higher-order factor, whereas each of the four components are best understood as indicators of a single latent factor. Existing research has demonstrated a strong relationship between PsyCap and multiple employee outcomes, such as manager-rated performance and job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007a), trust (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010), work engagement (Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008a), commitment (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008b) and absenteeism (Avey, Patera, & West, 2006).

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Given the support for the importance of individual PsyCap in the workplace and the emerging research recognizing the influence of leader PsyCap (e.g., Norman et al., 2010), a logical next step is to understand how these two related sources of PsyCap influence each other in the workplace. Given that the present investigation considers the degree of similarity in PsyCap between two targets of a social relationship (e.g., between a leader and follower), there are at least two theories which may explain the phenomena and are the basis of this study. These theoretical frameworks include person-organization (PO) fit, person-supervisor (PS) fit.

Person-Organization and Person-Supervisor (PS) Fit

Research focused on the fit between a person and his/her work environment has been prevalent in the management literature since the early 1900s (Parsons, 1909), and has drawn considerable focus throughout the years. Generally defined, fit is often described as the compatibility between an individual and his or her work environment that occurs when the characteristics of both the individual and the environment are well-matched (Schneider, 2001). Subsequent research has further classified fit factors as specific to the person and the organization (PO), the person and the job (PJ), the person and the group (PG), and the person and his or her supervisor (PS). As examined here, PO and PS fit factors are most relevant given the salience of the organizational context and the focus on the leader-follower relationship.

Most of the past research relative to PO fit has been focused on the degree of similarity that exists between the individual and the organization. Tom (1971) suggested that individuals will be most successful in organizations that are similar to themselves, with the focus of similarity ranging from values congruence (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996) to personality-climate congruence (Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997; Tom, 1971). In other PO-fit research, organizational culture is reflected in the characteristics (i.e. personality, attitudes, and psychological capacities) of the organizational members (Van Vianen, 2000). Additionally, the PO fit has been suggested to be very important during the early stages of an employee’s experience with the organization. When the PO fit is low, employees will consider leaving the organization rather than trying to resolve the perceived misfit (Van Vianen, 2000).

Research in PS fit has focused on the dyadic degree of similarity between the individual and his or her supervisor. PS fit research to date has followed a similar path as PO fit, and has proposed that individuals who are most closely aligned to their supervisors will be most successful in that organization. PS fit has focused on similarity between the individual and his or her supervisor relative to personality similarity (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002), as well as both value and goal congruence (Witt, 1998).

The theoretical bases and psychological processes discussed above thus allow the individual to define the degree of identification the individual has with his or her organization, based on the degree of similarity the individual has with the organization as related through his or her leadership. Given that psychological qualities including personality have influenced one’s PO fit (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002), it would thus seem plausible that individuals classify themselves into either similar or into different groups from their managers, based on a follower’s perception of the perceived level of congruence of PsyCap, a specific psychological quality, between leader and follower. For example, perhaps an employee very high in PsyCap would more likely favor supervisors when the supervisor is high in PsyCap as well, resulting in positive outcomes such as higher perceived PO fit. The similarity in perspective and beliefs as a result of similar level of PsyCap is likely to enable the identification process between the employee and the organization. This similarity results in favorable bias for the individual. Contrarily, strong differences in PsyCap are likely to cue less positive outcomes for the employee because they are quite different than the supervisor, who acts as an agent of the organization, and thus are associated with more denigrating bias. This relationship has direct consequences relative to the employee’s perceived organizational fit.

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Job Satisfaction

In addition to organizational fit, this PsyCap congruence is also likely to result in favorable evaluations of the job. Ashforth and Mael (1989) discuss the importance of organizational identification relative to an individual's job satisfaction. That is, the stronger the identification an individual has with the organization, which can be extended through identification with organizational leadership, the higher the individual's job satisfaction will be. Important, too, is understanding that much of the job satisfaction research focuses on the employee *level* of job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Roznowski & Hulin, 1992). Likewise, much of the PsyCap research has focused on employee PsyCap predicting the employee's *level* of job satisfaction with generally positive relationships existing between the two (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007a). A contribution advanced here is that we focus on the congruence between the leader and follower's levels of PsyCap and the overall relationship of this congruence has on job satisfaction.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement has been proposed as a variable that can help explain and enhance optimal functioning and full utilization of employees in the workplace (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). Employee engagement is characterized by increased energy, dedication, and enthusiasm in one's work, which can directly affect overall organizational effectiveness. It has been argued the more engaged an organization's employees are, the more successful the organization will be (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

Given the apparent importance of employee engagement in their work, how can organizational leaders enhance their employees' engagement in their work? Using meta-analytic techniques, Harter and colleagues (2002) examined the impact that the relationship one has with his or her business unit, including that unit's leadership, has on the employee's engagement in his or her work. The more positive the relationship is between a person and his or her business unit, of which the leader is the prime agent, the more engaged the person will be in his or her work. This emotional connectedness is affected by one's identification with the work unit and his or her leadership. Therefore, it would seem plausible that the more closely one sees him- or herself with the business unit and his or her leadership, the more one identifies with his or her business unit. This relationship is further supported by May and colleagues (2004) who tested Kahn's (1990) theoretical framework for engagement and found that the strongest predictor of engagement was derived primarily from supportive leadership. That is, when employees were connected to their leader, this created the condition for higher levels of work engagement. Perhaps this connectedness and view of the relationship between the employee and leader can be associated with the level of congruence that the employee perceives relative to PsyCap level. In other words, perhaps employees will have more positive associations with leaders who are similar to them in PsyCap levels (hope for the future, confidence, etc.), resulting in higher levels of employee engagement as a mechanism to mutual success, goal attainment, etc. Given this, we offer our final hypotheses:

H_1: The degree of congruence between a follower's level of PsyCap and the follower's perceptions of the leader's level of PsyCap is positively related with the follower's perceived organizational fit (see also Figure 1).

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H_2: The degree of congruence between a follower's level of PsyCap and the follower's perceptions of the leader's level of PsyCap is positively related with the follower's job satisfaction (see also Figure 1).

H_3: The degree of congruence between a follower's level of PsyCap and the follower's perceptions of the leader's level of PsyCap is positively related with the follower's work engagement (see also Figure 1).

Figure 1: *Research Model*

Method

Study Procedure and Participants

Working adults in the mountain states region were recruited to participate in the two data collections. After consenting to participate, participants completed the questionnaire based on their work experience. Participants either accessed a data collection web site (www.surveymonkey.com), or completed the questionnaire physically for subsequent data entry into the data collection web site.

The initial sample included 1118 surveys that were completed by the participants; however, due to some of the incomplete surveys, 1002 surveys were used for the analysis. The average respondent in our final sample was 36 years old (s.d. = 13.7), worked for his/her organization on average 6 years (s.d.= 7.3), and had an average of 18 (s.d. = 13) years overall work experience. Females represented 61% of the respondents and a strong majority was white/Caucasian (73%). A wide range of industries were represented in the sample, including manufacturing, information technology, finance, marketing, and telecommunication.

Measures

Independent Variables

The independent variable in this study was the level of congruence between leader and follower psychological capital (PsyCap). PsyCap was measured utilizing the 24-item psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ) developed and validated by Luthans and colleagues (Luthans et al., 2007a). Participants rated their responses on a 1-6 rating scale, anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (6). Participants evaluated both themselves and their leaders using this scale. A sample item for participants' evaluation of their own resources is, "If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it." A sample item for participants' evaluation of their managers/leaders is "If my manager/leader at work should find him or her-self in a jam at work, he/she could think of many ways to get out of it." The reliability (α) of this measure was .90 for the employee's rating of their own PsyCap and the reliability of the modified PCQ was .95 for the employee's rating of his or her manager's PsyCap. From these two PCQ scores, a PsyCap difference variable was calculated using the absolute difference between the employee's PCQ score and his/her corresponding leader's PCQ score.

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Dependent Variables.

Three dependent variables were explored in this study: person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and employee engagement. Organizational fit was measured utilizing Lee and colleagues' 6-item scale (Lee et al., 2004). This scale has shown to be reliable in other studies and was deemed the best available for this study's focus. A sample item is, "I feel I am a good match for this organization," and participants rated these items with the same 1-6 rating scale utilized for the PsyCap scale. The reliability of this measure (α) was .86.

Job satisfaction, as is commonly used in organizational behavior research (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2001), was measured utilizing a three-item scale adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980). A sample item is, "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job," and participants rated these items with the same 1-6 rating scale utilized for the PsyCap scale. The reliability of this measure (α) was .89.

Employee engagement was measured using the 13-item employee engagement scale developed and utilized by May and colleagues (May et al., 2004). This scale has been shown to be reliable and fit the criteria of engagement as set forth in this paper. A sample item is, "I am rarely distracted when performing my job," and participants rated these items with the same 1-6 rating scale utilized for the PsyCap scale. The reliability of this measure (α) was .77.

Analysis

Means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for both studies can be seen in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics, correlations, reliabilities, and ANOVA results – Sample 1

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	*F*	*df*
1.PsyCap, Leader	4.69	.74	.95						---	---
2.PsyCap, Follower	4.69	.57	.38	.90					---	---
3.ABS PsyCap Diff	.52	.52	.46	.20	--[a]				---	---
4.Engagement	4.17	.62	.34	.49	.22	.76			13.04	1, 459
5.Job satisfaction	4.56	1.03	.47	.64	.33	.60	.88		30.88	1, 464
6.Organization fit	4.54	.93	.56	.57	.32	.52	.79	.85	17.34	1, 464

Note. Elements on the main diagonal are reliabilities. All correlations significant at
[a] ABS was the result of subtracting the two PsyCap scales, thus, no reliability was reported.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics, correlations, reliabilities, and ANOVA results – Sample 2

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	*F*	*df*
1.PsyCap, Leader	4.86	.73	.95						---	---
2.PsyCap, Follower	4.88	.58	.47	.92					---	---
3.ABS PsyCap Diff	.47	.50	.43	.20	-- [a]				---	---
4.Engagement	4.30	.64	.30	.52	.18	.79			20.82	1, 516

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5.Job satisfaction	4.81	.96	.43	.64	.22	.59	.91		15.57	1, 520
6.Organization fit	4.80	.90	.52	.65	.21	.50	.80	.88	10.67	1, 516

Note. Elements on the main diagonal are reliabilities. All correlations significant at $p < .001$ [a]
ABS was the result of subtracting the two PsyCap scales, thus, no reliability was reported.

With the present research design, a literature review indicated the appropriate tool for hypothesis tests was polynomial regression. Specifically, in over 50 years of research using difference scores, there has been an ongoing intellectual debate about the methodological shortcomings of the difference score method. An alternative method useful to mitigate these shortcomings is polynomial regression, the initial discussion which can be traced to Cronbach (1958). More recent discussion and formal validation has been conducted by Edwards (2001; Edwards & Parry, 1993).

The value of polynomial regression is that it allows for the joint analysis of component measures, which are collapsed into an index using traditional difference score methods (Johns, 1981). One constraint on the absolute difference method is that the outcomes in this study would be at either their maximum or minimum point when the two PsyCap components are equal. Second, the absolute difference method assumes that the outcomes decrease symmetrically as the two PsyCap perceptions deviate from one another in either direction. The regression approach does not inadvertently explore these supplemental hypotheses (Edwards, 2001). Instead, several advantages are offered.

First, the regression allowed us to maintain the interpretability of the PsyCap component measures, which was lost in their being collapsed into the congruence variable. Second, when the index is used, the estimates of the relationships between the component measures and the outcomes are collapsed. The polynomial regression approach allowed us to consider these separately. Last, this method provides a complete test of models that underlie the index. In this case, we investigate the significance of individual effects on the relationship and not its overall magnitude. This last point is critical because the components that make up traditional congruence indices do not verify variance explained and the individual relationships that constitute the model. The absolute difference method contains a constraint that, when relaxed in the regression approach, yields an increase in the R^2 values of .36, .41, .40 in sample one for engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational fit, respectively, and .46, .50, and .54 in sample two for engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational fit respectively.

The polynomial regression was conducted by hierarchically testing sets of terms representing models of progressively higher order and stopping when the additional variance explained was no longer significant (Edwards, 1996). To derive final models, individual terms were retained if they were significant when first entered into the model or were required for meaningful coefficient estimates for higher-order terms (Cohen, 1978). Before embarking on these analyses, the independent variables were centered according to the mean (Pedhazur, 1997).

In Table 3, we present the results of the hierarchical analysis leading to the polynomial regression of the relevant higher-order terms. The linear models on all outcomes were statistically significant and revealed multiple correlations that were considerably more explanatory than those that might be explained by the more highly constrained absolute difference method. Significant quadratic models were discovered for job satisfaction in the first sample and for engagement in the second. Additionally, significant cubic models were discovered for engagement in both samples, and job satisfaction and PO fit in sample 2. Although our criteria indicated that we would not explore beyond the last significant model observed, we will give attention to the significant cubic models despite non-significance in the quadratic models. By doing so, we can establish the presence of curvilinearity, while rejecting that of quadratic curvilinearity (Cohen et al., 2003).

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The results of a polynomial regression, congruence analysis are presented in Table 4. The presentation of the perceptual congruence variables are presented in a manner similar to Edwards (2001). Here, X represents perceptions of the leader's PsyCap and Y represents follower PsyCap. R represents the multiple correlations, which are used to compare the models. Additionally, higher-order terms were explored and their hierarchical models for incremental variance explained by introducing the higher order terms. We acknowledge that cubic trends are unlikely, given prior research; however, the methodology calls for tests to be conducted using terms that were *one order higher* than the model being examined. Thus, as in the hierarchical analysis, a cubic equation was explored.

Table 3: Polynomial Regression Analysis Hierarchical Models

	Sample 1			Sample 2		
Hierarchical Model	Employee Engagement	Job Satisfaction	P-O Fit	Employee Engagement	Job Satisfaction	P-O Fit
Linear:						
R^2	.26***	.47***	.48***	.29***	.45***	.49***
$R^2\Delta$	---	---	---	---	---	---
Quadratic:						
R^2	.27***	.48***	.48***	.31**	.46***	.49***
$R^2\Delta$	.01	.02**	.01	02**	.01	.01
Cubic:						
R^2	.28***	.49***	.50***	.34***	.50***	.54***
$R^2\Delta$	.02*	.01	.02*	.03**	.04**	.04**

Note. N = 466 for Sample 1; N = 522 for Sample 2.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 4: Polynomial Regression: Exploratory Tests of Congruence

	Sample 1			Sample 2		
Independent Variable	Employee Engagement	Job Satisfaction	P-O Fit	Employee Engagement	Job Satisfaction	P-O Fit
X	.17*	.37***	.65***	.11*	.17*	.31***
Y	.37***	.71***	.44***	.64***	1.09***	.85***
X^2	-.11	-.19	-.08	-.01	.07	-.04

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XY	.21	-.10	-.17	.50***	.07	.15
Y^2	-.22*	-.61***	-.26*	-.11	-.30*	-.39**
X^3	-.04	.01	-.01	-0.04	.04	-.04
X^2Y	.18*	.15	.16	.16	.01	.17
XY^2	-.01	-.17	-.43**	-.15	.05	-.02
Y^3	-.10	.17	.27*	-.13**	-.14*	-.15**
R	.54***	.70***	.71***	.58***	.71***	.73***

Note. N = 4 for Sample 1; N = 522 elation coefficient for the overall model. All coefficients are significant at $p < .05$ or involve terms required for estimates of higher order terms. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Both independent variables—leader PsyCap and follower PsyCap—were significant contributors to the overall model; however, follower PsyCap was the only significant predictor in the quadratic model, except for employee engagement in the second sample. Of the five significant findings on the quadratic *Y* variable, all were negative. Leader PsyCap, as a quadratic term, was not. This is not completely uncommon in that follower perceptions often carry more explanatory power in congruence research and the results are often predicted more by the follower perception than leaders' perceptions of themselves (Johns, 1981). However, in this case, it is the follower who rated *both* leader and their own PsyCap ratings. The correlations in Table 1 reveal only a modest correlation between the two perceptions generating from the same source. Furthermore, when the follower PsyCap ratings are parsed from the correlations of the leader PsyCap score and the three outcomes, the partial correlations continue to reveal statistically significant relationships.

Similar to the quadratic model, in the cubic model only follower PsyCap revealed a higher-order relationship in all three of the sample two outcomes, and a negative relationship with regard to PO fit in the sample one responses. While the higher-term findings were, in some cases, statistically significant, this does not necessarily mean that they are of consequence, a warning harkened by Pedhazur (1997).

There were few interaction effects. One was discovered for Sample 2 engagement, indicating that both leader and follower PsyCap scores increase to result in enhanced ratings of engagement ($\beta = .50$, $p < .001$). Two statistically-significant, higher-term interactions were discovered: X^2Y and XY^2. While these findings may indicate explanations for the relationships hypothesized in this study, caution should be taken in the interpretation. In order to more fully understand the significant interaction effects, we correlated the two interaction terms with the original independent variables, the relevant criteria, and the higher order terms. We found X^2Y to have a significant, positive correlation with the criterion, in this case employee engagement, and modest, positive correlations with the other terms in the cubic model. The XY^2 term was more problematic. A low positive, zero-order correlation with PO fit and a much higher zero-order correlation with the other third-order term (X^2Y) indicates the possibility of a suppressor effect, especially when the significant negative coefficient is considered ($\beta = -.42$, $p < .01$). Although we found these higher-order interaction effects, unless the underlying theory calls for exploration of these effects, the results are anomalous results, unstable regression coefficients, and higher intercorrelations between predictor variables and terms (Aiken & West, 1991).

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Discussion, Implications, & Limitations

Discussion

Decades of theoretical and empirical research building and extending the theories of person-organization fit have ultimately led to at least two primary conclusions: fit matters, and more fit is usually better for the firm. The same conclusion can be drawn from nearly 50 years of research on job satisfaction with higher job satisfaction being more optimal for both organizations and employees (Judge et al., 2001). Finally, with less history, the management research on employee engagement reveals more engaged employees to usually be associated with higher performing employees. In sum, each of the proximal outcomes examined here are desirable by organizations. In addition, in western-based management models where traditional organized bureaucracies result in most employees having some type of supervisor, leadership research has demonstrated that leader styles and capabilities influence followers. To this end, management theoreticians have considered how supervisors can and do influence these outcomes. Now, with the emergence and apparent sustainability of PsyCap research, a new opportunity has emerged for theory building and testing in this same domain.

Much of the relational demography research (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) has suggested demographic similarities and differences between supervisors and employees transcend mere leader–member exchange influences on employees. In this article, we extend relational demography research by arguing and testing theory espousing similarities and differences within supervisor–employee dyads and move beyond demographic-only differences to include cognitive affective states. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the positive psychological capital (PsyCap) in the leader–follower relationship and how it adds to the discussion regarding person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and employee engagement.

Overall, results of this study indicate that the level of PsyCap similarity between leaders and followers may be influential in how workers perceive their fit with the organization, thus supporting hypothesis 1. In a similar manner, results of this study suggest that employees whose PsyCap is more similar to their leaders have a higher level of engagement with their organization, which supports the second hypothesis of this study, as well as a higher perceived value of job satisfaction, which also shows support for the third hypothesis.

While the extensive research into understanding person–organization fit has done a good job of informing us in many ways, this is the first empirical study to consider the extent of PsyCap and its application to the PO-fit discussion. Furthermore, as discussed, the finding that the importance of congruence can extend beyond simple demographic variables such as relational demography variables (Avey, West, & Crossley, 2008b), values, goals, and personality (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002) warrants consideration of results here as well as future research in the domains of positive organizational behavior and leadership. Although this is primarily a descriptive model, intended to describe how and why these constructs are related, there are several meaningful practical implications of the results.

Implications

One implication of these results is that past demographic, values, goals, and personality studies can be extended to include individual level positive psychological variables such as strengths, abilities, skills (Edwards, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), and now PsyCap (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007b). Therefore, findings from this study suggest that managers who hire employees with similar levels of PsyCap may find higher levels of person-organization fit, employee engagement, and job

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satisfaction. In other words, while previous research has clearly found that employee PsyCap is related to workplace outcomes (e.g., performance, Luthans et al., 2007a), research here suggests it is not only the score of PsyCap that counts (e.g., higher is better) but that the degree of similarity between employee and leader PsyCap may also affect individual functioning in organizations. This suggests that, when employees are high in PsyCap and leaders are low, there can be dysfunctions at the individual level and the employee may have more negative evaluations of both their work environment and the likelihood of future success. This finding also underscores the importance of leader selection with higher PsyCap where possible, as well as support for PsyCap development programs aimed at enhancing overall PsyCap levels of both employees and leaders.

This study offers theoretical implications relative to several areas. First, we answered the call to examine antecedents of person–organization and person–supervisor fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Based on their meta-analysis of organizational fit research, it was concluded that little is known about variables which may lead to better fit and they encouraged future research that can examine this process. By examining PsyCap congruence between the leader and the follower, we help address this deficiency.

Further, our results compliment the findings from leader-member exchange and person–supervisor fit research that suggests a social structure exists between a leader and follower which promotes higher job satisfaction (Schyns & Croon, 2006; Judge & Bono, 2001; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkam, 1982). Similarly, our study compliments the person–organization (PO) fit literature that has found higher job satisfaction with employees who feel more welcomed when working for organizations that have similar views and who hire employees that are analogous (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). More specifically from the P-O fit research, our results follow the findings of Van Vienen (2000) that suggests congruency between supervisors and new employees influences the effectiveness of new employee orientation. Last, we extend theory relative to PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2007b) to now include the impact that the *congruence* between the employee's and leader's level of PsyCap can also have on organizations. This added insight to the PsyCap literature offers an initial step in understanding the potential impact leaders have not only on their employees' psychological capacities but also their employees' work engagement, job satisfaction and perceived organizational fit.

This study also offers practical implications. In terms of development, previous research has suggested that the development of PsyCap is not only possible in the workplace (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008a; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006), but can be a performance enhancer due to the positive relationship between PsyCap and individual performance. Considering the results of this study, the evidence here suggests that PsyCap can also be a meaningful source of positive employee outcomes based on alignment with the supervisor; regardless of the absolute value of PsyCap, counting claims of Fineman (2006) who argues those who are less positive in nature are simply left behind. Therefore, enhancing PsyCap levels of all employees can create significant organizational benefit.

In terms of selection, managers may look for employees who are high in terms of PsyCap. Not only has PsyCap been empirically shown to be directly related to higher levels of performance and job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007a), but it is also logical that employees who are more hopeful, resilient, optimistic, and confident (efficacious) can provide higher value to an organization than can employees lower in these psychological capacities. Additionally, it would seem beneficial for managers and leaders to take measures to increase employees' identification with their organization, such as striving for a higher organizational purpose. In turn, this might enhance employees' feeling they are working for a higher good and higher moral standards, which can also create feelings the organization is a worthy place to work. Finally, a practical application of our findings suggests that organizations could use this

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information to help reduce turnover. By developing ways to increase the PsyCap similarity between a leader and his or her employees (e.g., reassignment or appropriate placement for adequate person-supervisor fit in terms of PsyCap, developing PsyCap of both employees and the leaders), organizations would garner the benefits of employees feeling more satisfied and fitting into the organizational culture.

Limitations

This study also has limitations that should be discussed. First, the cross-sectional nature of this study prohibits any interpretation leading to causation-related conclusions. Studies that are cross-sectional are taken at a point in time, which cannot determine with certainty the direction of the relationships found. For example, by finding a significant relationship between leader–follower PsyCap congruence and employees' work-related engagement, we cannot say with certainty that this congruence creates higher levels of employee engagement. However, by finding a significant relationship, we create a platform for future studies that might be better able to explore this relationship over time and in different contexts which ultimately leads to a better understanding of the cause and effect relationship.

Another limitation is that, by having the employees rate their own PsyCap and their leader's PsyCap, we risk common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, since we are exploring the employee's perceived job satisfaction, engagement, and organizational fit relative to their perception of their manager's PsyCap level, it is perhaps justifiable to have the employee rate these variables as supported by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005). There is a strong historical background in psychological research that individuals can only assess their fit in a given situation as they perceive it (Caplan, 1987; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). As a result, the perceptions of the followers may actually reflect their reality rather than artifactual bias. However, in order to add rigor, post-hoc analyses were conducted to examine the possible presence of common method variance. Results from both Harmon's one-factor test and the partial correlation procedures did not support the presence of common method variance. Therefore, perhaps this limitation is eliminated or at least minimized (Spector, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

Conclusion

This study explored the relationship between an employee's and his or her leader's level of PsyCap congruence and extends several related theoretical bases. By exploring these theoretical areas, we gain insight into boundaries and limitations of these theories. Additionally, by exploring the intersection of various areas of research, we can extend these theories to areas perhaps never before anticipated. It is through these extensions that we can perhaps gain significant practical and theoretical knowledge. Specifically, by merging research from person-organization and person-supervisor fit and PsyCap and exploring the impact on positive outcomes, such as employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organizational fit, we gain insight into how these variables interact and the positive organizational impact that can result.

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AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER LEARNING INSTITUTION: A CASE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY MALAYSIA (IIUM).

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This study investigated the pattern of authentic leadership. The purpose of this study is to test if self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency are predictors of authentic leadership among administrative heads at International Islamic University IIUM. An authentic leader reflects the extent to which there is congruence between leader's actions, intention, moral compasses, self-reflexivity, self-concept, self-development, altruistic actions, authenticity, psychological well-being, and internal regulation. This research is a case study, focusing on data collected from administrative staff at IIUM. The results of the regression indicated that the four predictors (self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency) explained authentic leadership. The tested model provides empirical evidence about the pattern of authentic leadership in higher education, thus confirming the presence of authentic leadership in organizations.

Higher institutions have been geared to achieve world standards of excellence. This has put a lot of demands on leadership style. Leadership in an academic learning environment is not just a focus on the organization's needs but is inclusive of the mission of the nation (Voon, Lo, Ngui, & Peter 2009). The International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM) is among the twenty (20) public universities in Malaysia, established in 1982 after the 1977 first World Conference on Islamic education, with the mission of integrating values and professional ethics in its curriculum. Surprisingly, in almost three decades of existence, leadership notion that exists in IIUM remains a neglected perspective. That is, to date there are no studies undertaken to explore any form of leadership notion that exists within the university. On a broader plane, existing literature on leadership in Malaysian Higher Education indicates that leadership studies in universities are just evolving. Previous studies on leadership in Malaysia higher education shows that only 23.6 % of the collected data are from public universities,

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while 68.6% are of private universities (data adapted from Voon et al., 2009; Lo, Ramayah, & Run, 2009). The Malaysian National Philosophy on Education (NPE) aims at developing student potentials in a holistic and integrated manner, with the production of individuals with value- oriented mind and disposition (Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) 2006). This is rooted to the first conference on Islamic education. IIUM internalized this in adopting her philosophy, which is internalization, Islamization, integration, and comprehensive excellence to provide a link between religion and western education. The congruence of the NPE and IIUM philosophical stance—which is the integration of values and professional ethics—necessitate the institution leadership evaluation. As a basic assumption, ideal leadership styles, behavior, and practice in Islam is expected to be in line with the Islamic system of leadership. However, the leadership system is feared to be infiltrated with other leadership systems because IIUM, unlike other public institutions in Malaysia, was established and incorporated as a company. Additionally, the global village phenomenon might have significant influence on its leader's behaviour especially with its international make-up of both the students and staff from more than 96 countries across the globe. It is also feared that one may find matching problems of ethical and moral decline of leadership due to this heterogeneity, despite IIUM predication on Islamic virtues. The infiltrations into the institutions could be related, as argued by Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005a), that:

> With today's pressures to promote style over substance, dress for success, embrace flavor-of-the month fads and fashions, and compromise one's values to satisfy …… thirst for quarterly profits, the challenge of knowing, showing, and remaining true to one's real self at work has never been greater. (p. 344)

According to Gardner, Avolio, and Walumbwa (2005b), leader's authenticity involves acting in accordance with thoughts. In addition to congruence with thoughts, leader's authenticity is a function of the moral self and transparent strength. In IIUM context, authenticity may be presumably theoretical, taking into account the philosophy, social, political, and cultural environment (heterogeneity) of which IIUM is situated; it might be logically possible to arrive at different conclusions. Most authentic leadership theories argue for standards of leader's behaviour and call for greater congruence between what leaders profess and what they do (Gardner et al., 2005b; Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005). This is a phenomenon most required by institutions of higher learning due to their roles in nation building and human capacity development. Most prior studies on authentic leadership (AL) focused on specific contexts and sectors such as the top executives and CEOs of corporate organizations (George, Sim, Mclean, & Mayer, 2007); auditors' behaviour (Morris, 2010) corporate organization (Roux, 2010; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) and military leadership (Beyer, 2010). Despite these widespread acknowledgments of the importance of authentic leadership, as an emerging theory in education, yet there is little empirical evidence. Against this backdrop, the purpose of this study is to test if self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency are predictors of authentic leadership among administrative heads in IIUM.

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Values of Authenticity in Management

After several decades of focus on leadership from various perspectives, the spotlight is now changing (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), and this leads to the empirical study on leadership in contemporary society, to take entirely different dimensions from trait-based theories, behavior theory, contingency theory, to self-regulation (Avolio & Chan, 2008). The ultimate goal of scholars in this era appears to be in line with a strong desire to train and develop leaders that are proactive, foster positive environments, and conduct business in an ethical, socially-responsible manner (Cooper et al., 2005). In other to achieve these goals, authentic leadership study had become increasingly important social phenomenon, a focal point, and a huge task for scholars and researchers in all knowledge domains. As expressed by Schwann and Spady (1998), authentic leaders define and establish the moral philosophical bedrock for organisation to operate and in turn define the absolute core of the organisation existence. Moreover, they are more value-driven, ethical, credible, people-centered and compassionate (Smith, Bhindi, Hansen, Riley, & Rall, 2008). In many ways, this new spotlight is to be welcomed.

Authenticity as a concept gained global consideration recently due to the challenges faced by conflicting stream of social pressure, thus resulting in the self=entrapped in moral dilemmas (Novicevicet al., 2006). Generally, authenticity is defined in leadership literatures as absence of self-deception, recognition of any short-comings, striving for the fulfillments of individual potentials, having self-awareness of purpose, taking full responsibilities for one's error, and being one's true self (Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Sparrowe, 2005; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang 2005). Within this context, authenticity is an inner attitude that reflects the inner core—a true self, within an individual domain; from which an individual moral self-concept can be observed and influence positive behaviours as leaders and the actions as leadership. This notion is also supported by Chan, Hannah, and Gardner (2005), from a social cognitive lens. They suggested that authenticity has two features: (1) the presence and awareness of a core self within the self-system; and (2) presentation of self to align with core self. From a psychological lens, Kernis (2003) asserted that authenticity can be characterized as reflecting the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self. Avolio and Gardner (2005), from a moral perspective, asserted that leaders are described authentic if they undergo rigorous self-reflection to understand their moral compasses, and engage in practices appropriate to inner self-perception.

Thus, the new leadership paradigm requires leaders with a stable philosophical and psychological self, for the continuity of the organization as a social system. Arguably, researchers and/or practitioners are of the opinion that, with the development and study of authentic leaders, leaders' preferential interests are overtly taken by self-awareness, self-regulations, positive modeling, ethical reasoning, relational transparency, and balanced processing. They lead through a solid understanding of their moral, ethical and inner self, with greater self-awareness and self-regulation of positive behaviors in themselves and those that they lead (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). In addition, authentic leadership is considered (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Begley, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008; George, 2003) to be particularly important in achieving organizational objectives, and in evoking effectiveness among subordinates. Also, authentic leaders might be the employees' saving grace from the shackles of leaders who have their personal interest at heart before considering others. By professing positive images, the preferential interests of leaders are blindsided, submerged, and buried by the needs of groups, organization, community, and culture. If not (Begley, 2003), they join the congregation of failed leaders. While all this may seem to be positive

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attributes of authentic leaders, understandably there is a deliberating question against authentic leadership study and development that poses challenges: how do individuals shun preferential interest for the collective interest of the organization? Secondly, how do leaders reconcile their preferential interests with those of the organization? Consequentially, there might be a mismatch between individual personality and organization roles when leaders compromise their values, integrity, identity, images, and morality by acting against their moral consciousness.

Values of Authenticity in Educational Setting

The study on authentic leadership stems from management however, several researchers of educational management have appealed for the study of authentic leadership to be in educational setting. They have offered arguments that, due to the prevailing milieu of cynicism on falling leadership standards, there is a growing concern on how educational organizations are managed. Inevitably, education cannot divorce itself from the shared fabric of societal decadence (Begley, 2003; Duignan, 2004; Smith et al., 2008). In addition, for learners to understand the moral purpose of learning, it is essential to have and develop authentic leaders in the institutional bedrock of communities (Begley & Stefkovich, 2007). The above argument is based on the notion that authentic leaders align a school improvement agenda within a value-based moral purpose. This argument seems particularly persuasive given the breadth and depth of the challenge to foster education on a moral purpose, which is overtly taken over by a market-sensitive educational system.

Another argument is that an authentic leader leads through self-concept; through this, they transform teaching and learning beyond the current stage and sustain the ethics and moral behaviour in the learning environment to what can be emulated by teachers and students (Duignan, 2007). This self-concept fosters a deeper self-knowledge, which assists leaders to challenge their existing worldviews, to determine how actions are translated perceived and inculcated (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). The aim of education is to bring productive teaching and learning to the school environment (Duignan, 2004; Sergiovanni, 1992), creating rounded students. In order to achieve this valid and valued outcome, there are increasing calls for leaders in education to become more dynamic, open, and trustworthy, and with improved performance, efficacy, and effectiveness. However, transforming schools from ordinary organizations to learning environments requires one to be in touch with basic moral values (Sergiovanni, 1992). Despite agreement among researchers about the importance of authentic leadership study in education as a basic supposition, such theory might not be proper for educational leadership advancement. Much prior research has examined the efficacy of other developed theories (transformational and transactional leadership) as it is applicable to leadership in educational context.

Accordingly, Robinson (2006) argued that such leadership theories were developed for management and other fields and might not properly capture the challenge faced by education leaders in the course of leading contemporary schools. Robinson (2006) supports her contention from current literatures on leadership, that substantial research on educational leadership literature are majorly of debates about the merits of various leadership theories, or of empirical research assessing the degree to which educational leaders exemplify the qualities of the selected theory. Adding to these, the efficacy of leadership theories and how they impact student outcome (Robinson, 2006; Mascall, Leithwood, Straus, & Sacks, 2008) remains a major challenge of leadership in the educational sector. Moreover, to make peace

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with two competing imperatives which are managerial and moral (Sergiovanni, 2006) are vital for the functionality of any society. Furthermore, how can education leaders be ethical role models or moral emulators that encourage followers to discover and establish their own internal set of moral principles and ideals, (Lawrence & Sharma, 2002) when knowledge is commodified? Kazmi (2009) argued that, when knowledge is reduced to a commodity, our intellectual horizons are sharply diminished, weakening the ability to meet the new challenges constructively. A crucial point is that to lead effectively in higher education (HE) requires a richly blended nature of strategic intent, basic relationship skills, atmosphere of trust, and sense of purpose, plus understanding the historical, traditional, and social philosophy on education and how it impact education.

In Malaysian context, research on higher education leadership, unlike research in other fields (engineering and health, etc.), is mostly not associated with improvement of teaching and learning, student outcomes, and balancing the dual role of education as a vehicle for national development and self-development. A further problem with existing leadership research in Malaysia is the lack of research on the impact of culture on leadership situatedness, developing framework on leadership efficacy across higher education sector and importantly how the empirical study on the subject can be a product for national development and not a product for university library shelves. This separation has meant that theoretical and empirical work on leadership does not yet serve the goal of educational improvement, even though the Malaysian Higher Education Academy (AKEPT) is assumed to perform these roles.

Authentic Leadership Construct Defined

The conception of authentic leadership stems from convergence of theoretical stream (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, & May, 2004; Luthans & Avolio, 2003), positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002a; 2002b), authenticity (Kernis, 2003), and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In an attempt to conceptualize authentic leadership, various theoretical models have been developed (Kernis, 2003; Ilies et al., 2005, Gardner et al., 2005a; Walumbwa et al., 2008) and highlighted to reflect the various components and features such as authenticity, self-realization, and eudaemonic well-being. The empirical relevance of authentic leadership theory was also empirically evaluated by (Walumbwa et al., 2008). In Kernis study, self-awareness, unbiased processing, authentic behavior/action, and relational authenticity were considered as basic components towards authenticity as part of optimal self-esteem (Kernis, 2003). Drawing on these authenticity studies (Kernis, 2003; Goldman & Kernis, 2002), Ilies et al. (2005) adapted Kernis' theoretical components stated above to reflect leaders' and followers' eudaemonic well-being (self -realization), using the same components as Kernis' (2003) model. The study further relates authentic leadership components "to personal characteristics that have been linked to leadership or well-being in existing theoretical models—positive self-concept, personal integrity, and emotional intelligence" (Ilies et al. 2005, p. 377).

Gardner et al. (2005a) integrated the various theoretical models and definitions of authentic leadership to propose a self-based model for the development of authentic leaders and followers. This integrated model focused on the core self-awareness and self-regulation components of authentic leadership, which serve as the theoretical foundation for the recent extensions of authentic leadership metaphors. Equally, Gardner et al. (2005a) frame their authentic leadership components from Kernis' (2003) authenticity research, and Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory. However, they recast the term "unbiased

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processing" to "balanced processing," to recognise studies from social psychology lens. Similarly, Avolio and Gardner's (2005) model recast Kernis' (2003) authenticity components, and proposed the following authentic leadership components: positive moral perspective, self-awareness, and self-regulations (balanced processing, relational transparency and internalised). The latter's model used the term balanced processing and not unbiased processing to recognize researches from cognitive psychology. Similarly, the term "relational transparency" was used since it seemed to be more descriptive than "relational authenticity"—it reflects an open and transparent manner at which authentic leaders and followers are theorized to share information with each other and close others.

It is worth noting that there are contentious arguments among researchers either to include or exclude a moral component from the construct of authentic leadership. Although, Luthans and Avolio (2003) conceptualized that authentic leadership and its development includes an inherent ethical/moral component, Gardner et al. (2005b), and Avolio and Gardner (2005) asserted that the construct of authentic leadership needs a positive moral/ethical component. It is contended that authentic leaders are moral agents that have high moral standards and capacities to judge moral dilemmas. They are, however, of the view that positive moral perspective is crucial to the emerging work on authentic leadership development. Other researchers (e.g. Cooper et al., 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Sparrowe, 2005) argued against the construct having a moral component, stressing that it dilutes the construct. Furthermore, Cooper et al. (2005) suggest that studies on authentic leadership are better predicated on consensus regarding theoretical frameworks and investigation methods.

While emphasis was also placed on the notion that knowledge cannot be advanced in a cumulative manner without reaching consensus, Cooper's study further established the view that lack of consensus in prior research (e.g. Leader Member Exchange) leads to the replication of efforts to create the measure of a single phenomenon. And thus, the research resulting from these various measures were not directly comparable. The authors concur further that authentic leadership scholars need to give careful consideration to four critical issues: defining and measuring the construct, determining the discriminant validity of the construct, identifying relevant construct outcomes (i.e., testing the construct's nomological network), and ascertaining whether authentic leadership can be taught. In an attempt to conceptualize what constitutes authentic leadership constructs, Cooper et al. (2005) outlined research issues that formed the origin of Walumbwa et al.'s (2008) authentic leadership construct definition, measurement, and validity that is "to lay the necessary conceptual and empirical groundwork for advancing authentic leadership theory and development" (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 99).

Furthermore, Walumbwa et al.'s (2008) authentic leadership construct conceptualization is predicted on research by Avolio and Gardner (2005), Gardner et al. (2005a), and Ilies et al. (2005) for three reasons: (1) it is firmly rooted in the extant social psychological theory and research; (2) it explicitly recognizes and articulates the central role of internalized moral perspective to authentic leadership and its development; and (3) it focuses explicitly on the development of authentic leaders and authentic followers. They developed the following definition of authentic leadership through the modification of Luthans and Avolio's (2003) definition to advance a refined definition that reflects the underlying dimensions of the Gardner, et al. (2005a) and Ilies et al. (2005) constructs:

> …as a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self awareness, and internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of

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> information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering self-development. (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 94)

Walumbwa et al. (2008) viewed authentic leadership as being composed of five distinct and substantive components, which are: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized regulation (i.e., authentic behavior), balanced processing of information, and positive moral perspective. The internalized regulation processes and authentic behavior were further combined into a single concept (internalized moral perspective), because the two concepts were conceptually equivalent (both involve exhibiting behaviors) from a self-determination theory perspective. As explained by Walumbwa et al. (2008), in an attempt to operationalize the authentic leadership construct, there are conceptual overlaps between the internalized regulation and positive moral perspective dimensions. Additionally, these dimensions were collapsed into a single dimension—Internalized Moral Perspective, which involves a leader's inner drive to achieve behavioral integrity. The four constructs of authentic leadership, as identified by Walumbwa's research, formed the basis of this research. It might be safely stated at this end that the study on authentic leadership may continue to be a subject of discourse among researchers. Towards this end, an attempt should be made by educational leadership studies to align these grey areas. Before aligning the grey areas, there is a need to gather knowledge about the construct.

Self–Awareness (SA). The notion is that self-awareness is a central element in authentic leadership study, with an interest on identifying how self-awareness can be perceived in leader's behaviours. According to Klenke (2005), self-awareness is the degree to which an individual is aware of various aspects of self-identities, and congruent with the ways they are perceived by others. Self–awareness then is a measure of the ability to be truly conscious of self-components and to observe it without prejudice. The majority of literature on self-awareness suggests that it involves awareness of, and trust in, individual personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions. Self-awareness also includes knowledge of inherent contradictory self-aspects and the role of these contradictions, in influencing thoughts, feelings, actions, and behaviors (Ilies et al., 2005). However, Sparrowe (2005) argued that authenticity is more than self-awareness of one's inner values or purpose, but instead it is emergent from the narrative process in which others play a constituent role in the self. Gardner et al. (2005b) pointed out that:

> …Thus, one can say it is not sufficient to simply be self-aware of what constitutes the moral and ethical ''right thing to do,'' it requires that the leader and follower are able to focus their choices, actions and behaviors via self regulation to take what they know to turn it into moral and ethical behavior. (p. 390)

The researchers believed that authentic leaders experience a heightened level of self–awareness, which is a core component of authentic leadership. Thus, self-awareness is necessary for effective leadership, class room practitioners, and administrators. They requires being aware of their moral and ethical strengths and weaknesses. As such, if self-awareness is lacking, it is difficult for educational leaders to take a moral stand and/or adopt new behaviors, if needs warrant doing so. If higher education leaders are (Burns, 1978) to respond as moral agents, self-awareness is essential for behavioral change (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993), which requires that self-awareness is predicted by positive self-concept (Ilies et al.,

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2003). Shamir and Eilam (2005) advocate that, to become authentic, leaders need to develop a high level of self-concept, which is centered on a stable sense of self-knowledge and strongly-held values and convictions.

Relational Transparency (RT). The basis for relational transparency is found in Kernis' (2003) research, which was referred to as relational authenticity. Relational authenticity involves endorsing the importance for others to see the real you, either good or bad. Authentic leaders are transparent in expressing their true emotions and feelings (Gardner et al. 2005a). Concurrently, they regulate such emotions to reduce displays of inappropriate emotions. By responding transparently to moral dilemmas, authentic leaders become ethical role models (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004). Nevertheless, Hughes (2005) argued that relational transparency results from the leader's self-disclosure which comprises of four aspects: goals/motives, identity, values and emotions (GIVE). The leader is transparent to the follower when making ethical decisions and, to be transparent, one must first be self-aware of one's weaknesses and strengths.

The disclosures of information between leaders and followers also reflect on the level of transparency that exists from the leaders to followers (Gardner et al., 2005a). Authentic relations entail selective processes of self-disclosure and the development of common understanding and trust. Based on the available information from the literature, it is believed that relational transparency entails responding to who you are. That is the fusion of internal and external true self without portraying a different entity within and outside the organization. Portraying the true self assists in building relationships, trust, and care. Furthermore, Duignan and Bhindi (1997) argue, the quality of relationship influences everything else that happens in the organization, inclusive of the quality of the organization. If a leader could identify, understand, and implement the components of Hughes's self-disclosure (goals/motives, identity, values and emotions), then the authentic self of learners and followers is unleashed. These might create a shift in the learner's orientation to learning rather than the perceived orientation to learn for glamorous employment (Hashim & Hassan, 2008). Thus, the priority of learning is to discover the real self within the passage of time spent while schooling.

Internalized Moral Perspective (IMP). At the very heart of the leadership relationship is an essential moral consideration. Recent leadership literature recognizes the growing meditation on values and taking value-positions (Begley, 2003). The degree of commitment of the organization's leader to ethical conduct and values are very important and thus influence the followers and the organization in a positive way. Walumbwa et al. (2008) are of the notion that self-regulation is "guided by internal moral standards and values versus group, organizational, and societal pressures, and it results in expressed decision making and behavior that is consistent with these internalized values" (p. 96). Leaders exhibit ethical behaviors when they are doing what is morally right, just, and good. When they do so, they help to elevate followers' awareness and moral self-actualization. Thus, followers' moral self-development is proactively shaped by the leader's moral behaviour (Zhu, 2008). This will lead followers to inculcate and possibly demonstrate high moral values, beliefs, emotions, motives, and goals through the modeling of leader's positive behavior. Hannah, Lester, and Vogelgesang (2005) defined the moral component of authentic leadership "as the exercise of altruistic, virtuous leadership by a highly developed leader who acts in concert with his or her self-concept to achieve agency over the moral aspects of his or her leadership domain" (p. 44). Thus, in education, a leader is a role model who sets high standards for

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moral and ethical conduct, and for moral emulation, a reflective practice by having a strong moral compass, values and goals. This leads to behaviors and decisions that promote ethical policies, procedures, and processes within the learning environment.

Balanced Processing of Information (BP). Balanced processing of information can be comprehended by taking into consideration how motivational biases impact the processes by which people with low or fragile high self-esteem opt for and understand information (Kernis, 2003). Begley's (2003) point of argument is that there is need for frameworks and ways of thinking that will encompass the full range of human motivations and valuation processes as it relates to leadership practices and serves as a guide to action, particularly as a support to ethical resolution of dilemmas. Ethics and moral and valuation models are important for institutional leadership to serve as rubrics, benchmarks, social standards of practice, and templates for moral action. To serve as templates for moral action, balanced processing refers to the impartial collection of relevant self-related information, either positive or negative in nature. That is, the leader does not distort, exaggerate, or ignore externally based evaluations of the self nor internal experiences and private knowledge that might inform self-development (Gardner et al., 2005a). Balanced processing of information involves being aware of and attuned to one's weaknesses and strengths, and care is taken to deflect from the weakness angle when needs call for it. They also solicit views that challenge their deeply-held positions (Gardner et al., 2005a). Taken together, balanced processing refers to leaders who show that they objectively scrutinize all pertinent information before making any conclusion.

Research Design and Methodologies

The research was conducted at the main campus of the International Islamic University Malaysia (IIUM). Data about authentic leadership were collected from administrative staff of IIUM, voluntarily with no reimbursement for their participation. They were asked to rate the authentic leadership of their respective administrative heads. In all the administrative staff, workforces are one thousand eight hundred and nine (1809). The male staff comprises of eight hundred and sixteen (816) and the female staff consisted of nine hundred and ninety three (993).One goal of this study was to provide quantitative evidence about the emerging theory of leadership from an educational perspective. Based on the adopted rater version, the 16 questions from the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ) clustered into four categories or constructs, which are: RT, relational transparency (5 items); IM, internalized moral perspective (4 items); BP, balanced processing of information (3 items); and SA, self-awareness (4 items). The respondents rate leaders as authentic using a 0-4-point Likert-type scale choice, ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). Work by Walumbwa et al. particularly addressed validity questions among samples in the United States, the People's Republic of China, and Kenya by investigating hypothesized relationships of authentic leadership for construct support and concluded that a second-order four-factor model best fit the data to account for the dependence between each of the factors and that the convergent validity among the four factors suggested a higher-order factor of authentic leadership.

Currently there are 20 public universities in Malaysia and the sample is selected from administrative staff of IIUM only. Therefore, one must be cautious in generalizing these results to all administrative staff working in the Malaysian universities or higher institutions of learning. Secondly, quota sampling technique was used for data collection. The limitation

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is due to the difficulty of manageability, financial, and time constraints. For authentic leaders in higher education to purport what they truly means, it is not a gain saying there is a long rough road ahead, which is also challenging. Drawing upon literature and based on the present research context, the researchers hypothesized that:

$H_{1:}$ Self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency are predictors of AL.

Sample

The study populations were full-time administrative staff members of selected departments at IIUM, representing almost 18% of the total population of administrative staff. Based on quota sampling procedure, the total of 320 academic, management and professional administrative staff members from ten departments were selected to participate in the study. The respondents were comprised of assistant directors, administrative executives, administrative assistant, middle managers and administrative and technical support staff. A total of 235 questionnaires were returned, representing a 73.4% return rate. Different strategies were used to increase response rates in order to obtain the achieved sample targets. By most social science standards, this achieved sample is relatively large.

Analysis procedures. The analyses were conducted using descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis (MRA). The data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science for Windows Version 16.0 (SPSS).

FINDINGS

Description of variables

Descriptive statistics of the demographic characterization are reported in Table 1. 235 responses were obtained from the original response distribution of 320 respondents. However, 21 responses were discarded due to incomplete information. There are altogether 40.2% males and 59.8% females. Table 1, shows the respondents' age distribution: 27.1% were between 25–30 years old, 25.7% were between 41–45 years old, 19.1% were between 36 – 40 years old, 13.6% were between 46 – 50 years old, 13.1% were between 31–35 years old, 0.9% were older than 51 years old. This study did show that the majority of respondents are within the 25-30 years old range. In terms of respondents' working experience, 29.4% have served less than 5 years' experience; followed by 29% respondents have been working between 11–15 years, 19.6% work at the institution between 6–10 years, 15% respondents have been working between 16–20 years, and the remaining 7% respondents have been working in the institution for more than 21 years. This indicates that highest working experience categorization fell between 1–5 years. The respondents' academic qualifications were as follows: degree, 51.4%; diploma, 29.9%; SPM, 17.3%; and masters, 1.4%. In sum, descriptive findings reveal that the study sample had a greater proportion of female respondents aged 30 years or below, with a larger proportion of respondents that are degree holders, and that the majority has served less than 5 years.

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Table1: Descriptive Statistics (N=320)

		Number of administrative staff	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	86	40.2
	Female	128	59.8
Age	25–30 years	58	27.1
	31–35 years	28	13.1
	36–40 years	42	19.6
	41–45 years	55	25.7
	46–50 years	29	13.6
	51+ years	2	.9
Numbers of years employed	1–5 years	63	29.4
	6–10 years	42	19.6
	11–15 years	62	29.0
	16–20 years	32	15.0
	21+ years	15	7.0
Academic qualifications	SPM	37	17.3
	Diploma	64	29.9
	Degree	110	51.4
	Masters	3	1.4

For this particular study, the estimated internal consistency alphas (Cronbach's alpha) for each of the measures were as shown in table 2: relational transparency (RT), 0.84; internalized moral perspective (IM), 0.78; balanced processing (BP), 0.74; and self-awareness (SA) 0.84. This study indicates that staff rates the authentic leadership of administrative heads as moderately high on all the dimensions of AL, as indicated in table 2. The mean (M) for relational transparency dimension is 2.89 with standard deviation (SD) 0.80; internalised moral perspective has M = 2.87, SD = 0.78; balanced processing of information M = 2.78, SD = 0.85; and self-awareness M = 2.8, SD = 0.83.

Table 2: Scale reliability and descriptive statistics of authentic leadership dimension

Construct	Alpha	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Relational Transparency	.84	.60	4.00	2.89	.80
Internalized Moral	.78	.75	4.00	2.87	.78
Balanced processing of information	.74	1.3	4.00	2.79	.85
Self–Awareness	.84	.88	4.00	2.82	.83

Table 3 reports the means and standard deviations of staff's responses to authentic leadership variables. The mean ratings for authentic leadership ranged from 2.762 to 2.9766, standard deviations ranged from 0.87883 to 1.08467. All the items were found to have a mean score greater than 2.7 on a 0 - 4-point scale. With the mean score greater than the average anchor point, it is an indication that the authenticity of administrative heads is perceived to be fairly high. The least-rated item is BP10 (from balanced processing of

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information constructs) and the most rated items are RT 1 & RT 3 (from relational transparency constructs).

Table 3: Rating of authentic leadership items

Codes	Item numbers	Mean	Std. Deviation
BP10	16	2.7103	1.06157
RT 5	15	2.7523	0.94911
SA14	14	2.762	1.0809
SA15	13	2.7804	0.99924
SA16	12	2.7944	1.04579
BP 11	11	2.8037	1.06095
RT 2	11	2.8037	1.04759
IMP 9	9	2.8411	1.08467
IMP 6	8	2.8551	0.87883
BP 12	8	2.8551	1.03122
IMP 8	6	2.8785	1.03652
IMP 7	5	2.9112	1.02850
SA13	4	2.9252	0.90591
RT4	3	2.9439	1.04663
RT1	1	2.9766	1.05902
RT 3	1	2.9766	1.01834

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test if self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing of information, and internalized moral perspective are predictor variables of authentic leadership, using the following equation:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \ + \beta_2 X_2 ++\ \beta_3 X_3 + \ +\beta_4 X_4 + + e$$

Where Y = Authentic Leadership, X_1= Relational Transparency, X_2 = Internalized Moral Perspective, X_3 = Balanced Processing of Information, X_4 = Self-Awareness and e = unobservable influence of any omitted variables.

Table 4 presents information about the model summary. Using the enter method, it was found that a statistically significant model emerged $R^2 = 0.793$ F (3, 210) = 11155.269, $p < 0.001$). Adjusted R square (0.793) indicates that 79.3% of the variance is substantially explained by the four construct/predictor variables of AL. The four predictor variables accounted for 79.6% of the variance of authentic leadership. According to the standardized beta coefficients (β), it was found that the four predictor variables predicted Authentic Leadership in the following pattern: self-awareness (β = 0.424, p = 0.001), internalised moral perspective (β = 0.353 p = 0.001), relational transparency (β = 0.236, p = 0.001), and balanced processing of information (β = 0.127, p = 0.001). Multicollinearity was assessed using multiple regression collinearity diagnostics. Thus, multicollinearity occurs if a tolerance value is less than .10 and variance inflation factors (VIF) values are above 10 (Pallant, 2005). The VIF for the predictor variables are as follows: self–awareness = 2.96, internalised moral perspective = 2.41, relational transparency = 2.91, and balanced processing of information = 3.60, while the tolerance values are: self-awareness = 0.338, internalised moral perspective = 0.414, relational transparency = 0.456, and balanced processing of information = 0.277. Significant variables are shown below:

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Table 4: Regression Results

Construct	*B*	*SEB*	β
Self-Awareness	5.855	.091	.424
Internalized Moral	4.508	.079	.353
Relational Transparency	3.756	.187	.263
Balance Processing of Information	1.824	.167	.127

Note. $R^2 = .763$ ($p < .001$).
**$p < .001$.

Discussion and Implications

This study investigated patterns of authentic leadership, which prior evidence has suggested is consequential for students to understand the moral purpose of learning (Hodgkinson, 1991; Smith et al., 2008) through their leaders, teachers, and those who assist with teaching and learning. Authentic leadership constructs have been conceptualized to have four dimensions: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized morals, and balanced processing of information (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This concept of the leader's authenticity patterns suggested that the more the leaders are authentic the more productive contributions they make to organizational outcomes (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Gardner et al., 2005a). We hypothesized that: Self-awareness, balanced processing of information, internalized moral perspective, and relational transparency are predictor variables of AL in IIUM. The responses of the 214 administrative staff in IIUM provide evidence to test the study objective. Nevertheless, one must be cautious in generalizing these results to all administrative staff working in the Malaysian universities or higher institutions of learning, due to the limitation of the sample size.

With these limitations in mind, results provide support for our initial hypothesis. The tested model is positive, significant, and the values for the predictor variables are within limits, indicating absence of multicollinearity. That is, each of the predictor variables is different from one another. The standardized beta coefficient result indicates that self-awareness strongly predicts authentic leadership and contributes the utmost strength of the relationship to authentic leadership. This was followed by internalised moral perspective, relational transparency and balanced processing of information respectively. The self-awareness t-value and small p-value suggest that it has a large impact on authentic leadership. These findings are in parallel view with Walumbwa et al. (2008) and Gardner et al. (2005b), that self-awareness constitutes the core component of authentic leadership and its development. Self-awareness, however, may be an influence on the development of different patterns of authentic leadership, as an antecedent variable. When administrative heads hold high levels of such self-awareness, they may be much more likely to develop the authenticity of their colleagues in efforts to improve higher learning. Additionally, it also adds support to the notion that internalised moral perspective is a required component of authentic leadership. The present generation has witnessed one of the most devastated finance and mortgage industrial collapse as never before in the history of mankind since the Great Depression (Novicevic et al., 2006), due to leaders' lack of authenticity and ignoring ethical considerations when making decision (Begley, 2003; 2006).

For these reasons and more, the practical implication of authentic leadership as contended is significant to the educational sector and other vital sectors of society. Thus, the

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practical implications of these results depend on the notion that, to restore the moral purpose of education, we need to have leaders that are authentic in their dealings and dispositions. Therefore, authentic leadership theory is a response to the managerial and corporate meltdowns (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Cooper et al., 2005), which pushed a significant need for genuine leadership, characterized by self-concept, integrity, morality, self-regulation, transparent self, and an ability to better cope with fast-changing, turbulent organizational contexts.

This study demonstrates two important practical implications. First, the findings indicate that participants view their leaders as authentic leaders in IIUM. This supports authentic leadership theory and suggests that authentic leaders are present in a wide variety of organizations (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Second, the findings show that authentic leaders exhibit high levels of self-awareness, as well as high levels of internalised moral perspective, relational transparency, and balanced processing of information. This might indicate that authentic leaders will potentially place organizational and followers' needs above their own needs and will pursue ethical practices that will ultimately benefit learning. In turbulent decision-making periods, leaders will allow their individual values to align with organizational and professional values. Lastly, this study might provide a starting point and benchmark for future research in the area of authentic leadership pattern. The study of authentic leadership in higher education is just evolving. As such, this study provides an initial theoretical framework and preliminary findings that can serve as impetus for future research. Normative approaches to authentic leadership will need to find an avenue in which leaders and staff work together to share leadership in a planned and aligned ways. By supporting each other in trustful, mutual, and positive ways, such an approach may lead to improving schools, and ultimately lead to student achievement.

In sum, today's higher education needs leaders who will exemplify and execute authentic behaviours that seeks to benefit higher learning over personal preferential self-interest. This study indicates that such leaders are present in IIUM. It is hoped that this finding has contributed to the corpus of knowledge on authentic leadership development, as it is applicable to educators, bearing in mind the arguments of Robinson (2006) and Mascall et al. (2008). Secondly, it might be useful for IIUM in its development strategy; and lastly, it might assist Malaysian Higher Education Academy (AKEPT) to develop a framework on leadership which will be a product for national development and not only a product for universities' library shelves.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF A HOMOGENEOUS TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP CLIMATE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

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This study puts a core assumption of the recently-emerged concept of transformational leadership (TFL) climate under direct empirical scrutiny; namely, that it is not only the average level (i.e., the mean perceptions among employees), but also the level of homogeneity (i.e., the variance in perceptions) which is important for understanding the effect of TFL climate on organizational outcomes. By developing and testing an interaction hypothesis in a dual-source dataset containing 107 small- and medium-sized organizations, we extend previous knowledge in two important ways. First, we extend the limited empirical evidence on TFL climate by relating it for the first time to organizational performance. Second, we test the previously assumed, but never investigated, assumption of homogeneity for the TFL climate construct at the organizational level. Our results show that it is important to investigate such underlying core assumptions, as the average level of TFL climate was found to relate more strongly to organizational performance with increasing levels of homogeneity in TFL climate.

A notion which recently emerged in the leadership literature is that a transformational leadership (TFL) climate arises when employees throughout an organization perceive that their leaders show similar levels of TFL behaviors. In 2010, Walter and Bruch argued, and subsequently demonstrated, that TFL climates exist and differ between organizations. More specifically, they showed that organizations with stronger TFL climates are more successful in energizing their employees to pursue organizational goals than organizations with weaker TFL climates. These organizational-level effects of TFL climate were theorized to occur because a TFL climate captures the collective perceptions and behaviors across an entire organization. In short, the TFL climate construct is, thus, conceptually similar to other climate constructs (e.g., Bliese &

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Halverson, 1998), such as supportive organizational climate (e.g., Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001) or safety climate (e.g., Zohar & Luria, 2005). Yet, whereas other climate constructs have already been related to various organizational processes and outcomes (e.g., Dawson, Gonzales-Roma, Davis, & West, 2008; Lindell & Brandt, 2000), little research has investigated the effects of TFL climate. Most pressingly, although the literature on TFL behaviors has shown positive effects on many processes and outcomes (e.g., Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008; Walumbwa & Hartnell, 2011; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011), no study to date has investigated if TFL climate ultimately benefits "the bottom line" of organizations. Therefore, the first goal of this study is to investigate if TFL climate affects organizational performance.

However, to adequately address this first gap, it is necessary to address a second, larger gap; namely, that a core assumption of the TFL climate construct has not yet been put under empirical scrutiny. This untested assumption comes from the notion that TFL climate captures the "typical" or "shared" way organization members perceive their work environments, and that it is this similarity, or homogeneity, which underlies the organizational-level effects of TFL climate (Walter & Bruch, 2010; see also Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005; James, 1982; James et al., 2008). Hence, our second, main goal is to assess if it is indeed the degree to which leaders throughout the organization are perceived to display TFL behaviors which is important for organizational outcomes (cf. Walter & Bruch, 2010, p. 1). We will investigate this by discussing the need to separate the average level of TFL climate (i.e., the mean perceptions among employees of the TFL climate) from the level of homogeneity in TFL climate (i.e., the variance in perceptions). As James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984) already argued more than 20 years ago, variance in perceptions does not have to be discounted as mere error variance, but can also be used as a meaningful higher-level construct (see also, Chan, 1998; Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Lindell & Brandt, 2000). Nevertheless, in spite of this observation, researchers have only recently started to investigate the effects of variance within perceptions of leadership behaviors at the organizational level of analysis (cf. Sanders, Geurt, Van Riemsdijk, 2011, p. 104). Moreover, Wang, Oh, Courtright, and Colbert (2011, p. 250) recently concluded in their meta-analysis of the TFL literature that "potential moderators of the outcomes of transformational leadership … should be addressed in future research given the nonnegligible true variance across studies." In other words, Wang et al. observed that previous studies on TFL reported an as-of-yet-unexplained wide range of findings. We expect that one reason for this might be that previous organizational-level studies overlooked the core assumption of homogeneity and, by doing so, ignored an important moderator.

Consequently, we will investigate if the average level of TFL climate is more strongly related to organizational performance with increasing levels of homogeneity in TFL climate (cf. Lindell & Brandt, 2000). We will test our expectations in a dual-source dataset (i.e., containing employee and top-management ratings) of 107 small- and medium-sized organizations. This investigation has two main contributions to the literature. The first is that we extend the limited empirical evidence on TFL climate (Walter & Bruch, 2010) by relating it for the first time to organizational performance. This also benefits the larger TFL literature as the number of organizational-level studies have been limited (e.g., Avolio, Walumba, & Weber, 2009; Wang et al., 2011). Second, we put a core assumption of TFL climate, shared by many other climate constructs (e.g., Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001; Zohar & Luria, 2005), under empirical scrutiny, namely that it is the homogeneity of such organizational-level phenomena which is

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important for understanding their relations with performance outcomes at aggregated levels of analysis (cf. Cole & Bedeian, 2007; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002).

Theory and Hypotheses

How a TFL Climate can Arise

TFL climate emerges from the behaviors of individual leaders across the organization and the subsequent perceptions of these behaviors by followers. Walter and Bruch (2010) recently argued that, in line with other characterizations of leadership climate (e.g., Bliese & Halverson, 2002; Gavin & Hofmann, 2002), TFL climate arises as a shared property of the organization if there is sufficient similarity within organizations and differences between them (cf. Bliese, Halverson, & Schriesheim, 2002; Chen & Bliese, 2002; Chen, Mathieu, & Bliese, 2004). Drawing from the theory of social influence (Festinger, Schachter, & Black, 1950) various authors have argued that collective and shared perceptions of leadership reflect the quality of employees' shared social environment and that it is these shared perceptions of the environment which increase the similarity in behavior among employees (e.g., Bliese & Halverson, 1998; Cole & Bedeian, 2007; Sanders et al., 2011). While these previous studies mainly focused on the individual or team level (Wang et al., 2011), Walter and Bruch (2010) recently described several processes by which individual-level attitudes and behaviors become shared and produced an emergent, collective structure of attitudes, norms, and behaviors at the organizational level of analysis (e.g., Currall, Towler, Judge, & Kohn, 2005). Given that these processes were recently discussed in detail by Walter and Bruch (2010), we will only briefly address them here.

First, the attraction-selection-attrition cycles that operate in all organizations can contribute to the similarity of individuals within organizations, as different organizations are prone to attract, select, and retain similar types of individuals through specific policies and processes (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000). Second, socialization processes can influence newcomers in such a way that they change their behaviors to meet organizational standards and, thus, become more like the other organizational members (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Third, employees are likely to have similar experiences and social influences (Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992), because they are all working in the same context and surroundings (i.e., the same organization). These three processes work together to increase within-organizational homogeneity and, since companies are likely to have different processes, to simultaneously increase between-organizational heterogeneity as well.

Hence, since organizations are likely to attract, select, and retain specific types of leaders and then tend to socialize these leaders in a comparable manner, while at the same time exposing them to similar experiences and social influences, it can be expected that the behaviors of leaders from the same organization are rather similar to each other, as compared to those of other organizations (Walter & Bruch, 2010). The above three processes also influence employees, making employees' perceptions of leadership behaviors also relatively homogeneous (cf. Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992). As Walter and Bruch (2010) have recently shown, the above can indeed lead to differences in average TFL climate and affect an organization's productive work climate.

Why a Homogeneous TFL Climate is Important for Organizational Performance

A positive relationship between the average TFL climate and organizational performance can be expected by extrapolating the recent findings that TFL climate is important for motivating employees to pursue organizational goals (Walter & Bruch, 2010), because when employees are more motivated to use their full potential it stands to reason that organizational performance will

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increase. In contrast, obtaining high organizational performance in organizations in which employees are less motivated is likely to be more difficult.

The broader literature on TFL supports the above argument, as many studies have shown that providing TFL is beneficial to employees, because it provides them with an articulated vision, good role models, high performance expectations, accepted common goals, intellectual stimulation, and individualized support (e.g., Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Moreover, past research has shown that TFL is related to increased individual performance (e.g., Walumbwa et al., 2008) and, although the number of studies is limited, there is also evidence of a positive relation between TFL and organizational outcomes (Wang et al., 2011). As such, higher average levels of TFL climate can be expected to be related to higher organizational performance, as individuals across the organization are more effectively performing their tasks and are more successfully completing their, and their organization's, goals. Yet, although the average level of TFL climate has been related to some organizational processes, its relationship with organizational performance has not yet received any empirical attention, and our first hypothesis is therefore:

H1: Higher average levels of TFL climate are positively related to organizational performance.

However, we anticipate that if the average TFL climate is moderate to high, but lacks homogeneity, many employees gain the above benefits, while numerous others do not have a clear vision, have less appropriate role models, less shared goals, et cetera. As was noted by Schneider et al. (2002, p. 227), such a "lack of agreement about organizational goals, purpose, and direction…could also lead to chaos and confusion." The notion that differences in TFL behaviors among leaders is harmful for organizational performance is not only supported by recent research on leadership and TFL (e.g., Avolio et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wang & Howel, 2010; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010), but can also be derived from other established theories, one of which is goal theory (Locke & Latham, 2002). Goal theory indicates that a lack of clear goals, purpose, and direction should, in and of itself, lower the performance of employees because they then do not have enough information on how to work towards the organizational goals. Furthermore, a lack of clear goals does not only lower individual performance, it also hinders the attainment of shared or mutual goals because organizational members do not know how to coordinate and integrate their efforts.

Second, drawing from equity theory (Adams, 1963), it can be expected that low homogeneity in TFL climate might also invoke negative processes, because when some employees are given preferential treatment (i.e., some receive much TFL) and others are devoid of this beneficial leadership behavior, jealousy and increased perceptions of unfairness or inequity are likely to arise. This unfairness can cause employees to experience a breach of psychological contract (e.g., Rousseau & Parks, 1992) when they see that some employees obtain more support from their leaders, while they are left to themselves. Eventually, this could lead employees to engage in deviant behaviors, such as showing up late, stealing, or even abusing coworkers (e.g., Ferris, Brown, Lian, & Keeping, 2009), which all pose a direct threat to organizational performance.

Third, drawing from role stress theory (e.g., Kahn, Wolfe, Quin, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964), it can be expected that differences in leadership behaviors across an organization hinder

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employees because such differences increase role conflicts and role ambiguity. When some managers provide clear visions, goals, support, et cetera, while other managers provide different, and less clear and less well-articulated TFL behaviors, individual and collective effectiveness is likely to suffer. Moreover, when TFL behaviors are not aligned between different leaders, employees may not only experience increased stress, but also increased process losses (e.g., Steiner, 1972), because they have to double check with each other, and their leaders, which vision or goal to pursue.

In sum, we expect that the positive effect of having a higher average TFL climate will occur if the TFL climate is in fact shared by the members of the organization. However, we also expect that if there are substantial differences within the organization (i.e., low homogeneity in TFL climate), higher average levels of TFL climate are *not* related to organization performance. We expect this to be so, as many employees are then not receiving the benefits of TFL (e.g., Avolio et al., 2009), which lowers the ability of employees to perform well individually and as a collective (cf. Locke & Latham, 2002), increases feelings of inequity and unfairness (cf. Adams, 1963), and enhances role conflicts, role ambiguity, and process losses (cf. Kahn et al., 1964). Consequently, we expect that the interaction between the average of TFL climate and the homogeneity in TFL climate is related to organizational performance, in the following way:

H2a: Higher average levels of TFL climate are positively related to organizational performance if homogeneity in TFL climate is high.

H2b: Higher average levels of TFL climate are not significantly related to organizational performance if homogeneity in TFL climate is low.

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data collection for this study was part of a larger research project for which we cooperated with a benchmarking agency located in Germany, which contacted 180 organizations located in Germany in 2008. In return for their participation each organization received a detailed benchmarking report. Organizations which did not provide data on both their TFL climate as well as their organizational performance, which had fewer than 25 employees, and organizations in which fewer than 25 percent responded were excluded. This resulted in a final dataset of 107 organizations (59 percent of the contacted organizations). Similar to previous studies (e.g., Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Schminke, Ambrose, & Cropanzano, 2000; Schminke, Cropanzano, & Rupp, 2002; Walter & Bruch, 2010), organizations in our dataset represented diverse industries, demographic compositions, and sizes, increasing the likelihood of finding substantial variation in our main variables of interest. In our final dataset, the average within-organization response rate was 62% (SD =.19). On average organizations consisted of 319.69 members (SD=423.28), average age was 38.51 years (SD=3.66), and on average 61% of the organizational members were male.

Data were collected from various sources to alleviate concerns about common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). General information (e.g., organizational size, et cetera) was provided by the organizations' Human Resources executive or a top management team member. TFL climate and the control variables (discussed below) were collected by an employee survey, while organizational performance was rated by the top management team. Standardized procedures and survey formatting were used in order to ensure

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equivalence of data collection and all respondents were assured of full anonymity. Both surveys were translated to German by native speaking translators who followed a double-blind back-translation procedure. A standardized email was sent, which described the purpose of the study and which contained a link to a web-based survey. In a few companies we installed computer terminals in order to allow the participation of employees who did not have an email address.

Measures

Average level of TFL climate. The average level in TFL climate was captured in the employee survey by using the scale of Podsakoff and colleagues (1990, 1996), which consists of 22 items assessing six dimensions of TFL, namely providing a role model, articulating a vision, communicating high performance expectations, fostering the acceptance of common goals, providing intellectual stimulation, and providing individualized support. The psychometric qualities of this scale have been demonstrated in prior studies (e.g., Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004). Akin to the recent study of Walter and Bruch (2010), we asked employees to what extent the leaders in their organization demonstrated TFL behaviors. The 5-point scale ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). Aggregation and reliability statistics supported the creation of a measure of the average TFL climate at the organizational level ($F(106, 3835) = 7.56$, $p < .001$; ICC(1) = .15; ICC(2) = .87; $R_{wg(j)}$ = .97; and Chronbach's alpha = .98).

Homogeneity in TFL climate. This variable was directly measured at the organizational level by following the procedures used by Cole and Bedeian (2007, p. 454; see also Bliese & Halverson, 1998). First, we calculated for each of the 22 items the variance of employees' perceptions of leadership within their organization. Second, we then converted these "variance scores" into "homogeneity scores" by multiplying each item by −1, so that higher scores represent higher homogeneity. The Chronbach's alpha was .91 and $R_{wg(j)}$ was .97 and thus, we took a third step, and averaged the 22 homogeneity scores to produce our final homogeneity in TFL climate measure.

Organizational performance. In line with prior research (e.g., Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Wall et al., 2004), we asked the top management team to rate their own organization's performance compared to their competitors on eight performance items (scale ranged from 1 = far below average to 7 = far above average), rating operational and organizational performance (e.g., Combs, Crook, & Shook, 2005). Although we acknowledge that forward-looking stock market measures could have been a more ideal way to measure organizational performance, it was impossible to use such data given that the companies in our sample were predominantly privately owned and as such did not have publicly available information (cf. Rogers & Wright, 1998). Additionally, in light of our diverse sample, other "objective" measures, such as return on investment (ROI) or total revenues, could also not be used as there are significant differences in such measures between different sectors and industries. Hence, although we are aware of the potential problems regarding the use of subjective performance measures (Starbuck, 2004), we deemed it most appropriate to ask the top management team about their company's performance, given that empirical evidence has shown that such subjective measures by informed respondents are valid and can be used to gain insight into operational and organizational performance (Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch, 2011; Rowe & Morrow, 1999; Wall et al., 2004).

To assess operational performance we used four items, which were divided into two pairs, with two items inquiring on operational effectiveness (i.e., Employees' productivity; Efficiency of business procedures) and two items assessing operational satisfaction (i.e., Customer satisfaction; Employee satisfaction). The four items regarding organizational

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performance were likewise split into two pairs, with two items assessing total organizational performance (i.e., Total company performance; Financial position of the company) and two items on growth in organizational performance (i.e., Improvement in financial results; Total company growth).

We calculated a CFA by loading the first four items on one latent construct in order to capture operational performance. The latter four items were loaded on another latent construct in order to capture organizational performance. The two first-order constructs were then loaded on one second-order construct. To fully abide to our measurement structure, the error terms of each pair of items were allowed to correlate. The CFA ($\chi 2$ [15] = 47.57, p< .001, SRMR= .05, CFI= .93, GFI=.92; NFI=.90), together with the aggregation and reliability statistics (F(106, 217) = 2.70, p < .001; ICC(1) = .18; ICC(2) = .63; Rwg(j) = .96; and Chronbach's alpha = .89), supported the creation of an organizational level measure. Consequently, we averaged all eight items into one measure of organizational performance.

Control variables. Based on the study of Walter and Bruch (2010) on TFL climate, we controlled for organization size (log transformed), response rate, and the average centrality and formality (Schminke et al., 2000, 2002). In light of our interest in homogeneity in TFL climate, we also controlled for the homogeneity of these latter two variables in order to further exclude possible confounding effects (again we used the "variance*-1" approach of Bliese and Halverson (1998) for constructing the homogeneity measures). To control for differences in demographic make-up between organizations, we controlled for the gender composition (1=male, 2=female), average age, and the homogeneity in age within each organization.

Statistical Analyses

Our model focuses on the organizational level of analysis, and to test our hypotheses we used the standard OLS regression techniques for assessing interaction effects, as described by Aiken and West (1991). As suggested by these authors, all the independent variables were standardized and the interaction term was calculated from the products of the standardized variables. In the first step of the regression we entered the control variables, in the second step we added the main effects of the average level of TFL climate and the homogeneity in TFL climate, and in the third step the interaction effect was added. As such, the final model contained all the control variables, the main effects, and the interaction effect.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and Pearson zero-order correlations are presented in Table 1. As expected, there were several significant correlations between our control variables and the variables in our model, reaffirming the need to control for them. To keep the text concise, we will only discuss the correlations between our three main variables in detail. In line with our argumentation, the correlation between the average level of TFL climate and organizational performance was positive and significant (r= .30, p< .01). Hence, these results provide support for hypothesis 1 by showing that higher average levels of TFL climate (as reported by

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Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson Zero-Order Correlations Among the Study Variables at the Organizational Level (n=107).

Variable		**M**	**SD**	**Alpha**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**
1	Org. size (log)	319.69	423.28	--											
2	Response percentage	.62	.19	--	-.62 ***										
3	Gender composition	1.39	.20	--	.05	-.13									
4	Average age	38.51	3.66	--	.08	-.05	.11								
5	Homogeneity in Age	-101.55	30.73	--	-.01	.17 †	-.09	-.10							
6	Average Centralization	3.30	.70	.98	.27 **	-.24 *	.02	.25 **	-.15						
7	Homogeneity in centralization	-2.26	.71	.89	-.28 **	.20 *	-.07	-.23 *	.11	-.69 ***					
8	Average Formalization	4.24	.63	.81	.15	-.25 **	.36 ***	.01	-.21 *	.23 *	-.19 *				
9	Homogeneity in Formalization	-2.16	.47	.48	-.19 *	.05	.08	-.14	.05	-.26 **	.43 ***	.13			
10	Average TFL Climate	3.44	.37	.98	-.32 ***	.18 †	.21 *	-.34 ***	.00	-.71 ***	.48 ***	.13	.24 *		
11	Homogeneity in TFL Climate	-.88	.20	.91	-.31 **	.27 **	-.11	-.33 ***	.06	-.55 ***	.57 ***	-.02	.42 ***	.63 ***	
12	Organizational Performance	4.80	.80	.89	-.06	.01	.23 *	-.14	.10	-.12	.07	.13	.01	.30 **	.12

Note: the M and SD of org. size are not log transformed.

*** p≤.001

** p≤.01

* p≤.05

† p≤.10

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employees) are associated with higher levels of organizational performance (as rated by the top management team). The correlation between the level of homogeneity in TFL climate and organizational performance was not significant (r= .12, n.s.). The average level of TFL climate and the level of homogeneity in TFL climate were significantly and positively correlated (r= .63, p< .001), indicating that higher average levels of TFL climate are associated with higher levels of homogeneity in TFL climate.

Table 2: Results of Regression Analyses

		Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
Step	**Variable**	***b***	***se***	***b***	***se***	***b***	***se***
1	Organizational size (Log)	-.07	.10	-.02	.10	.03	.10
	Response percentage	-.03	.10	-.02	.10	-.03	.10
	Gender composition	.18*	.08	.13	.09	.14	.09
	Average age	-.11	.08	-.06	.08	.05	.08
	Homogeneity in age	.10	.08	.11	.08	.14 †	.08
	Average centralization	-.08	.11	.13	.14	.17 †	.14
	Homogeneity in centralization	.02	.12	.03	.12	.05	.12
	Average formalization	.10	.09	.03	.09	.03	.09
	Homogeneity in formalization	-.08	.09	-.07	.09	-.05	.09
2	Average TFL climate			.29*	.15	.31 *	.14
	Homogeneity in TFL climate			-.02	.12	-.06	.12
3	Interaction *(average TFL climate * homogeneity in TFL climate)*					.13 *	.06
	R^2	.12		.16		.20	
	ΔR^2	.12		.04 †		.04 *	

* p≤.05
† p≤.10

Regression Analyses

Our main expectation was that the level of homogeneity in TFL climate would interact with the average level of TFL climate, and that it was this interaction which shapes the influence of TFL climate on organizational performance. As can be seen in Table 2 (step 2), and as was also demonstrated by the significant correlation in Table 1, average levels of TFL climate were significantly and positively related to organizational performance (b=.29, p<.05). Thus, hypothesis 1 was supported by our data.

In step 3, the interaction coefficient was added. As can be seen in Table 2, adding the interaction coefficient significantly improved the explanatory value of the model, as the increase

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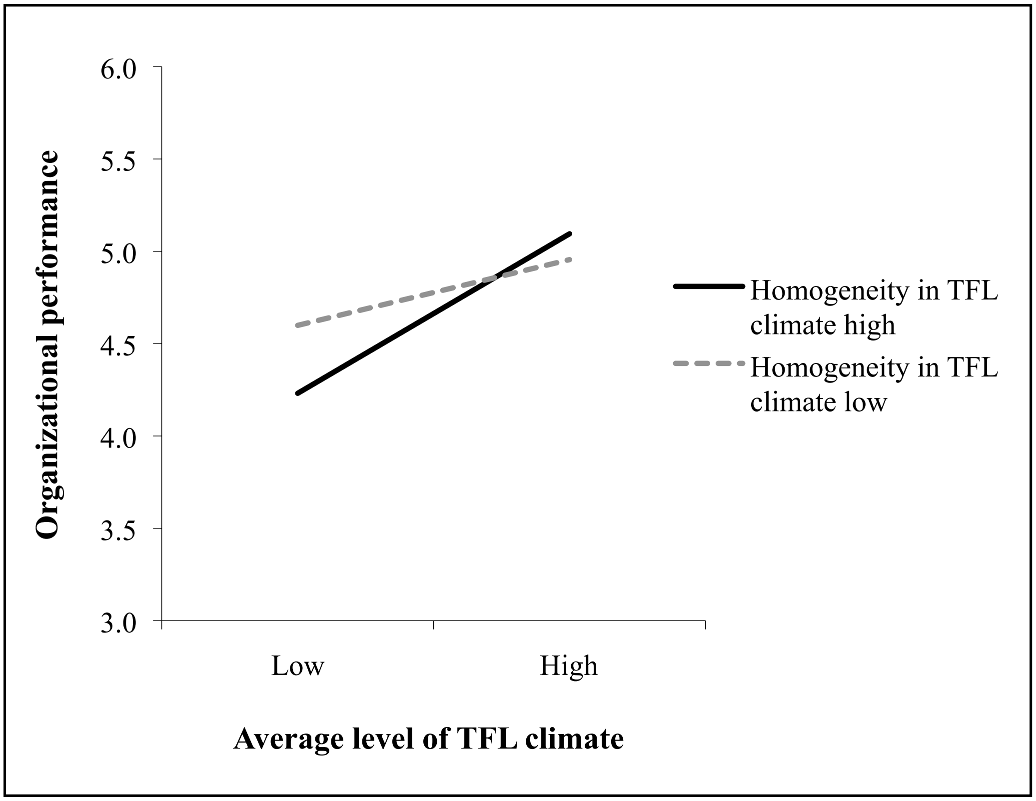
in R^2 was statistically significant at p<.05. And, as expected, the interaction coefficient was positive and significant (b=.13, p<.05). Figure 1 represents the significant two-way interaction.

Figure 1: Average Level of TFL Climate and Organizational Performance at Different Levels of Homogeneity in TFL Climate



To create Figure 1, we followed the procedures of Aiken and West (1991) and plotted the low condition at -1 SD and the high condition at +1 SD. As expected, higher average levels in TFL climate had no significant relationship with organizational performance when homogeneity in TFL climate was low (simple slope: b=.18; se=.15, n.s.). Yet, when the homogeneity in TFL climate was high, higher average levels of TFL climate were significantly and positively related to organizational performance (simple slope: b=.43; se=.16; p<.01). These results provide full support for Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Robustness Checks

To assess the robustness of our findings, we performed several additional analyses. First, to assess if multi-collinearity was an issue, we inspected the Variation Inflation Factors (VIFs) of all the variables in our most complex model (i.e., all variables reported in step 3). Since all VIFs where below 4, multi-collinearity was not an issue in our model (e.g., Miles & Shevlin, 2001).

Furthermore, we conducted a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (with Lilliefors correction), which indicated that the standardized residuals of the final model did not significantly deviate from normality (K-S statistic=.074, df=107, n.s.). As such, the model fitted well to the data. Lastly, we recalculated the final model (containing all controls and main effects as well as the interaction effect as reported in step 3 of Table 2) in a dataset which excluded all organizations

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with more than 500 employees. The analysis of this dataset, containing 89 organizations, again showed a positive and significant interaction coefficient ($b=.17$, $p<.01$). In addition to this, we also recalculated our final model (again containing the controls, main effects, and interaction effect) in a dataset which excluded all organizations with more than 250 employees. The results of this analysis of 71 organizations revealed again a positive and significant interaction effect ($b=.17$, $p<.05$). Consequently, we concluded that the model reported in step 3 is robust and adequately represented the data.

Discussion

The main goal of this study was to test a core assumption of the TFL climate construct (Walter & Bruch, 2010) shared by many other organizational-level phenomena (e.g., Dutton, 2003; Dawson, González-Romá, Davis, & West, 2008; González-Romá, Peiro, & Tordera, 2002; Rogg et al., 2001; Zohar & Luria, 2005), namely that it is the homogeneity of these constructs which is a key driver behind their influences on organizational-level processes and outcomes. The results of our analyses of a dataset containing 107 small- and medium-sized organizations supported this and showed that higher average levels of TFL climate were significantly and positively related to organizational performance when levels of homogeneity in TFL climate were high. The results also showed that, as expected, there was no relationship when homogeneity in TFL climate was low. Below, we discuss the theoretical implications of these findings, after which we will discuss the strengths and limitations of this study and ideas for future research. We conclude with the practical implications.

Theoretical Contributions

The first contribution is that our study is the first to demonstrate that TFL climate is related not only to organizational processes, such as productive organizational energy (Walter & Bruch, 2010), but also to organizational performance. In other words, our findings indicate that the effects of TFL climate are not limited to relatively “soft” issues, but also impacts “hard” issues, such as the performance of the company. This contributes to the emerging area of TFL climate research, as well as to the larger TFL literature (e.g., Cole & Bedeian, 2007; Schneider et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2011), because it increases the scientific and managerial relevance of the TFL climate construct.

The second, and in our view most important, theoretical implication is that our study is the first to demonstrate that homogeneity at the organizational level is indeed important for TFL behaviors, which had previously been hinted at (cf. Cole & Bedeian, 2007; Schneider et al., 2002), but not yet investigated (cf. Avolio et al., 2009). Although a recent team-level study (Cole, Bedeian, & Bruch, 2011) showed an indirect effect of the interaction between average levels of TFL and homogeneity in TFL on the aggregated self-rated performance of individual team members, no study to date has shown a direct effect on organizational performance following a more methodologically stringent dual-source approach. In addition, our results also suggest that one reason for the considerable variation in findings regarding leadership behaviors and organizational performance (cf. Wang et al., 2011, p. 250) might be because prior organizational-level studies overlooked the core assumption of homogeneity. Hence, our study contributes both to leadership literature (e.g., Avolio et al., 2009; Bommer et al., 2004; Feinberg et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011) as well as to the emerging TFL climate literature (e.g., Walter & Bruch, 2010), as we have shown that it is indeed important to have homogeneity in leadership behaviors within companies.

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Strengths and Limitations

As do all studies, the present research has some strengths and some limitations. A first limitation is that the dataset was cross-sectional, and it was thus impossible to investigate causality. However, as we did not investigate mediating mechanisms (cf. Walter & Bruch, 2010), possible reversed causality issues do not appear to present a serious problem. Besides this limitation, the dataset also had several strengths, as it drew from different sources (e.g., employees and top management team members), making mono-source issues less likely.

Another potential limitation could be that we asked the top management team members to rate their company's performance in comparison to their competitors and as such had to rely on their assessment instead of on more "objective" performance data. As already discussed in our measurement section it was impossible to use stock market data, given that the companies in our sample were predominantly privately owned (cf. Rogers & Wright, 1998), and other "objective" measures, such as return on investment (ROI), could also not be used as there are significant differences between different sectors in such measures. Although prior research has shown that subjective measures by informed respondents are valid and can be used to gain insight into operational and organizational performance (Kunze, Boehm, & Bruch, 2011; Rowe & Morrow, 1999; Wall et al., 2004), future studies might nevertheless want to replicate our study by restricting their sample to publically owned companies and by using stock market data.

Related to the above, researchers concerned about the use of subjective measures and surveys might also want to consider assessing TFL climate via other methods. For example, although practically very daunting, it is possible to have external raters code the amount of actual TFL behaviors and to construct a TFL climate measure from that observational data. We decided to stay close to methodology of recent studies on TFL climate (e.g., Walter & Bruch, 2010) and other climate constructs (e.g., Rogg et al., 2001; Zohar & Luria, 2005) in order to align our research with prior studies.

A third limitation might be that the dataset did not contain very large companies and only contained companies from Germany, as this puts some limits on the generalization of our findings. However, this clear focus of our dataset is also a strength, as it limits the possibility of distorting influences due to unobserved differences between organizations. Moreover, given that we focus on one cultural setting, problems associated with comparing (mean) values across different cultural contexts are not likely to affect our findings (e.g., Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). This is especially so, since the TFL climate construct has already demonstrated its worth in the German cultural context (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Yet, we would like to point out that future research which aims to assess differences in TFL climates across different cultural contexts would need to take into account such issues with cross-cultural measurement equivalence. To conclude, given that we focus on one country and controlled for differences between organizations in both demographical and structural characteristics, we argue that our results are robust and, at the very least, applicable to many types of small and medium-sized companies in countries and cultures similar to Germany.

Future Research

As our findings have shown, organizational-level moderators (in our case, homogeneity in TFL climate) can influence the organizational-level effects of average levels of TFL climate, and as such, our results support the call of Wang et al. (2011) that future studies should investigate more moderators to establish the boundary conditions of TFL climate. Research on

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TFL climate could also benefit from more insight into the detailed processes and mechanisms (i.e., investigate mediators). The study of Walter and Bruch (2010) provided a starting point by relating average TFL climate to the productive work climate, but besides this, no organizational-level processes have yet been investigated. The search for other mediators could start by looking into the processes of attraction-selection-attrition theorized by Walter and Bruch (2010). Yet, these processes were used to explain the effects of the average level of TFL climate, not the effects of homogeneity. Given our results, we advise scholars to (also) draw on the other theories we used, such as equity theory (Adams, 1963), and/or draw more from the climate strength literature (e.g., Dawson et al., 2008; Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010).

Another option for investigating new mediators is to draw from studies regarding TFL which were conducted at lower levels of analyses and thus investigate mediators such as efficacy, empowerment, trust, or identification (e.g., Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, as has been previously theorized (e.g., Klein & Kozlowski, 2000), and as our results have indicated, it is important to acknowledge the underlying assumptions, such as the assumption of homogeneity, when investigating constructs are higher levels of analyses. Besides explicitly addressing this need for testing underlying assumptions, we hope to have provided future scholars with a clear approach for conducting such research, by means of our methodology and analyses.

Future research might also apply our methodology to other organizational phenomena, such as supportive organizational climate (e.g., Rogg et al., 2001), energy in organizations (e.g., Dutton, 2003), or safety climate (e.g., Zohar & Luria, 2005), and investigate if the homogeneity of these collective constructs is equally as important as we found it to be for TFL climate. Doing so might be of particular value to organizational-level phenomena of which the average level has been spuriously found to be related to organizational performance. This has, for instance, been observed in the situational strength literature (e.g., Dawson et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2010).

Practical Implications

Our study has at least three practical implications. First, our findings show that it is important that leaders throughout an organization show transformational leadership (TFL) behaviors, as a strong TFL climate increases the performance of the whole organization. Second, our results also indicate that, in order to optimize organizational performance, it is important to increase the average in TFL climate and increase the amount of homogeneity (i.e., the shared perceptions among employees) in TFL climate. We therefore suggest that practical interventions not only raise the average level of TFL climate in an organization, for example, by giving everybody the same training (e.g., Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996), but also actively research if there are differences in the TFL climate across the company and then provide, for instance, specific training aimed at resolving such differences. Third, given that the theoretical mechanisms underlying our study are very similar to other climate constructs, such as safety climate, diversity climate, or supportive organizational climate, practitioners striving to maximize the impact of such climates are advised to consider that it might not only be the average level of these climates, but also the level of homogeneity, which makes them relevant to organizational processes and performance. Hence, although more research is necessary, for now it seems wise to try to increase the average level of these climates while at the same time also reduce the differences in (the perceptions of) such climates across the organization.

To conclude, our results indicate that, in order to optimize organizational performance, it is important to increase the average in TFL climate and increase the amount of homogeneity in

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TFL climate. If considerable lack of homogeneity is found, our theory and results indicate that increasing the TFL for the organizational members who are currently experiencing relatively low amounts of TFL is a promising way to increase organizational performance.

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DISASTER RESPONSE LEADERSHIP: PERCEPTIONS OF AMERICAN RED CROSS WORKERS

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The purpose of this exploratory study was to describe the perceptions and implicit theories of Red Cross workers toward their leaders in the context of disaster emergency response. This study utilized Q-methodology to examine the perceptions of Red Cross workers from multiple locations in the United States through the theoretical frame of charismatic and transformational leadership. The method considered the ways in which views of leadership vary among Red Cross workers, resulting in four distinct leader prototypes among the Red Cross workers: *Show Me the Way*; *See Me, Then Tell Me*; *Stand Beside Me*; and *Please Understand Me*.

In recent years, large- and small-scale disasters across the world have garnered a great deal of media attention, particularly in relationship to response efforts. As leaders have been criticized for their response to such crises, questions have been asked about what effective leadership looks like in disaster response. Unfortunately, the literature in the leadership field provides little direction. A recent article in the Leadership Quarterly finds this same problem, and states that there is a great need for leadership research in such "extreme contexts" (Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta, 2009). After an extensive review of the literature related to crisis leadership, Hannah et al. (2009) draw the conclusion that "any theory of leadership for extreme contexts cannot be loosely generalized, but that different dynamics influence leadership through

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unique contingencies, constraints and causation” (p. 898). Research needs to be done with a variety of crisis response organizations to better understand leadership within those organizations.

One such crisis response organization is the Red Cross. This international organization provides relief in the form of food, shelter, medical attention, and emotional support for victims of disaster across the globe. This extreme context of disaster response requires something different than leadership in more stable contexts (Crichton, Lauche, & Flin, 2005; Hannah et al., 2009) or even leadership in other extreme contexts. Such leadership is often termed crisis leadership. Scholars of business leadership often point to the need for leaders in a crisis to act decisively, have a plan, and address the needs of their followers (Anderson, 2002; Mitroff, 2001; Weiss, 2002). Other leadership scholars focus on crisis as the context in which charismatic leadership emerges (Beyer, 1999; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Weber, 1947). Little literature exists, however, that directly examines disaster-response leadership.

Another unique aspect of the extreme context in which the Red Cross works is that this organization relies on volunteers for the bulk of the work, leadership, and resources to fulfill this mission of disaster relief. This international organization was originally envisioned as an organization comprised entirely of volunteers, and to this day almost 90% of the individuals supporting the Red Cross effort are volunteers (Hamilton, 2005). During disaster-response efforts, these volunteers are guided by field leaders trained extensively by the Red Cross. The role of the field leader is of paramount importance to the relief effort because they work with volunteers who do not know each other well and have varied competencies and varied limitations. The field leader is charged with pulling together this disparate group of people and making quick decisions in the field, often with limited information. Field leaders are the primary source of direction and guidance for Red Cross volunteers, and they work almost exclusively in disaster emergency response situations.

Another unique aspect of this extreme context is that Red Cross field leaders find themselves providing leadership in a socially close context with their followers. While theories exist that help us understand crisis leadership from a socially distant perspective (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Pillai, 1996; Pillai & Meindl, 1998), very little research or theory illuminates what emergency response volunteers are looking for from their socially-close leaders in the field during a disaster.

Social distance refers to the social and hierarchical distance between the leader and his or her followers, and is just beginning to be considered fully by leadership scholars (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). Field leaders are socially-close leaders. While charismatic and transformational leadership have both been linked to effective leadership in crisis situations, research has focused on socially distant leaders, such as politicians and CEOs, to a much greater extent than socially close leaders (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991; Pillai, Grewal, Stites-Doe, & Meindl, 1997; Shamir, 1995; Shamir & Howell, 1999; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Sosik, 2005; Tosi, Misangyi, Fanelli, Waldman, & Yammarino, 2004; Valle, 1999; Yagil, 1998). There is a

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need for research related to field leadership in extreme context, for understanding the field leaders who are so relied upon by the Red Cross to guide their volunteers.

It is important for leadership researchers to begin to study a variety of extreme contexts to better understand leadership in these contexts. One question asked by Hannah et al. (2009) is "whether followers and groups have different models or implicit theories of optimum leader prototypes (Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984) of differing dimensions of extreme contexts" (p. 908). This study attempts to answer this question by exploring the implicit theories of Red Cross workers in regards to their field leaders during disaster response.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was provided by two theories from the field of leadership: charismatic leadership, as described by Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988, 1998), and transformational leadership, as operationalized by Bass and his colleagues (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass, 1999). For the purposes of this study, transformational leadership includes the three components of transformational leadership (inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration), as well as the two components of transactional leadership (contingent reward and management by exception), and laissez-faire leadership. In addition, charismatic leadership is defined by the five behavioral dimensions described by Conger & Kanungo: sensitivity to environmental context, strategic vision and articulation, sensitivity to member needs, personal risk, and unconventional behavior.

Early research on charismatic and transformational leadership focused primarily on the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower(s), but recently the context in which leadership takes place is receiving more attention. This is an important direction for leadership research to move in order to advance the field (Hunt & Conger, 1999). Some empirical support for contextual models of leadership exists (Gordon & Yukl, 2004), but additional exploratory research is needed to understand leadership from a contextual perspective, with crisis being one possible context (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). More specifically, extreme contexts (Hannah et al., 2009) such as disaster response warrant further study.

These two theories, charismatic and transformational leadership, represent innovative as well as classic thinking in the leadership field. They represent an evolution in the leadership field to consider the phenomenon of leadership from a more holistic stance, and are therefore fairly comprehensive theories that address the leader/follower relationship, the context, and the task at hand. For this reason charismatic and transformational leadership form a strong and dynamic theoretical foundation for the study described here.

This exploratory study describes the perceptions and implicit theories of Red Cross workers, both paid staff and volunteers, toward their leaders in disaster emergency response situations. Specifically, the study seeks to answer two questions:

1. How do views or implicit theories of leadership vary among Red Cross workers?

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2. How do the patterns of Red Cross workers' perceptions of their leaders' actual behavior differ according to their ideal expectations of their leaders?

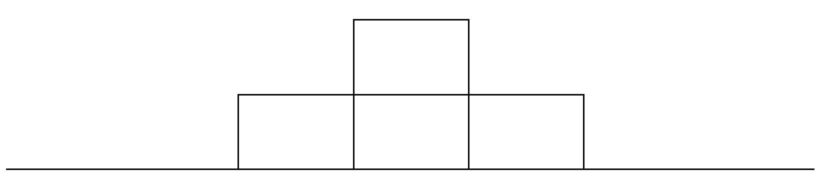
This study aims to develop an understanding of how these volunteers view leadership, and what they want from their field leader. This understanding will further our ability to adapt and apply current leadership theories to extreme contexts.

Method

This study utilizes Q-methodology to examine the perceptions of Red Cross workers from multiple locations in the United States. Q-methodology was introduced by William Stephenson in the 1930s and outlined in detail in his book entitled *The Study of Behavior* (Stephenson, 1953). "Fundamentally, Q-methodology provides a foundation for the systematic study of subjectivity" (Brown, 1993, p. 93). Participants are given a set of statements and asked to rank order them along a continuum. This sorting activity allows the participant to represent their full, subjective viewpoint on a particular subject because each statement is sorted in relation to the other statements (Brown, 1993). This pattern, referred to as the Q-sort, can then be correlated with the Q-sorts of other participants, in effect correlating total perceptions rather than individual statements or tests. Factor analysis is then used to discover the structure of subjectivity.

In Q-methodology, the total population of statements that represent the views of the participants is called a concourse (Brown, 1993). This concourse attempts to consider all possible views of the participants, and may be drawn naturalistically (from interviews with participants) or theoretically (from existing literature). This study used a theoretically-based hybrid approach as described by McKeown and Thomas (1988). The original concourse in this study was created by using 75 statements derived from Conger and Kanungo's theory of charismatic leadership (1988; 1998) and Bass's theory of transformational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985). The concourse of 75 statements was sorted by the researcher for homogeneity and put into four broad, theoretical categories: self, task, relationship, and organization, then eliminating redundant statements to produce a Q-set of 36 statements, nine in each category.

To facilitate the sorting process, participants began by sorting the statements into three piles, most like, most unlike, and neutral. The participant then further subdivided these three piles onto a forced choice continuum printed on a form board with the distribution of -4 to +4. The sort distribution given to participants was designed to capture the statements to which they had the strongest reactions (most like and most unlike) and represented a format of nine columns with the number of each statements to be placed in each column as: 2, 4, 4, 5, 6, 5, 4, 4, and 2. See Figure 1 for a visual of the Q-sort form board participants used to sort statements.



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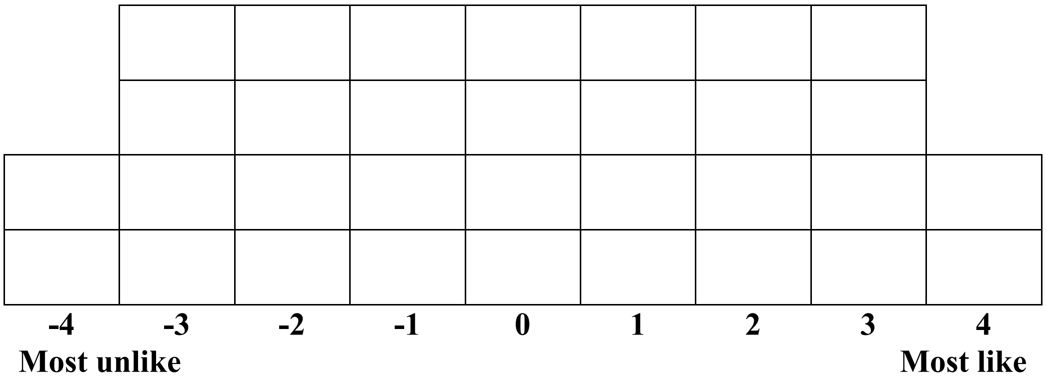

Figure 1. Q-sort form board

Each participant sorted the statements twice in order to capture views that might differ when considering reality in the last disaster with desires for leadership in the next disaster:

- Sorting condition 1: During the last disaster in which you participated in the Red Cross response, how would you describe your Red Cross leader?
- Sorting condition 2: In the next disaster in which you participate in the Red Cross response, how would you describe your ideal expectations of your Red Cross leader?

Participants were recruited by contacting Red Cross chapters in Oklahoma and Texas, and asking employees and volunteers to participate. The P-set for this study consists of 20 Red Cross employees and volunteers, who each sorted the statements twice for a total of 40 Q-sorts. McKeown and Thomas (1988) suggest that an extensive P-set might include 40-50 Q-sorts representing one to three conditions of instruction. This is an extensive Q-study, with the "intent of determining the variety of views on an issue" (McKeown & Thomas, 1988, p. 37). A purposive attempt was made to find people representing various demographics (male/female, staff/volunteer, long-term involvement/recent involvement, etc.). Participants included 11 women and 9 men ranging from age 24 to age 72 (15 over 50 years old). Additionally, the participants had a wide range of experience with the Red Cross, including as few as six months and as many as 53 years. The majority of participants (14) had five or less years of experience with the Red Cross. All participants had been exposed to crisis response in their experience with the Red Cross, although the variance was 13 participants had responded to hurricanes, 12 to house fires, five to tornados, five to wild fires, one to an ice storm and one to a hostage situation. The majority of the participants were volunteers rather than paid staff.

Data were analyzed using PQMethod software (Schmolck, 2002). All individual sorts (both actual and ideal) were entered into the computer. Using the PQMethod software, every sort was correlated with every other sort. This was followed by a principal components factor analysis of the correlation matrix to determine the dispersement of the groupings of individual perceptions of the phenomenon of Red Cross leadership. Multiple analyses were performed in an effort to determine the factor solution with the best theoretical and statistical fit.

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The varimax rotated four factor solution was determined to represent the best balance of minimized confounded and non-significant sorts, and accounted for 43% of the variance. A confounded sort is one that is determined to be significant on more than one factor. Once a final factor solution was chosen, *z*-scores were calculated for each statement for each factor using only the sorts that clearly defined the factor. From the *z*-scores, a theoretical array of statements was arranged, with a numeric array position indicating the column position of the statement similar to the sorting structure. These theoretical sorts are used as the main tool of interpretation (McKeown & Thomas, 1988).

Findings

Using a cut score of 0.40 ($\alpha = .01$; McKeown & Thomas, 1988) to represent a loaded sort, the final factor solution resulted in 26 of 40 sorts defining only one factor. Ten of the original 40 sorts were non-significant on any factor, and four sorts were confounded by loading on multiple factors. Additionally, for this final solution, only two participants had neither his nor her actual or ideal sort load on any factor (Participants 2 & 8). Table 1 lists the extent to which each sort loaded on the four factors along with basic demographic data.

Table 1: Final Factor Solution with Participant Demographics

Participant #	Sort	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Age/ Gender		Years Involved
1	A	-0.1435	-0.1500	0.3847	-0.1036	51	F	3
	I	**0.4010X**	0.3634	-0.1160	0.0705			
2	A	-0.2620	-0.1075	-0.1123	-0.1368	57	F	4
	I	0.1386	0.0904	-0.1002	0.2384			
3	A	**0.6581X**	0.2629	0.2113	0.0225	49	F	1
	I	**0.7241X**	0.0863	0.1555	0.1792			
4	A	0.4244	-0.1385	0.3681	0.4488	45	M	10
	I	0.2771	-0.0745	0.1494	**0.5642X**			
5	A	**0.4025X**	-0.1626	-0.2400	-0.1048	64	F	7
	I	0.3708	0.3507	0.0694	0.1113			
6	A	0.0928	0.0235	0.0287	**-0.4486X**	53	M	5
	I	0.2106	0.2413	-0.2848	0.0021			
7	A	0.1840	**-0.5319X**	-0.1177	-0.3616	72	M	3
	I	0.1315	0.0633	**0.7491X**	0.0380			
8	A	0.3512	-0.1161	-0.1369	0.0159	68	M	4
	I	0.4466	0.5615	0.0773	0.3122			
9	A	-0.1594	0.3005	0.3131	-0.0943	72	M	53
	I	0.3617	**0.4360X**	0.2639	0.1322			
10	A	0.2944	0.3826	**0.5086X**	-0.1230	71	M	3
	I	0.5606	0.6107	0.3925	-0.1489			
11	A	0.0284	**-0.4087X**	0.0119	0.0231	59	F	25
	I	0.1798	**0.7682X**	0.1634	0.1315			
12	A	**0.6316X**	0.3551	-0.1122	0.0427	61	F	19

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	I	**0.7369X**	0.0057	-0.0492	0.0528			
13	A	0.2565	0.1630	**0.6479X**	-0.0530	63	F	1
	I	0.1373	-0.0037	0.3193	0.1411			
14	A	0.0358	-0.3291	0.0558	0.0151	52	F	1
	I	**0.4156X**	0.0239	0.2761	0.1180			
15	A	0.0337	-0.2493	**-0.5469X**	-0.2374	34	M	4
	I	0.2248	0.3500	**0.6356X**	-0.0897			
16	A	**0.7232X**	-0.2109	0.1746	-0.1240	65	F	6
	I	**0.6012X**	0.0784	0.2179	0.3091			
17	A	-0.0137	0.0157	**0.5091X**	0.3421	46	F	1
	I	0.1143	-0.2154	**0.7013X**	0.0115			
18	A	0.2536	0.3033	0.3265	0.2097	25	F	2
	I	0.2898	0.3527	0.1673	**0.5253X**			
19	A	**0.6533X**	0.1708	0.3654	0.1110	66	M	1
	I	**0.7914X**	0.0815	0.1673	0.1419			
20	A	0.4630	0.3050	-0.0572	0.4423	50	M	1
	I	**0.5684X**	0.1829	0.1099	0.3748			
Defining Sorts		12	4	7	3		Total:	26
Explained Variance		17%	9%	11%	6%		Total:	43%

A = actual; I = ideal Defining sorts are shown in **bold**

Overall, five of the twenty participants defined the same factor for both their actual and ideal sort, indicating that their view of their actual and ideal leader were the same (Participants 3, 12, 16, 17 & 19). Two participants who defined the same factor for actual and ideal had an actual sort correlated negatively to the factor, indicating their actual leader was the opposite of their ideal leader (Participants 11 & 15). Only one participant changed from one factor to another between actual and ideal: Participant 7 had a significant negative load on factor two for their actual sort, and a significant positive load on factor three for their ideal sort. The remaining participants only showed a significant, non-confounded load on either actual or ideal, but not both. Although some load scores are in the significant range, they are confounded because the sort has similarly high loads on multiple factors. These confounded sorts are not considered when defining the factors.

The analysis of the data showed four distinct views of leadership among Red Cross workers. Each of the four factors represents a unique perspective existing in the population of Red Cross workers and helps to better understand the workers who hold that particular view of leadership. Each factor was interpreted from a qualitative perspective, utilizing the theoretical Q-sort of the factor and accompanying demographics and open-ended participant responses to describe a nuanced view of the implicit theory represented by each factor. For ease of reference in the document, the resulting four views of leadership are named *Show Me the Way*; *See Me, Then Tell Me*; *Stand Beside Me*; and *Please Understand Me*.

Show Me the Way

This view is defined by twelve total sorts, five representing an actual leader (Participants

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3, 5, 12, 16, & 19) and seven representing an ideal leader (Participants 1, 3, 12, 14, 16, 19, & 20). None of these significant loadings is negative. Eight of the twelve sorts are represented by four people, who all loaded significantly on this factor with both their actual and ideal sorts. Of the remaining four sorts, three are ideal and one is actual. These four participants all showed a non-significant or confounded load on the other sort. In general, these participants appear to be fairly satisfied, and the difference between actual and ideal is minimal. Table 2 provides the ten most like and ten least like statements for the *Show Me the Way* view, along with each statement's array position and *z*-score. Distinguishing statements (starred in the table) are those statements whose position sets this view apart from the others. For example, statement 8 shows up in the table below as a distinguishing statement for the *Show Me the Way* view, as it does not show up as a most like statement in any other view, as opposed to statement 4, which also shows up as a most like statement in the *Stand By Me* view.

Table 2: Most Like and Most Unlike Statements and Scores for *Show Me the Way*

No.	Statement	Array Position	*z*-Score
Most Like Statements			
4	Comes up with creative ways of looking at problems and solutions	4	1.666
8*	Articulates a compelling vision of the work we are doing and how it can be done better	4	1.627
12*	Tells me in clear language exactly what needs to be done	3	1.501
31*	Is aware of the moral issues on the situation and is careful to make decisions with this in mind	3	1.355
10	Empowers me to take action without supervision when I see things that need to be done	3	0.957
34	Creates a sense of calm that relieves my fears so that I can get important tasks done	3	0.923
22*	Has a magical energy about him/her that helps the group bond and be productive	2	0.872
35	Motivates by helping us understand how important the work we are doing is to the people we are helping	2	0.808
6	Displays a strong sense of power and confidence in everything he/she does	2	0.804
21*	Influences me and others in the group because we like and respect him/her	2	0.756
Most Unlike Statements			
11	Waits to take action until things go wrong, allowing the group to make its own decisions on what action should be taken	-4	-2.025
36	Does not interfere in the work of the group until problems are very serious	-4	-1.868
15	Talks about their most important values and beliefs to me and others in the group	-3	-1.312
16	Takes high personal risks when it will benefit the group	-3	-1.273
19	Relies on group members to make decisions about even the most critical issues	-3	-1.267

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24	Follows the rules, no matter what	-3	-1.249
1	Ensures that my immediate needs are met	-2	-1.179
20	Takes me by surprise by being unconventional when I least expect it	-2	-1.073
25	Is the reason I work harder than I normally would	-2	-0.846
28	Is diligent in keeping track of all mistakes so they can quickly be remedied	-2	-0.799

* indicates a distinguishing statement

This view is titled *Show Me the Way* because the followers in this view of leadership are looking to the leader for guidance, motivation, inspiration, and direction. This leader is active, not passive, and communicates clearly with the followers. The leader and the followers are committed to the Red Cross, and in general the followers are satisfied with their leader. There is a lack of focus on the group or team in this view of leadership. *Show Me the Way* leadership is not about the group or the individual followers but about the leader. In fact, the leader is what makes everything possible.

The data show that this leader is in the middle of things. She does not rely on the group to make decisions or deal with problems, but is right there ready to take action and make things work, regardless of the feelings of the group about the matter. This is not leadership by delegation, where the leader might take an opportunity to find out what the group thinks or let them make the decision themselves, but instead is rather directive.

This directive nature of the leader's behavior is primarily exhibited by the ability to communicate clearly with followers. Language is particularly important to this effective communication. The follower is looking to the leader to articulate a compelling vision (statement 8) and to tell them in clear language exactly what needs to be done (statement 12). The roles are clearly defined, and the leader is in charge. The follower looks to the leader for direction as well as motivation (statement 35), empowerment (statement 10), and to create a sense of calm (statement 34). The follower would probably tell you that all this would not be possible without the leader, in other words, that leadership is almost like magic. In fact, this factor is the only view of leadership where magical energy (statement 22) plays a significant role.

While the relationship between the leader and follower is paramount to this view of leadership, something else is at work here. These followers are committed to the Red Cross, and so are their leaders. The leader is "aware of the moral issues in the situation" (statement 31). Another interesting way to look at this is to contrast statement 23, "is willing to make personal sacrifices if it will benefit the group or the people we are helping" (array position 1, *z*-score 0.48) with statement 16, "takes high personal risks when it will benefit the group" (array position -3, *z*-score -1.27). When personal risk or sacrifice is of potential benefit to the people being helped, it is to be considered. When it will just benefit the group, it is unnecessary.

Based on their comments, these followers are generally satisfied with the leadership they have received in the field from the Red Cross. Four of the seven loaded on this factor with both

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their actual and ideal sorts. One of these participants (Participant 12) described the leader he was thinking of by saying the leader "exhibited great leadership and managerial skills in the face of staggering conditions, and continues to do so on a daily basis." Another participant indicated the leader she chose to sort was responsible for the most positive experience of her recent two assignments in the field (Participant 16).

Finally, this view of leadership seems to be distinguished by less reliance on the group or team involved. Five of the six most unlike statements are group-focused, and several of the participants described their work as primarily solitary. One stated that she "worked alone" and "did my own thing" most of the time (Participant 5). Several indicated they enjoyed working one on one with clients and did this regularly (Participant 12, Participant 14, and Participant 16).

See Me, Then Tell Me

Another perspective, entitled *See Me, Then Tell Me*, is defined by four sorts, two positive, both ideal (Participants 9 & 11), and two negative, both actual (Participants 7 & 11). In other words, two followers identified this type of leader as what they were looking for, while two followers identified this type of leader as the opposite of their actual leader. Two of these sorts are represented by the same person, whose actual sort had a significant negative load on factor two and whose ideal sort had a significant positive load on factor two. One participant whose actual sort had a significant negative load on factor two (Participant 7) had a significant positive load on factor 3. Overall, this seems to indicate that the *See Me, Then Tell Me* view of leadership is one that some Red Cross workers are looking for, but not finding in their Red Cross leaders. Table 3 provides the ten most like and ten least like statements for the *See Me, Then Tell Me* view, along with each statement's array position and *z*-score.

Table 3: Most Like and Most Unlike Statements and Scores for *See Me, Then Tell Me*

No.	Statement	Array Position	*z*-Score
Most Like Statements			
1*	Ensures that my immediate needs are met	4	2.038
17*	Has my highest respect	4	1.880
26	Gives me reason to trust him/her completely	3	1.803
18	Is effective in representing me to higher authority	3	1.727
21	Influences me and others in the group because we like and respect him/her	3	1.307
10	Empowers me to take action without supervision when I see things that need to be done	3	1.288
9	Instills pride in me and others are associated with him/her	2	0.961
27	Tells the group in specific terms who is responsible for each task	2	0.637
29	Is a good teacher and coach	2	0.627
12	Tells me in clear language exactly what needs to be done	2	0.527

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Most Unlike Statements			
11	Waits to take action until things go wrong, allowing the group to make its own decisions on what action should be taken	-4	-1.663
36	Does not interfere in the work of the group until problems are very serious	-4	-1.547
3	Encourages us to do things in ways that do not incur much risk	-3	-1.410
20	Takes me by surprise by being unconventional when I least expect it	-3	-1.164
6	Displays a strong sense of power and confidence in everything he/she does	-3	-1.084
28	Is diligent in keeping track of all mistakes so they can be remedied	-3	-1.059
24	Follows the rules, no matter what	-2	-1.005
35*	Motivates by helping us understand how important the work we are doing is to the people we are helping.	-2	-0.945
7*	Brings up new ideas and possibilities that inspire me and others	-2	-0.830
19	Relies on group members to make decisions about even the most critical issues	-2	-0.730

* indicates a distinguishing statement

The second factor is named *See Me, Then Tell Me* because these followers want to be seen for what they bring to the table, and then told what to do to contribute. This second factor is more about the follower than the leader. This follower is looking for a leader who is concerned about and focused on the follower and his needs. The follower wants to be seen, and wants to be told clearly what is expected and exactly what to do. The leader must earn the respect and trust of the follower in order to be successful. The leader is active, but in ways that empower and engage the follower and are of benefit to the follower and the situation.

The most like statement for this view of leadership is “ensures that my immediate needs are met” (statement 1). This distinguishing statement sets this view of leadership apart from the other factors by a strong focus on the follower. Of the top ten most like statements, eight contain either “me” or “my” in the text. The language even seems to show this focus on self. This follower views the leader through a very personal lens—he is concerned that the leader be able to represent him to higher authority (statement 18), and that the leader “is a good teacher and coach” (statement 29) for him.

This follower also views respect and trust through a personal lens – the leader must earn it to have the follower’s support. The second most like statement in this view of leadership is “has my highest respect,” (statement 17), while the third most like is “gives me reason to trust him/her completely” (statement 26). This focus on respect or trust seems to be based on competence rather than commitment to the cause. Personal sacrifice on the part of the leader (statement 23, array position 0, *z*-score -0.33), talking about values (statement 15, array position -1, *z*-score -0.41), and understanding the important moral issues (statement 31, array position 1,

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z-score 0.36) do not seem to be important to the follower; in fact, he seems to be neutral on these issues. The leader can be committed to the cause or not; the follower will trust and respect the leader based on competence, regardless of these issues.

This matter-of-fact approach to the leader is supported by the comments of the participants who defined this factor. All three participants noted what their occupation was, and were very specific about their involvement in the Red Cross. Two of the participants are engineers (Participant 7 and Participant 9). Overall, they appear to be self-confident and very clear on what they bring to the Red Cross disaster relief effort. These comments support the idea that these followers want to be seen first for what they can bring, then told how to use those skills.

These followers clearly want an active, rather than passive, leader. They do not want someone who waits to take action until things go wrong (statement 11), nor do they want someone who will wait to interfere until problems are serious (statement 36). On the other hand, they know their own skills and competencies and want to take action themselves. They want a leader who empowers them to take action without supervision (statement 10), and who tells the group in specific terms who is responsible for what task (statement 27). If they are going to be responsible for a task, they want to know in clear language exactly what needs to be done (statement 12), and they want the rest of the group clear on the fact that they are the responsible ones for that particular task.

Articulating a vision (statement 8, array position 1, *z*-score 0.32) is neutral to them. This distinguishes them from the other factors, who are either positive or negative on the need for vision. For the *See Me, Then Tell Me* follower, vision is irrelevant, as is creativity (statements 4 & 32, both array position -1, *z*-score -0.63 and -0.37 respectively). As long as their needs are met and the task is clearly defined, they are ready for action. In fact, this follower is potentially hindered by a leader they would describe as too motivational and soft. They do not want a leader who takes them by surprise (statement 20), or who is worried about motivating and inspiring them (statements 7 & 35). They just want a competent leader who knows what they are doing, knows what their followers are capable of, and tells them what to do.

It is important to note that this follower would not describe themselves as a self-focused follower. While they indicated their immediate needs were important (statement 1), they are not terribly concerned about the leader expressing concern for their personal needs and feelings (statement 30, array position 1, *z*-score 0.26), nor are they concerned about being rewarded for their efforts (statement 14, array position 0, *z*-score 0.06).

This view of leadership is not about the leader, the group, or the task. Instead, it is focused on the follower, both their needs and how they can contribute.

Stand Beside Me

Another view, entitled *Stand Beside Me*, is defined by seven sorts, four actual

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(Participants 10, 13, 15 & 17) and three ideal (Participants 7, 15, & 17), one of the actual sorts in negative (Participant 15). This factor shows the most variety in changes between actual and ideal. Two participants (Participant 10 & Participant 13) had actual sorts that were positively loaded on this factor, and ideal sorts that were either non-significant or confounded. One participant, 7, had an ideal sort that had a positive load on factor three, and an actual sort with a negative load on factor two. Two participants had both their actual and ideal sorts on factor three, but for one of those participants their actual sort had a negative load on factor three. The pattern of actual and ideal sorts does not tell us much about factor three. Table 4 provides the ten most like statements and ten least like statements for the *Stand Beside Me* view, along with each statement's array position and *z*-score.

Table 4: Most Like and Most Unlike Statements and Scores for *Stand Beside Me*

No.	Statement	Array Position	*z*-Score
Most Like Statements			
4	Comes up with creative ways of looking at problems and solutions	4	2.035
26	Gives me reason to trust him/her completely	4	1.806
10	Empowers me to take action without supervision when I see things that need to be done	3	1.522
16*	Takes high personal risks when it will benefit the group	3	1.520
23*	Is willing to make personal sacrifices if it will benefit the group or the people we are helping	3	1.331
21	Influences me and others in the group because we like and respect him/her	3	1.326
35	Motivates by helping us understand how important the work we are doing is to the people we are helping	2	1.084
29	Is a good teacher and coach	2	0.668
31	Is aware of the moral issues in the situation and is careful to make decisions with this in mind	2	0.576
36	Does not interfere in the work of the group until problems are very serious	2	0.473
Most Unlike Statements			
24	Follows the rules, no matter what	-4	-2.171
20	Takes me by surprise by being unconventional when I least expect it	-4	-1.736
8*	Articulates a compelling vision of the work we are doing and how it can be done better	-3	-1.593
11	Waits to take action until things go wrong, allowing the group to make its own decisions on what action should be taken	-3	-1.221
28	Is diligent in keeping track of all mistakes so they can quickly be remedied	-3	-1.018
15	Talks about their most important values and beliefs to me and others in the group	-3	-0.913

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34*	Creates a sense of calm that relieves my fears so that I can get important tasks done	-2	-0.763
1	Ensures that my immediate needs are met	-2	-0.724
3	Encourages us to do things in ways that do not incur much risk	-2	-0.707
6	Displays a strong sense of power and confidence in everything he/she does	-2	-0.684

* indicates a distinguishing statement

Factor three is named *Stand Beside Me* because these followers are interested in a leader who is focused on the work at hand and will work in concert with the follower. This follower approaches the work from a level of personal competence and confidence, and is motivated because they believe in the work. They want a leader who can connect these two important pieces of the puzzle.

The real focus of this view of leadership is the work. There is no need for a compelling vision from the leader (statement 8) because the follower and leader are already on the same page about the importance of the work at hand. Rules are likewise unnecessary (statement 24) because decision-making is based on the situation. These followers are highly internally motivated, and so do not want a micro-managing leader who will keep track of mistakes (statement 28) or worry much about managing the group or the work. Instead, the leader motivates by their own focus on the importance of the work (statement 35) and their understanding of the moral issues involved (statement 31).

Maybe even more important than the focus on the work at hand is the commitment to the work and the issue by the leader. The follower expects the leader to take high personal risks (statement 16) and be willing to make personal sacrifices (statement 23) when it will help the cause. Both of these statements distinguish this factor from the other three factors. When the follower perceives the leader to be focused on and committed to the work, he will trust and respect the leader. This trust and respect will only be granted, however, when the leader gives the follower reason to trust him (statement 26).

Competence is key for this view of leadership. This follower expects the leader to know what they are doing and to take action based on this knowledge. The leader needs to be a good problem-solver, and able to look at the situation creatively (statement 4). They are not interested in a leader who is trying too hard by surprising people (statement 20), talking about their personal values and beliefs (statement 15), or trying to articulate a vision (statement 8). They are not worried about the leader being powerful and confident (statement 6), just competent and committed.

This follower is confident in their own competence, as evidenced by the comments offered by the participants who help define this factor. While each had no more than three years of experience in the Red Cross, they all listed at least three different disasters in which they had

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participated in the response and 5–15 training experiences. This high level of involvement in a short period of time indicates a strong commitment to the Red Cross as well as a desire to be competent in whatever they take on as volunteers. Unlike the other factors, this view of leadership is neutral on the leader relying on group members to make decisions about critical issues (statement 19, array position 0, *z*-score 0.12). This follower knows he and his colleagues are capable of making decisions, so he is not worried about who makes decisions. If the leader leaves it up to him, he'll know what to do. If the leader makes the decision, the follower will go with it.

More than the other three factors, this view of leadership is egalitarian and shares power between the leader and the follower. This follower does not look up to the leader for direction, inspiration, or to meet his needs, but instead looks beside him at the leader for a companion on the road. One participant (Participant 17) whose actual and ideal sorts both helped define this factor, described the leader he was depicting this way: "Wanted you to do the job and let him do his. But always someone you could go to."

The idealistic followers who represent the *Stand Beside Me* view of leadership desire a leader who will not tell them what to do, but will stand beside them and take the same risks they are willing to take.

Please Understand Me

The fourth view was small, but clearly different from the others (correlations with other factors were $r = 0.39$, 0.31, and 0.20 respectively). This view is defined by three sorts, two ideal (Participants 4 & 18) and one actual (Participant 6), all from different participants. The actual sort is negatively loaded, indicating the leader was the opposite of this view of leadership. Similar to factor two, this seems to indicate that factor four represents a view of leadership that some Red Cross workers are looking for, but not a view they perceive from their Red Cross leaders. Table 5 provides the ten most like statements and ten least like statements for the *Please Understand Me* view, along with each statement's array position and *z*-score.

Table 5: Most Like and Most Unlike Statements and Scores for *Please Understand Me*

No.	Statement	Array Position	*z*-Score
Most Like Statements			
33*	Uses intuition and past experience to inform decision-making	4	1.803
14*	Consistently rewards me for my efforts and makes me feel good about the work I am doing	4	1.731
18	Is effective in representing me to higher authority	3	1.658
13*	Sees the limitations of workers and volunteers and helps me and others work within and around these limitations	3	1.578
5*	Recognizes the things I'm really good at and finds ways for me to capitalize on these skills	3	1.316
34	Creates a sense of calm that relieves my fears so that I can get	3	1.109

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	important tasks done		
6	Displays a strong sense of power and confidence in everything he/she does	2	1.029
7	Brings up new ideas and possibilities that inspire me and others	2	0.911
12	Tells me in clear language exactly what needs to be done	2	0.702
2	Drives me to succeed in everything I do	2	0.585

Most Unlike Statements			
24	Follows the rules, no matter what	-4	-1.884
11	Waits to take action until things go wrong, allowing the group to make its own decisions on what action should be taken	-4	-1.848
16	Takes high personal risks when it will benefit the group	-3	-1.578
20	Takes me by surprise by being unconventional when I least expect it	-3	-1.352
3	Encourages us to do things in ways that do not incur much risk	-3	-1.226
19	Relies on group members to make decisions about even the most critical issues	-3	-1.146
8*	Articulates a compelling vision of the work we are doing and how it can be done better	-2	-0.856
21*	Influences me and others in the group because we like and respect him/her	-2	-0.828
23	Is willing to make personal sacrifices if it will benefit the group or the people we are helping	-2	-0.605
32	Has a creative method to guiding work	-2	-0.585

* indicates a distinguishing statement

Although only three sorts defined this factor, named *Please Understand Me*, the perspective represents a very individualized, personal view of leadership. This view of leadership requires the leader to understand the follower as an individual, and interact with the follower in ways that are consistent with this understanding. The relationship between the leader and the follower is the key to this view of leadership. The leader is still active, but this is about feeling more than acting.

The leader in the *Please Understand Me* view sees the limitations of workers and volunteers (statement 13) and recognizes the things he is really good at (statement 5). These two statements are both distinguishing, indicating that their high placement is significantly different from the other three factors. Being rewarded for individual efforts is also critical for this follower (statement 14). They want to be understood as an individual by the leader.

In addition to being understood, they want a leader who will make decisions and interact with them in ways that are specific to them. They want a leader who makes decisions intuitively (statement 33), and helps them capitalize on their skills (statement 5) and work around their limitations (statement 13). The leader does not make decisions based strictly on rules, guidelines,

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or facts, but instead is able to use intuition to discern the appropriate action to take as well as the tasks most appropriate for each follower.

These followers also want a leader to represent them to higher authority (statement 18). This representation is not about the group, but about the individual follower. The leader in this view will know how to talk to higher authority figures about each of their individual reports, rather than discussing the group as a whole. For the follower, this representation and understanding of them as individuals is more important than what the leader brings to the situation. A leader with magical energy (statement 22, array position 0, z-score 0.09) who is willing to make personal sacrifices (statement 23), articulate a vision (statement 8) or be unconventional (statement 20) is not important, and in fact the follower perceives these behaviors as unnecessary. This relationship is the key to this view of leadership.

This does not mean the leader is not active. On the contrary, this is not a leader who waits to take action (statement 11) or relies on group members for decision-making (statement 19). But the importance in this view of leadership is placed on feeling. The leader is intuitive (statement 33) and confident (statement 6). The leader inspires the follower (statement 7) and drives the follower to succeed (statement 2).

The *Please Understand Me* view of leadership is about personal relationships and leadership that stems out of these relationships. The leader must know the follower and individualize their leadership actions to address the follower directly.

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that four distinct views of leadership exist among Red Cross workers. While the method of this study does not allow a determination regarding the dispersion of these views within the population of Red Cross workers, it does indicate that all these views exist and may represent both actual and ideal views of leadership among Red Cross workers. Table 6 presents a summary description of the four views of leadership as defined by the participants in this study.

Table 6: Four Distinct Views of Leadership

Show Me the Way • Active leader • Communicates clearly with workers • Leader and worker committed to Red Cross • Workers generally satisfied with leader • Lack of focus on group or team • The leader makes everything possible	*See Me, Then Tell Me* • Worker wants to be seen for what they bring to the table • Worker wants to be told what to do • Focus is on the worker • Leader earns trust and respect from worker in order to be successful • Leader is active in ways that empower and engage the worker
Stand Beside Me • Leader must be focused on the work	*Please Understand Me* • Leader must understand worker as an

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• Leader and worker work in concert • Worker is personally competent and confident • Worker is motivated by their belief in the work	individual • Relationship between leader and worker is key • Leader is active, but in more emotionally connected ways

The comparison of actual and ideal loads for each participant and within each factor does not yield a great deal of insight. What is evident is that there is not a lot of movement from one factor to another. In addition, each factor is defined by both actual and ideal sorts, indicating there is no one factor that is typically only ideal or only actual. The examination of actual and ideal sorts provides some insight into the individual factors, but does not result in a clear pattern of difference between actual and ideal.

In a general way, most people who are working for the Red Cross view their actual and ideal leader the same way. This is not to indicate that they are always satisfied with their leader, as some participants saw their actual leader as being the opposite of their ideal. Primarily, though, participants viewed leadership in a single way and evaluated their actual leader based on their ideal leader.

This conclusion, that workers will evaluate their leader based on what they specifically want rather than a more general concept of a leader, is consistent with the leadership literature. One study that looked specifically at volunteer motivation concluded that volunteer satisfaction was related to their reason for volunteering (Govekar & Govekar, 2002). These volunteers each came in for a different reason, and were only satisfied if the situation and the leader behaved consistent with this reason.

The four distinct views, or implicit theories, of leadership in this study can be related back to the theories from which the Q-set was originally drawn, specifically charismatic leadership theory and transformational leadership theory. Both theories help inform an understanding of Red Cross field leadership, but neither theory fully represents the perceptions of Red Cross workers.

In general, it seems each implicit theory of leadership is more strongly aligned with one or two of the behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership than with the remaining dimensions. Table 7 provides a summary of the relationship between each factor and the behavioral dimensions of charismatic leadership as defined by Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988, & 1998).

Table 7: Behavioral Dimensions of Charismatic Leadership and the Four Factors

Behavioral Dimension	1: Show Me the Way	2: See Me, Then Tell Me	3: Stand Beside Me	4: Please Understand Me

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Sensitivity to enviro context	Critical	Neutral	Critical	Only related to worker
Strategic vision and articulation	Most critical	Neutral, but telling is important	Negative	Negative
Sensitivity to member needs	Neutral	Critical	Neutral	Rewards & representation only
Personal risk	Only when helps the cause	Neutral	Critical	Negative
Unconventional behavior	Unnecessary	Negative	Negative	Negative

This divergence in the importance of each dimension to each factor is particularly interesting when considered with the stages of charismatic leadership laid out by Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1998): evaluation of the status quo, formulation and articulation of organizational goals, and means to achieve the vision. They describe how the behavioral dimensions have varying importance depending on the stage. Data does not allow comparison between these stages and the factors very effectively, because the participants provided limited information about the context of the leadership they were describing. This data is not yet exhausted of useful information, though.

Transformational leadership provides additional insight into the four factors in this study. Each of the four implicit theories of leadership shows different connections to each of the components of transformational leadership. Table 8 summarizes these relationships. It is important to note that some statements in the Q-set were reworded to have potentially positive outcomes, particularly those related to contingent reward, management-by-exception, and *laissez-faire* leadership. In the theory of transformational leadership, and particularly in the instrument designed to measure transformational, transactional, *laissez-faire* leadership, transactional and *laissez-faire* types of leadership are conveyed much more negatively.

Table 8: Components of Transformational Leadership and the Four Factors

Component	1: Show Me the Way	2: See Me, Then Tell Me	3: Stand Beside Me	4: Please Understand Me
<u>*Transformational*</u>				
Inspirational	Positive	Only related to respect	Positive, but not too obvious	Neutral
Intellectual stimulation	Positive	Neutral	Positive	Neutral
Individualized consideration	Negative	Positive	Neutral to negative	Positive
<u>*Transactional*</u>				

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Contingent reward	Neutral	Neutral	Neutral	Positive
Management by exception	Positive & Negative	Positive	Neutral to negative	Neutral
Laissez-faire	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative

Both charismatic leadership theory and transformational leadership theory find some commonalities with each of the views of leadership described in this study. No factor, however, is clearly related to every component of a single theory. Each view of leadership seems to be positively related to one or more components of each theory, but never to the theory as a whole. More generally, in order to understand leadership in crisis and disaster, any theory must address three key components of this type of leadership: it is field-based (Weick, 1993), context-driven (Mitroff, 2001), and socially-close (Yagil, 1998).

Recommendations for Further Research

This study has provided rich insight into the perceptions of Red Cross workers, but like most research, begs for further study in many areas. In order to confirm the results of this study, the research could be replicated with a different sample of Red Cross workers from another part of the country. Of particular interest would be the potential stronger existence of *Please Understand Me*, giving rise to socially-close relationships in disaster. These four views of leadership may be used as a starting point for considering the shift of leadership perception among Red Cross Workers. Do these workers' views of leadership tend to change over the length of their involvement in the Red Cross? Using a different methodology, research could be conducted that would examine the dispersion of these views of leadership in the population. Perhaps most importantly, research is needed in a variety of organizations that deal with extreme contexts, not just the Red Cross. A naturalistic approach would be most useful in allowing followers to describe the extreme contexts they find themselves in and how leadership is exhibited in those contexts.

Additionally, this study focused on field leadership in the American Red Cross. Similar studies with different organizations or in different countries would be useful in building a theory or model for field leadership as one type of socially-close leadership. Additional research could consider other types of socially-close leadership, specifically comparing how it is different from socially-distant leadership. The results and conclusions of this exploratory study provide a starting point for future research related to leadership in extreme contexts, Red Cross leadership, and socially-close leadership in general. It represents an exciting beginning to a field of leadership research that is just beginning to open up to new possibilities.

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