CLOSE AND DISTANT CHARISMATIC AND CONTINGENT REWARD LEADERSHIP: MULTIPLE LEVELS-OF-MANAGEMENT AND MULTIPLE LEVELS-OF-ANALYSIS PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract

The purpose of the current dissertation was to examine various differences between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Those differences were defined and investigated in terms of distinctive leader-influence mechanisms and followers' leadership perceptions and multiple levels-of-analysis effects for close and distant leader-follower relationships.

First, by integrating the literature on dual-mode information processing with the literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership, a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership was developed. There were two key points of the conceptualization: (a) two different attitude consequences in terms of strength emerge (i.e., strong attitude toward close leaders and weak attitude toward distant leaders); and (b) attitude strength moderates the attitude-mediating relationship between leadership and follower outcomes. Building on the conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership, four research models across three levels of management were developed for empirical investigation: (a) close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper levels; (b) close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at lower levels; (c) bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership; and (d) cascading-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership.

Second, close and distant leadership situations involving multiple layers of management inherently raise the issue of multiple levels of analysis. The dynamics in the substantive relationships among variables for close and distant leadership were tested rigorously by incorporating a multiple levels-of-analysis technique–Multivariate Within- And Between-entities Analysis (MWABA). To test the hypothesized relationships in conjunction with multiple levels of analysis and management, a matched-report data set was obtained from 27 department heads, 77 managers, and 218 staff members from 13 large Korean companies in various industries.

Results of this empirical investigation yielded several conclusions. First, followers' commitment to the leader *fully*, or *at least partially*, mediated the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and followers' outcomes in close leadership situations at upper (department head-manager) and lower (manager-staff member) levels of management. Second, compared to close situations, distant followers' commitment to the leader did *not* mediate, or *at best partially* mediated, the relationships between leadership and followers' outcomes (bypass-distant model: department head-staff member). Third, the department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership was significantly related to the corresponding leadership of managers (cascading-distant model: department head-managers). Fourth, interaction effects of the department head and manager leadership were not supported, confirming the bypass and cascading model of distant leadership. Fifth, from single- and multiple-rating sources, various multiple-level effects in charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena were found, differing by levels of management and for different outcomes. Sixth, there were significant cross-level effects found for close leadership situations. Theoretical, methodological, and practical implications as well as limitations of this study are discussed.

DEDICATION

There are many real treasures to me at multiple levels and all of them are respectably valuable in my life, though my acknowledgements are by no means all-inclusive.

To my companion: Hee Young

To my family: Se Jin, Kyu Jin, parents, brothers, and sisters

To my community: All giving me true love

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Recall the parable of the blind men and the elephant: There were four blind men who came across an elephant to determine what kind of creature it was. The first blind man touched the large round legs of the elephant. He said, "An elephant is like a tree." The second blind man felt the squirming trunk and said, "An elephant is like a snake." The third blind man touched the swinging tail. He said, "An elephant is like a rope." And the fourth blind man was reluctant to touch the elephant and did not even feel it. The three blind men argued about what the elephant was and, based on their own personal experience, asserted that each was right. Simply imagine a mosaic made by the piece of recognition which each blind man asserted to be true! If the blind men had attempted to continuously interact with the elephant by exploring it in holistic and integrative ways and sharing their experiences, they would not have reached the conclusion that the elephant is composed of a tree, a snake, and a rope.

The parable, I believe, may have a telling implication for contemporary research in organizational behavior which has been split into micro and macro perspective, aroused by the person-situation debate, and calls for multiple levels-of-analysis incorporation in research. As the fable implies, to the extent that we can make any contribution to the understanding of complex organizational phenomena, it will be through viewing an organization as an integrated system where the whole is not a simple aggregation of the parts that can be homogeneous, heterogeneous, or independent (Lewin, 1951; Likert, 1961, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1966).

A key tenet of the systems perspective on organizations is that organizations are multiple-level systems in their very nature (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Most contemporary organizational theories are rooted in the systems perspective and the underlying

principle of the systems perspective may be pervasively accepted across various topics in organizational behavior (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Nonetheless, the actual impact of the systems perspective on organizational research seems to be merely metaphorical, in that organizational scholars have tended to focus on narrow subsets, single entities, or their fragmentary relationships in a multiple-level system, thereby obscuring our understanding of an organization as an integrated system (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

Emphasizing the integrated systems perspective on organizations has something in common with the recent call for more attention to studies for "*organizing processes*" rather than for "*organized entities*" in organizations. By making a distinction between the two definitions of organizations, Rousseau (1997) and Heath and Sitkin (2001) strongly predicate that organizational researchers should develop theories about how organizing happens. Specifically, they suggest that organizational scholars should devote relatively more efforts to the topics such as how organizational members solve the complex problems of aligning goals, coordinating actions, reorganizing existing structures and behaviors, and achieving the goals. For example, such topics might include social norms and networks, communications across individuals, groups, and hierarchical levels, trust, cooperation beyond self-interest, and managerial cognition and information processing at various levels (Heath & Sitkin, 2001; Rousseau, 1997). It seems obvious that robust understanding of the dynamic nature of these topics requires theory development and testing by incorporating a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective, especially multi-level or cross-level considerations on linkages across levels (Hackman, 2003; Heath & Sitkin, 2001; Rousseau, 1997).

Building on the importance of an integrated systems perspective on organizations and the necessity of more devotion to topics about how organizing happens, we have to ask a question

about the viable ways we are able to meet those demanding issues. Wilpert (1995) describes organizations as socially constructed realities. That is, organizational phenomena are socially constructed through the dynamic interactions and organizing processes among relevant social entities – individuals, groups, and organizations. As long as organizations are viewed as interactively integrated social systems, contextual embeddedness of social entities at lower levels within those at higher levels implicitly exits.

Given the contextual embeddedness, higher-level phenomena, such as team climate, can significantly constrain lower-level effects such as individual perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, and their relationships (i.e., top-down multi-level contextual effects). In contrast, lower-level phenomena, such as individual perceptions on self-efficacy, may manifest at higher levels in terms of collective efficacy as an emergent property (i.e., bottom-up emergent effects) (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; House, Rousseau, &Thomas-Hunt, 1995; Klein, Dansereau, Hall, 1994; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Rousseau, 1985).

Due to the noted potential constraints and manifestations, our understanding of organizational phenomena can be enhanced by paying more attention to the dynamic interactions and organizing processes among relevant social entities – individuals, groups, and collectives. A viable way to do so is to develop models that represent theoretically and practically critical and salient organizational phenomena by explicitly and correctly incorporating a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective into the models.

Leadership, Multiple Levels of Management, and Multiple Levels of Analysis

The premise of current study is that better understanding of dynamic and complex organizational phenomena can be warranted by viewing organizations as interactively integrated systems and focusing on organizing processes in organizations. Organizations, as integrated

systems, are composed of various subsystems or social entities and embody dynamic interactions among them (Lewin, 1951; Likert, 1961, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1966). Focusing on the organizing processes is a way to examine how various goals and actions of the subsystems/social entities are coordinated, aligned, integrated, and led to organizational effectiveness (Heath & Sitkin, 2001; Rousseau, 1997).

What is one of the plausible mechanisms to explain the organizing processes in complex organizational systems? The current study maintains that organizational leadership plays a critical role in the organizing processes in the organizational system. A consideration of the organizing processes among diverse subsystems/social entities across levels clearly shows the inescapable demand of leadership functions (Likert, 1961, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1966). In fact, leadership in complex organizational systems inevitably emerges and functions within and between subsystems/social entities across multiple hierarchical levels to coordinate and integrate diverse goals and actions of the social entities, thereby motivating them to achieve organizational goals.

Accordingly, organizational leadership represents a linking process of various subsystems/social entities in organizational systems – individuals, groups/teams, and collectives (Franklin, 1975; Griffin & Mathieu, 1997). Maintaining integrations among the subsystems/social entities through the linking process of leadership is the cornerstone of Likert's (1961) "linking pin" and Katz and Kahn's (1966) "interpolation" explanations on organizational leadership.

Given the premise that organizational leadership represents an organizing process, the linking or interpolation whereby diverse subsystems/social entities are integrated toward organizational effectiveness (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Likert, 1961, 1967), the current study

examines various leadership aspects as a function of multiple levels of management; in addition, those leadership aspects across multiple levels of management are conceptualized and tested by incorporating a multiple levels-of-analysis approach (Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

Current understanding of organizational leadership across multiple levels of management can be framed by two broad types of leadership research. The first approach is based on the notion that different patterns of leader roles, behaviors, and cognitive/affective abilities and skills are encountered at multiple hierarchical levels (Dalton, 1989; Day & Lord, 1988; Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Tosi, 1991). That is, leaders at different hierarchical levels are distinct, and the behaviors and abilities of leader effectiveness at a particular level of management may be less relevant at another hierarchical level. This line of research also can be found in several attempts to make a distinction between leadership *of* and *in* organizations (Dubin, 1977; Hunt & Ropo, 1995) and between leadership and management/supervision (Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 1977), where "leadership of" and "leadership" represent leadership at a higher level of management and "leadership in" and "management/supervision" reflect that at a lower level of management, respectively. Given the presumption that leadership behaviors and traits appropriate to one level of organizational hierarchy may be irrelevant or even dysfunctional at another level (Dalton, 1989; Katz & Kahn, 1966), this approach may imply that leadership behaviors at a higher level of management cannot cascade down to leadership behaviors at a lower level of management.

In contrast, the second approach examines whether leadership behavioral patterns can be transmitted from a higher level of management to the next level below (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Misumi, 1985; Ouchi & Maguire, 1975); and the mechanisms whereby the

influence or leadership cascades down across levels of management. Various plausible explanations about the cascading effects reflecting similar behavioral leadership patterns across hierarchical levels have been suggested, such as behavioral modeling, stylistically matched selection, and the mediating role of organizational climate and group process (Franklin, 1975; Griffin & Mathieu, 1997; Likert, 1967; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994).

Despite the intellectual rigor and insights on leadership across multiple levels of management, many aspects regarding the leadership across levels are not completely addressed by the attempts noted above. First, the notion that different patterns of leader roles, behaviors, and cognitive/affective abilities are demonstrated across hierarchical levels requires leadership scholars to study both higher- and lower-level leadership in a balanced manner. Nonetheless, most researchers of organizational leadership have extensively focused on the leadership processes between lower- and, occasionally, middle-level supervisors/managers and their immediate subordinates (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Avolio, Zhu, Koh, Bhatia, 2004; House & Aditya, 1997; Hunt & Dodge, 2000; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Consequently, our current understanding of upper-echelon leadership may be quite limited, relative to that of lower-level leadership, implying that the distinction between upper- and lower-level leadership, while intuitively suggestive, needs to be demonstrated with more theoretical consideration and empirical evidence.

Second, a leader's hierarchical level does not necessarily indicate the leader-follower distance between the leader and corresponding followers, because leaders at higher levels of management in an organizational system not only have distant followers who hold indirect relationships with them, but also have immediate followers who directly report to them. For example, a chief executive officer (CEO) has leader-follower relationships with top management

team (TMT) members as immediate/close followers and with employees at lower echelons as indirect/distant followers. Similarly, U.S. Presidents lead cabinet members (i.e., immediate/close followers), as well as U.S. citizens (i.e., indirect/distant followers). CEO leadership perceived by TMT members (Waldman, Ramírez, House, & Puranam, 2001) and U.S. Presidents as described by their cabinet members (House, Spangler, & Woycke, 1991) may not actually represent *leadership at a distance*. This is a critical consideration when viewing leadership at higher levels of management. In fact, leadership scholars have tended to presume that organizational leadership at upper-echelons represents distant leader-follower relationships alone. This issue, with few notable exceptions (e.g., Shamir, 1995; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994), has never been explicitly addressed.

Third, and most importantly, leadership in and of itself is a multiple-level phenomenon occurring between an individual leader and individual followers, groups of followers, and/or collectives of the groups of followers (Dansereau & Yammarino, 1998a, 1998b). In particular, organizational leadership across multiple levels of management must be conceptualized and tested by a multiple levels-of-analysis approach (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Why? Individual followers are embedded in groups/teams, groups of followers are embedded in departments, and departments of groups of followers are embedded in an organization. Hence, a leader at the top of an organization potentially represents a leadership position for individuals, groups, departments, and the organization as a whole.

Unfortunately, limited conceptual research exists which incorporates a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective to examine the organizational leadership across multiple levels-of-management (for a few exceptions, see Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Tosi, 1991; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). Very few empirical studies "correctly" apply a multiple

levels-of-analysis perspective to the examination of organizational leadership at multiple levels of management (Yammarino, Dionne, Chun, & Dansereau, 2005).

Although there are several attempts to examine the difference between close/direct leadership and distant/indirect leadership, all of these conceptualize and operationalize leadership constructs only at the group level of analysis (e.g., Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Chen & Bliese, 2002; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Conceptualizing and operationalizing leadership across hierarchies at the individual or group level of analysis may be, at best, valid to explain only close/direct leadership situations, but not distant/indirect leadership phenomena involving levels of analysis higher than group.

This limited understanding about leadership across multiple levels of management engendering the issue of leadership at a distance is especially relevant to many unexplored aspects within a new leadership genre – charismatic and transformational leadership – as well as contingent reward leadership, the principal form of transactional leadership. Charismatic and transformational leadership theories have been one of the most frequently studied topics in leadership literature since the past two decades ago (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The original concept of charismatic leadership was developed by Weber (1947). According to Weber, charisma is a term to describe a type of authority based on perceptions of an exceptional leader who is able to accomplish superhuman feats. Building on the conceptualization of charisma, some earlier scholars suggested that charisma is found only at the highest organizational levels maximizing leader-follower distance which limit followers' opportunities to accurately evaluate the magical property of charisma (Hollander, 1978; Katz & Kahn, 1966).

Recently, several scholars adapted and extended the concept of charisma proposed by Weber to describe charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1998; House, 1977; Shamir,

House, & Arthur, 1993) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) in business and formal organizations. The recent theories of charismatic leadership are less likely to emphasize the mythical and superhuman quality of such leadership and made the leadership more observable and testable in organizational settings (Bryman, 1992). For example, Bass (1990) contends that leader-follower distance is not essential for the maintenance of the charismatic relationship. However, our knowledge of distant charismatic leadership is much more limited conceptually and empirically, relative to close charismatic leadership (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Avolio, Zhu, Koh, Bhatia, 2004; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Thus, devoting efforts to examining distant charismatic leadership seems to be essential for the systematic comparisons between close and distant charismatic leadership in terms of various aspects involved in each context.

Furthermore, contingent reward leadership has been extensively studied through path-goal theory (House, 1971), operant theories of leadership (Sims, 1977), and transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1985). Largely based on the presumption of interpersonal exchange relationship without rigorous theoretical consideration and empirical evidence showing its irrelevance to distant situations, almost all studies of contingent reward leadership have been conducted in the close leader-follower situations at a lower hierarchical level.

Nonetheless, there are many examples of the manifestation of contingent reward leadership at a distance in organizations: for instance, department/company-based contingent compensation system (e.g., merit pay); company policy or slogans (e.g., fair pay for fair work); and company-wide recognition programs (e.g., employee of the month). We can also find a theoretical rationale that leaders at middle levels of management (indirect/distant leaders) are more likely to set and clarify expectations, standards, and goals to reward or discipline followers, which is a fundamental tenet of transactional leadership, than are those (direct/close leaders) in

first-line management positions (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Although there are two notable exceptions examining contingent reward leadership at highest (CEO) and relative higher (platoon leader) levels of management, the leadership in these studies was rated by immediate (TMT members) and relatively close (platoon soldiers) followers respectively (Waldman, Ramírez, House, & Puranam, 2001; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003) and therefore might not represent contingent reward leadership at a distance.

As such, current understanding of distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership, as compared to these leadership in close situations, is too preliminary and speculative to clarify (a) whether charismatic and contingent reward leadership in distant situations is more effective than in close situations and vice versa; (b) what types of leader behaviors are more effective or required differently in close and distant leadership situations; (c) whether there are any differences in close leadership situations at upper and lower levels of management; (d) the specific differences in influence processes between close and distant leadership; (e) the bypass mechanisms by which distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership directly affect distant followers' outcomes; (f) the processes whereby leadership behavioral patterns at a higher level cascade down to those at the next lower level; and (g) at what levels of analysis the relevant variables and their relationships between leaderships and their effectiveness hold, depending on types of leadership and leader-follower distance.

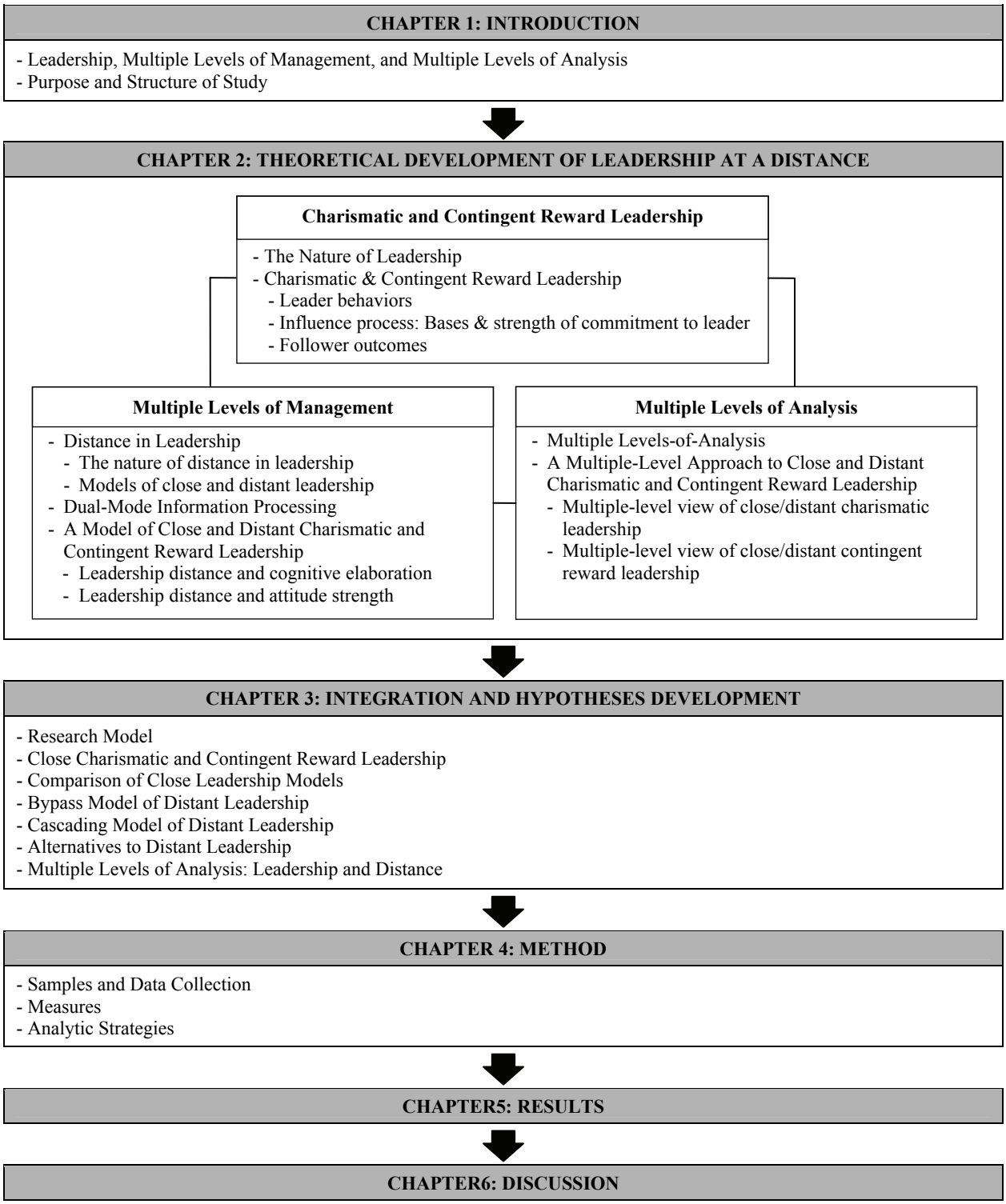
Purpose and Structure of Study

The purpose of this study is to initiate an assessment of the aforementioned notions by examining different aspects of leadership across multiple levels of management through rigorous application of a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective to theory and hypotheses formulation, measurement, data analysis, and inference drawings. Because of their prominence within

leadership domain, and yet their lack of specificity regarding close and distant relationships, the focus of this research is various aspects of charismatic and contingent reward leadership across multiple hierarchical levels. Specifically, this study embodies close and distant leader-follower relationships within a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective.

A theoretical consideration of charismatic and contingent reward leadership across multiple levels of management in terms of a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective is detailed in Chapter 2. In this chapter, the development of primary conceptual model and propositions derived from the model are also presented. By integrating the theoretical rationale and conceptual propositions, a series of research models and hypotheses and an alternative explanation to the hypotheses are developed in Chapter 3. Building on a multiple levels-of-analysis approach, the study method in terms of sample and data collection, measures, and data-analysis strategies are detailed in Chapter 4. Results of the hypotheses tests and subsequent tests for the alternative explanation are presented in Chapter 5. The study implications, limitations, directions for future research, and conclusions are offered in Chapter 6. The specific structure of study and chapters of this dissertation are depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Structure of Study



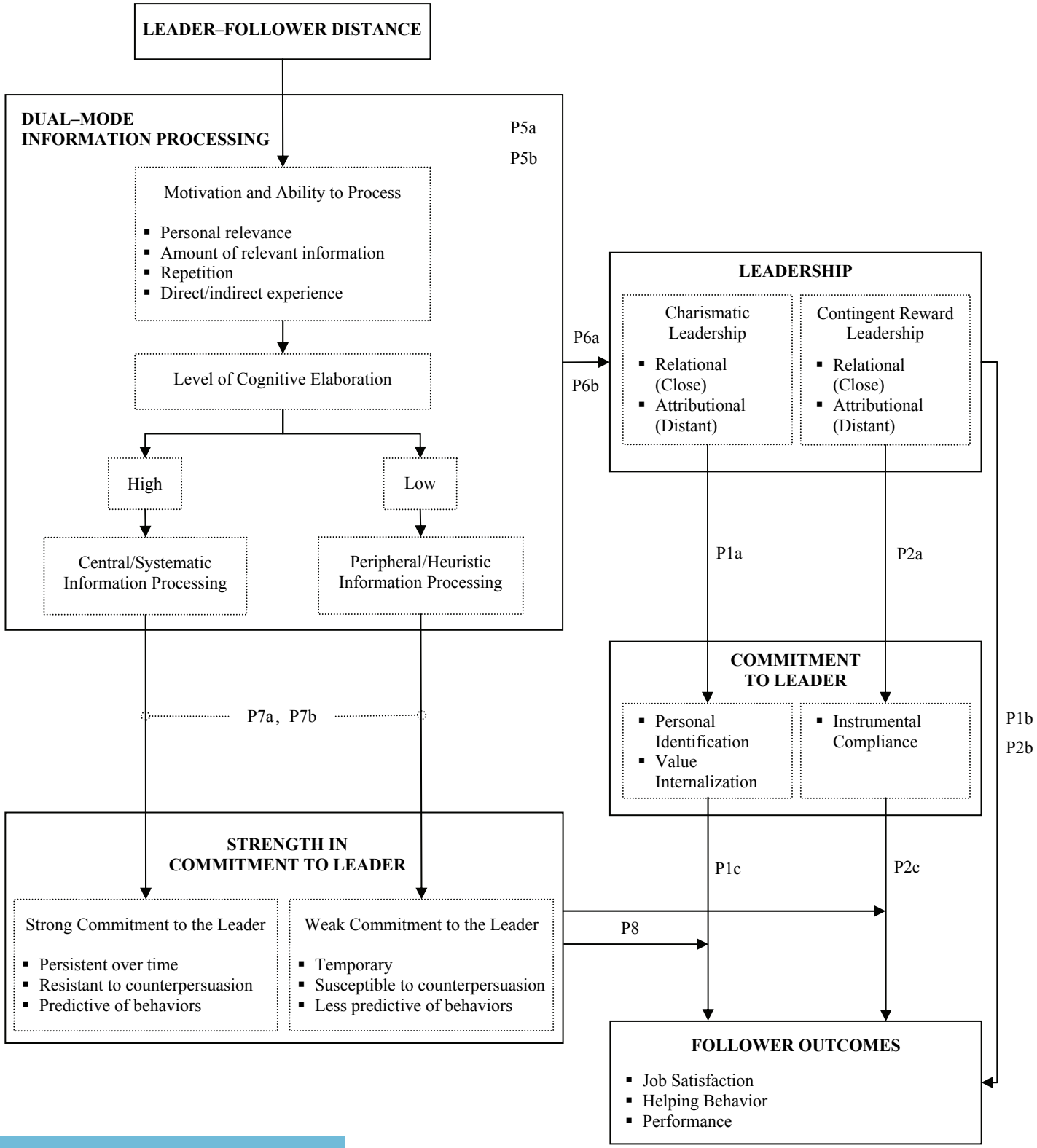
CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP AT A DISTANCE

This chapter consists of three sections. In the first section, charismatic and contingent reward leadership literature is reviewed in terms of key leader behaviors, influence processes, and follower attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcomes. In the second section, the nature of leader-follower distance as a function of multiple levels of management is discussed, and three general models of close and distant leadership are presented. Then, by integrating the literature on dual-mode information processing with the three general models of close and distant leadership, a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership is proposed. In the third section, after an overview of multiple levels-of-analysis issues, a multiple-level view of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership is proposed.

Figure 2 depicts a model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. The model is a result of synthesizing all theoretical developments in this chapter. As a guide for the following theoretical discussion, the model indicates a series of conceptual propositions which will be developed and presented in each section. Several additional propositions, which cannot be easily presented in Figure 2, are also developed in following three sections.

Figure 2.
A Model of Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership



The Nature of Leadership

A way to characterize the nature of leadership is through the principle of supportive relationships (Likert, 1961, p. 103): "The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance."

In the practice of this principle, leadership in complex organizational systems inevitably emerges and functions within and between social entities across hierarchies to coordinate and integrate the diverse desires and goals of social entities, when successful leadership can motivate social entities to accomplish organizational performance and effectiveness. Achieving alignments and maintaining integrations among diverse social entities through the linking process of leadership is the cornerstone of Likert's (1961) "linking pin" and Katz and Kahn's (1966) "interpolation" notion of organizational leadership. As such, the role of organizational leadership is crucial, and leadership does make a noticeable difference in organization. In fact, leadership is viewed as the single most critical factor in organizational success or failure (Bass, 1990).

Nevertheless, the idea that leadership is a universal phenomenon inevitably existing everywhere and involving everyone within organization (Bass, 1990) makes it difficult to reach a consensus on the definition of organizational leadership. Accordingly, the concept of organizational leadership is often defined, depending on a leadership researcher's purposes and interests in examining this complex and multifaceted phenomenon (Yukl, 2001).

Although organizational leadership can be defined in many different ways, a shared assumption is that it involves a social influence process directed toward organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 2001). Building on the notion of a social influence process, we may be able to conceptualize organizational leadership as a product of dynamic interactions among a leader, followers, and the context (Hall & Lord, 1995; Hollander, 1978; Klein & House, 1995). For example, Klein and House (1995) note, "Charisma resides in the relationship between a leader who has charismatic qualities and those of his or her followers who are open to charisma, within a charisma-conducive environment (p. 183)."

When conceptualizing organizational leadership as a product of leader, followers, and context, we need a balanced perspective on leadership to comprehensively understand the phenomenon. The balanced perspective defines leadership phenomenon as a union made by not only leader behaviors and follower perceptions and attributions in leader-follower relationships but also by the social construction of follower perceptions in follower-follower relationships. Howell and Shamir (2005) criticize recent charismatic leadership literature that mainly views charismatic leadership only in terms of leader personal characteristics, and thus fails to recognize charismatic leadership based on a social relationship between a leader and follower. Their criticism implies that the predominant approaches to understanding charismatic leadership mainly focus on whether charismatic leadership behaviors are effective, but not on how those behaviors become effective in the view of followers, nor when or where the relationships between those behaviors and follower perceptions are more stimulated or limited.

In the present study, leader-follower distance is regarded as a contextual factor determining followers' perception and attitude forming process toward leaders and leader behaviors (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). That is, the effectiveness of the type of leader behaviors

and the way those leader behaviors in addition to leader-relevant peripheral cues are interpreted by followers are dependent on the leader-follower distance. Accordingly, the current study is built on a balanced leadership perspective which represents an emphasis on both leader- and follower-perspectives to explain charismatic and contingent reward leadership in close and distant leadership context.

At this point, given the current controversy about similarities and differences between charismatic and transformational leadership, it is necessary to provide some logic arguments why charismatic and contingent reward leadership, rather than transformational and transactional leadership, are examined in the current study. There are several conceptual and empirical reasons why the present study only focuses on the charismatic components of transformational leadership, in addition to the work of House (1977), Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1998), and Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), and on contingent reward leadership rather than all components of transactional leadership.

Kark and Shamir (2002) suggest that intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration behaviors represent developmental, supportive, and nurturing aspects of transformational leadership, and thus may be more applicable only to dyadic close/direct leader-follower relationship. Additionally, they note the charismatic components of transformational leadership (i.e., idealized influence and inspirational motivation) which evoke a collective sense among followers may be more appropriate for group and collective levels of analysis, which may entail close/direct and distant/indirect leader-follower situation, respectively.

Building on Kark and Shamir's (2002) suggestions, the present study focuses on only charisma because it would be more applicable to both close and distant leadership situations. Some might argue the necessity of using all the behavioral components of transformational

leadership to determine which aspects are more applicable in close and distant leadership situations. However, given the current instruments (i.e., MLQ) available to measure the behavioral components, this argument does not seem to be a plausible alternative due to several empirical points discussed below.

First, although some researchers have demonstrated supporting evidence for differential dimensionality of transformational leadership scale (e.g., Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003), many other studies are concerned with the lack of discriminant validity among the components as well (e.g., Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995). In fact, most studies of transformational leadership use an overall composite score for transformational leadership by treating the components as indicators of a single higher-order transformational leadership factor (e.g., Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). However, it would not be appropriate to use an overall composite score for transformational leadership in the present study because this approach would blur the distinction between the charismatic component *and* intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration in terms of their different applicability to leader-follower distance, as suggested by Kark and Shamir (2002).

Second, the most important tenet of transformational leadership is its augmentation effect on transactional leadership (Bass, 1985). That is, to motivate followers to move beyond expectations, transformational leadership is required in addition to transactional leadership. As such, transformational leadership must be empirically distinguished from transactional leadership to obtain a statistically significant augmentation effect. However, several studies indicate a low discriminant validity between transformational and transactional leadership; the scale used to measure transformational leadership is often significantly correlated with the transactional-contingent reward leadership scale, especially the components of individualized consideration

and contingent reward leadership (e.g., Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998).

According to Goodwin, Wofford, and Whittington (2001), Bass and Avolio's (1997) original contingent reward scale can be divided into two factors: explicit and implicit exchange behaviors, entailing an explicit psychological contract and an implicit psychological contract, respectively. Their study showed that the implicit exchange behaviors involving intangible rewards such as recognition are significantly correlated with the transformational leadership scale (especially, individualized consideration). In fact, Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003) found the augmentation effect of transformational leadership on transactional-contingent reward leadership, only after excluding the items reflecting implicit exchange behaviors from original contingent reward leadership scale.

Finally, contingent reward leadership captures the most fundamental aspect of the exchange notion of transactional leadership and represents the key behaviors among the transactional components (Bass, 1985). Therefore, many studies examined transformational leadership, along with contingent reward leadership, but not including active/passive management by exception (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership revealed that only contingent reward leadership, but neither active nor passive management by exception, was consistently related to leadership criteria across various contexts (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

In sum, the current study is built on a balanced leadership perspective that represents an emphasis on both leader and follower perspectives to understand charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena in close and distant leadership contexts. This balanced leadership

perspective is based on the premise that the effectiveness of the type of *leader* behaviors and the way those leader behaviors in addition to leader-relevant peripheral cues are interpreted by *followers* depend on the leader-follower distance as the *context*. The present study examines close and distant charismatic leadership largely based on the work of House (1977), Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1998), Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), and the charismatic components of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), along with contingent reward leadership as the key aspect of transactional leadership.

Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

By adapting Waldman and Yammarino's (1999) work on CEO charismatic leadership involving close and distant relationships, the following discussion focuses on charismatic and contingent reward leadership in three aspects: charismatic and contingent reward leader behaviors, influence processes in terms of bases of follower commitment to leader and strength in the commitment, and follower outcomes.

Leader behaviors. The key principle of charismatic-transformational leadership is its augmentation effect on transactional-contingent reward leadership (Bass, 1985). Because contingent reward leadership provides a fundamental basis for charismatic leadership, both types of leadership are complementary and must be displayed by the same individual leader to be maximally effective (Bass, 1985).

Charismatic leadership can be represented by a values-based strong emotional bond with followers. Charismatic leaders motivate followers to move beyond assigned role requirements and transcend their self-interests for the sake of a collective by implicating followers' self-concepts with leader's ideology, values, and goals (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Key charismatic leader behaviors include articulating an

appealing vision, providing ideological explanations of work, displaying self-confidence, communicating high performance expectations and expressing confidence in follower's abilities to achieve the expectations, role-modeling exemplary behaviors, and emphasizing moral values and a collective identity (House, 1977; Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993). Other key charismatic leader behaviors are exhibiting environmental sensitivity to change status quo and formulating environmental opportunities into a strategic vision, showing sensitivity to follower needs, displaying unconventional behaviors, taking personal risks, and impression management (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1998).

Contingent reward leadership is defined by the notion of exchange. Contingent reward leadership represents that followers comply with the leader and are motivated to carry out a leader's request and organizational role requirements in exchange for tangible (e.g., pay increase) and intangible (e.g., recognition) rewards (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982). Hence, an aspect of contingent reward leader behavior is providing followers with the rewards contingent on their achievement level in carrying out their roles and assignments. This leader behavior strengthens followers' performance-outcome expectancies. Another aspect of contingent reward leader behavior is clarifying role requirements assigned to followers (Bass, 1985). This leader behavior may boost followers' confidence that they may be able to accomplish the role requirements with some degree of effort. This leader behavior strengthens followers' effort-performance expectancies. Accordingly, a contingently rewarding leader would be able to motivate followers to accomplish expected performance by clarifying and strengthening followers' effort-performance-outcome expectancies (Bass, 1985). The motivational process of contingent reward leadership, therefore, can be explained by expectancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964).

Influence processes: Bases and strength of follower commitment to leader. Charismatic and contingent reward leader behaviors are ultimately regarded as attempts to influence followers' values, attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Influence processes explain how and why those leader behaviors become effective from the viewpoint of followers.

Kelman (1958, 1961) proposed three conceptually distinct ways influence processes work: identification, internalization, and instrumental compliance. In his work, *identification* occurs when an individual accepts influence from another person or group, because the acceptance is related to a satisfying, self-defining relationship with the person or group. Accordingly, the individual may feel proud to be associated with the person or group, respect the values and beliefs the person or group holds, and attempt to be like the person, without accepting the values and beliefs as his or her own. *Internalization* occurs when an individuals accepts influence from another person or group, because the content of the induced behavior is congruent with his/her values and beliefs. Lastly, *instrumental compliance* occurs when an individual accepts influence from another person or group, not because his/her values and beliefs are shared with those of the agent, nor because the acceptance satisfies his/her self-defining relationship with the agent, but rather because he/she hopes to get a favorable reaction or avoid certain punishments from the agent.

Identification and internalization as influence processes are readily applicable to a charismatic relationship (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993). The effects of charismatic leadership on followers and organizational outcomes can be actualized through (a) a follower's personal identification with the leader, based on a leader's referent power and role-modeling exemplary behaviors, evoking follower's being proud to be associated with the leader, respect for the leader, and desire to idolize and imitate leader's behaviors and

personal characteristics (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993); (b) a follower's social identification with a group or organization that the charismatic leader facilitates by relating the follower's self-identity to shared values and belief associated with the collective, increasing the follower's willingness to sacrifice his/her self-interests for the sake of a collective (Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993); and (c) a follower's internalization of a leader's values and beliefs, thereby leading the follower to be deeply espoused with the leader's vision and actions based on these values and beliefs (Shamir, House, and Arthur, 1993).

In contrast, instrumental compliance as an influence process clearly explains a follower's motive for psychological attachment to a contingent rewarding leader and his/her role requests. When followers are psychologically attached to the leader or his/her requests on the basis of an instrumental compliance motive, they are motivated to carry out what (they think) the leader wants them to do, because the followers view this as a way of achieving a desired reward from the leader who can control rewards through position and reward power (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). In sum, personal and social identification and value internalization represent the influence processes of charismatic leadership from the viewpoint of followers, whereas followers' instrumental compliance appears as an influence process of contingent reward leadership.

Several charismatic leadership researchers note that leader charisma is both *relational* and *attributional* (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Waldman, Ramírez, House, & Puranam, 2001; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). In light of this notion, consider leader-follower distance, where the effectiveness of charismatic leadership may result from *both* actual leader behaviors in close interpersonal relations *and* follower's charismatic attributions in the distant leadership situation. In this distant situation, follower attributions of charismatic

leadership may be influenced by (a) the distant leader's symbolic impression management (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994); (b) leader-related indirect information such as bulletins, mass media, and staged events (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994); (c) shared implicit leadership theories (called partial matching of overlapping similarity) in follower-follower relationships (Hall & Lord, 1995); (d) social information processing (called social contagion in charismatic leadership literature) in follower-follower relationships (Meindl, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978); and (e) peripheral cues such as leader/organizational performance (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Therefore, the three influence processes of charismatic leadership (i.e., personal identification, social identification, and value internalization) may be regarded as products of both relational and attributional charisma in close and distant leadership situations, respectively.

Instrumental compliance as an influence process of contingent reward leadership also may be manifested by both relational and attributional contingent reward leadership. Although most studies of contingent reward leadership have been conducted in close/direct leadership situations whereby interpersonal exchange is available, recall from Chapter 1 that we are able to find many examples showing the manifestation of contingent reward leadership at a distance. As such, the effectiveness of contingent reward leadership may also result from both actual leader behaviors in close interpersonal relations (i.e., relational contingent reward leadership) as well as follower's attribution of contingent reward leadership in distant leadership situations (attributional contingent reward leadership).

For instance, the attribution of contingent reward leadership at a distance may based on (a) a department/company-wide contingent compensation system, policy or slogan, and recognition system (Yammarino, 1994); (b) leader-related indirect information such as story-

telling, bulletins, and mass media; (c) shared implicit leadership theories (Hall & Lord, 1995); (d) social information processing in follower-follower relationships (Meindl, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978); and (e) peripheral cues such as departmental or organizational performance (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Therefore, instrumental compliance as an influence process of contingent reward leadership can be conceptualized as a product of both relational and attributional contingent reward leadership in close and distant situations, similar to personal identification and value internalization in charismatic leadership.

Based on Kelman's (1958, 1961) work on the influence processes of attitude change, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Becker (1992) define identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance as bases of commitment to certain entities such as the organization, top management, and supervisors. That is, people are psychologically attached (i.e., committed) to certain foci or entities in accordance with their different motives for the psychological attachment. By adopting this conceptualization, the current study regards the two influence processes, personal identification and value internalization, as the bases of follower commitment to close and distant charismatic leader. However, this study does not include social identification as a basis of commitment to leader for the following two reasons. First, social identification represents psychological attachment to a group or an organization to which followers belong, but not to focal leader, meaning that the basis of commitment is rooted in belongingness to a group or organization (Becker, 1992). Because the interest of this study is follower commitment to a charismatic leader, but not to a group or an organization, social identification is not included in this study. Second, social identification may be a manifestation of a follower's personal identification and value internalization with the charismatic leader who emphasize collective identity.

Therefore, as depicted in the right portion of Figure 2, both relational and attributional charismatic leadership has effects on leadership criteria through follower commitment to the leader which is based on personal identification and value internalization, whereas both relational and attributional contingent reward leadership affects the criteria through follower commitment to the leader which is based on instrumental compliance.

Another aspect of follower commitment to leader as influence process is the *strength* of the commitment. The present study adapts the idea of attitude strength from literature on attitude change and persuasion in social psychology (e.g., Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) to make the concept of follower commitment to leader as an influence process more applicable to the context involving leadership distance. In brief, the degree of follower commitment to leader (e.g., low, moderate, or high) is qualitatively distinct from the strength of the commitment (e.g., weak or strong) representing how the commitment is persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of behaviors (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). For example, a follower who is not very committed to a leader (i.e., low commitment) may strongly hold that low commitment, while a follower with high commitment to the leader may be easily persuaded to alter that commitment (i.e., weak commitment) when peers point out leader faults or weaknesses.

Relational charismatic and contingent reward leadership in close/direct interpersonal leadership context, where followers can obtain a great deal of leader-relevant information based on direct experience with the leader and their personal relevance to the leader is critical, may likely evoke such strong follower commitment to the leader that the follower commitment may fully mediate the relationship between the relational leadership and criteria. In contrast, attributional charismatic and contingent reward leadership in distant/indirect situations may increase the degree of follower commitment to the leader, but the commitment may not be strong

enough (or even weak) to fully mediate the relationship between the attributional leadership and criteria. That is, attitude strength (i.e., strength of commitment to leader) may operate as a moderator in the attitude (i.e., commitment to leader) and follower outcomes linkages.

A few studies examined the differences in the effectiveness of leadership on followers in close and distant charismatic leadership situations (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Yagil, 1998). These studies showed that close charismatic leadership had more effects on followers' charismatic perceptions and outcomes than distant charismatic leadership did. Why? The present study argues that the strength of follower's commitment to leader, which may be determined by leader-follower distance, would critically influence the relationship between leadership and follower outcomes. More details about the concept of attitude strength and the theoretical rationale for these expectations will be discussed in subsequent sections.

Follower outcomes. The goal of charismatic and contingent reward leadership in complex organizational systems is to coordinate and integrate the diverse desires and expectations of followers, and ultimately to motivate them to carry out their assigned goals, yet also move beyond accomplishing the goals and contribute to overall organizational effectiveness. This is the augmentation effect of charismatic leadership on contingent reward leadership (Bass, 1985).

Recent meta-analytic reviews of charismatic and contingent reward leadership literature consistently provide strong support for the positive relationships between leader charisma, along with transactional contingent reward leadership, and many leadership criteria (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). These results indicate that followers of charismatic leader who combines charismatic behaviors with

contingent reward leadership are affectively and cognitively attached to leader, unit, and organization; are highly satisfied with their working environment including the leader and job; are deeply motivated to put forth more efforts; receive higher performance ratings; and are willing to sacrifice their self-interests for the sake of collective mission and engage in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Based on substantial amount of theoretical and empirical evidence showing positive relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and criteria, at least three key categories of follower outcomes can be identified: follower attitudes, behaviors, and performance. The current study examines job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance, respectively to represent each of these three categories of outcomes.

Follower's job satisfaction has been shown to be positively associated with both charismatic and contingent reward leadership across varying study settings (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Followers are strongly motivated through a values-based strong emotional bond with a charismatic leader and strong affective commitment to a leader that develops "above and beyond" ordinary level of pride, respect, belief, and trust toward the charismatic leader and mission. Thus, followers of a charismatic leader are more satisfied with the leader and their job as a whole (Bass, 1985; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Furthermore, followers' job satisfaction is elevated by high commitment to leader based on personal identification and value internalization which are regarded as primary influence processes of charismatic leadership (Becker, 1992).

A key principle of contingent reward leadership is the motivational process in which a leader clarifies and strengthens followers' effort-performance-rewards expectancies (Bass, 1985). Social exchange approach to leadership (Hollander, 1978) and expectancy theory (Porter &

Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964) explicitly maintain that followers are satisfied with their jobs and motivated to carry out their role requirements when they perceive the path of effort-performance-rewards is clarified and strengthened, and the rewards are equitably given and contingent on their achievement. The performance-rewards instrumentality in expectancy theory reasonably explains why followers with an instrumental compliance motive tend to be committed to a contingent reward leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

The most important tenet of charismatic-transformational leadership theory is its augmentation effect on transactional contingent reward leadership. As such, the exceptional leader must engage in charismatic-transformational leader behaviors in addition to transactional contingent reward leader behaviors to lead followers to go beyond expectations (Bass, 1985). MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) point out that most studies in charismatic-transformational literature examine the augmentation effect with in-role performance indicators, even though the augmentation effect posits that charismatic-transformational leaders motivate followers to perform beyond in-role requirements which can be even achieved under contingent reward leadership.

Helping behavior called altruism is a component of organizational citizenship behaviors, an extra-role behavior that is discretionary and not explicitly recognized by the formal job description and reward system (Organ, 1988). Charismatic leaders motivate followers to transcend their self-interests for the sake of a collective by implicating followers' self-concepts with the leader's values and goals oriented toward collective sense of mission (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Hence, there is strong conceptual support to expect charismatic leaders to motivate their followers to engage in helping behaviors, a manifestation of extra-role behaviors.

Several studies have demonstrated that organizational citizenship behaviors, including helping behaviors as an altruism component, are positively related to performance evaluation, even though the extra-role behavior is not explicitly recognized by the formal job description and reward system (Jackson, Keith, & Schlacter, 1983; Posdakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993). These results imply that contingent reward leadership would be positively associated with followers' helping behaviors, which may have positive relationship with their performance evaluations, determining their intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. In fact, one study found that contingent reward leader behavior directly influenced the organizational citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), but anther study showed that the leader behavior indirectly affects helping behavior through follower trust in the leader (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

Despite little empirical evidence and these differing results, the current study expects contingent reward leadership to be positively related to helping behaviors directly and indirectly through follower's commitment to leader based on instrumental compliance, with strong conceptual confidence and the fact that the trust in the leader mentioned above was measured in terms of fairness-equitableness critical for follower's performance-rewards expectancy.

Lastly, although the present study views follower performance as a product of multiple individual differences, attitudes, behaviors, and contextual variables, accumulating empirical evidence has exhibited the performance-stimulating potential of charismatic and contingent reward leadership across varying study settings (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In fact, numerous studies have demonstrated the strong positive effects of charismatic and contingent reward leadership on both subjective performance ratings and objective performance indicators of

quality and quantity (e.g., Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998).

Based on the literature review and discussion above, a series of propositions are provided here. Although the propositions will be followed by additional propositions to further elaborate the proposed model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership (Figure 2), these provide a prototypical model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, regardless of leader-follower distance as following:

Proposition 1a: Relational and attributional charismatic leadership will be positively related to followers' commitment to the leader based on personal identification and value internalization.

Proposition 1b: Relational and attributional charismatic leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Proposition 1c: The relationship between relational and attributional charismatic leadership and follower's job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by followers' commitment to the leader based on personal identification and value internalization.

Proposition 2a: Relational and attributional contingent reward leadership will be positively related to followers' commitment to the leader based on instrumental compliance.

Proposition 2b: Relational and attributional contingent reward leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Proposition 2c: The relationship between relational and attributional contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by follower's commitment to the leader based on instrumental compliance.

Proposition 3: Relational and attributional charismatic leadership will account for an additional unique variance in followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance above and beyond that of relational and attributional contingent reward leadership.

Distance in Leadership

The nature of distance in leadership. There has been no clear consensus on a theoretical and operational definition of leader-follower distance, because, despite recent growing interests in the concept (e.g., Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994), little attention has been given to the construct in leadership literature. Content analysis of interviews with students conducted by Shamir (1995) indicated that students chose political, religious, and military leaders as socially distant leaders with whom they did not have a direct relationship. Conversely, they chose educational leaders as socially close leaders with whom they had a direct relationship. In their work on CEO charismatic leadership, Waldman and Yammarino (1999) operationally define socially close leadership as the relationship between the CEO and TMT members and distant leadership as the relationship between CEO and rank-and-file followers. Although neither study explicitly defines the nature of social distance, they imply that it represents the distance between a leader and followers based on the frequency of direct interpersonal contact with each other, which may be mainly determined by social status and power.

By making a distinction among leader-follower physical distance, perceived social distance, and perceived interaction frequency, Antonakis and Atwater (2002) point out, however, that perceived social distance can emerge even in situations characterized as having frequent and direct interactions between a leader and followers. Specifically, they describe leader-follower distance as a configual effect composed of the following independent dimensions: (a) leader-follower physical distance resulting from the difference in locations between a leader and followers; (b) perceived social distance stemming from differentials in status and power between a leader and followers; and (c) perceived interaction frequency reflecting the perceived degree to

which a leader and followers interact with each other. Furthermore, based on their notion that the three dimensions are independent, Antonakis and Atwater (2002) put forth eight typologies (2×2×2) of leadership distance by combining these three dimensions.

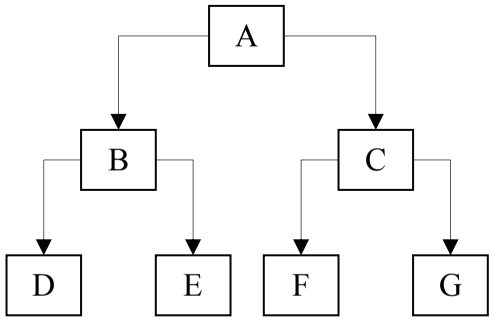
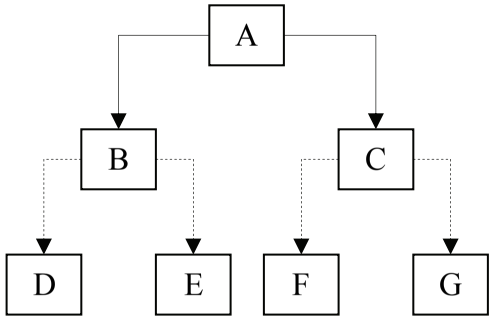
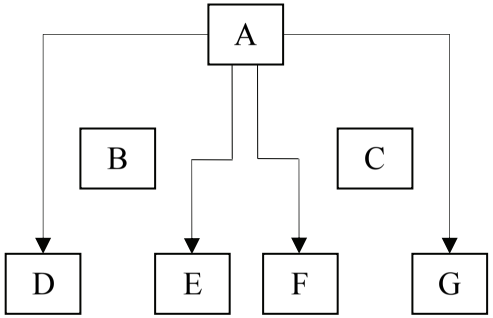
Despite Antonakis and Atwater's (2002) arguments, the current study limits the conceptual discussion on leader-follower distance to the distance which results from differences in organizational hierarchies. Greater hierarchical differences (i.e., socially distant) in organizations may most often manifest both greater physical distance and a lower frequency of direct interaction between leaders and followers, whereas lesser hierarchical differences (i.e., socially close) tend to result in both lesser physical distance and a higher frequency of direct interaction between the two parties. Accordingly, in this study references to close leader-follower relationships assume that they are physically and socially close, so that the two parties experience a higher frequency of direct interaction. On the other hand, references to distant leader-follower relationships assume that they are both physically and socially distant, so that the two parties experience a lower frequency of direct interaction.

However, to ensure that the assumptions about leader-follower distance are appropriate, all three dimensions of distance need to be taken into account in the sampling procedure and the validity of assumption must be statistically tested as well. Many current business organizations adopt a team-based structure where organizations become flatter, entailing reduced number of hierarchies and close/intense cooperation among team leaders and members. Team-based structures, flat organizations, and virtual communication can blur the distinction between close and distant leadership based on the assumptions about leader-follower distance. There are enough reasons for testing the applicability of the assumptions about leader-follower distance in this study for current business organizations. Specifically, using organizational charts, leaders

and their followers are sorted by their hierarchical levels, and then the sample is partitioned into close and distant leadership situations. However, given the team-based structure, differences in hierarchical levels may not necessarily indicate the frequency of interaction between leaders and followers. Therefore, the interaction frequency is measured and used to check the appropriateness of sampling procedure where participants are divided into two groups of close and distant leader-follower relationships by differences in hierarchical levels.

Models of close and distant leadership. By adopting Yammarino's (1994) theoretical conceptualization of direct and indirect leadership, the current study defines close leadership as the leadership phenomenon between a leader and an immediate follower *or* between a leader and immediate followers in terms of organizational hierarchy. These relationships would entail relatively low physical and social distance and high interaction frequency between the two parties. In contrast, distant leadership is defined as the leadership phenomenon between a leader and followers separated from the leader by multiple hierarchical levels. These relationships would involve relatively high physical and social distance and low interaction frequency between the two parties. Based on the definition of close and distant leadership, Figure 3 shows the models of close and distant leadership across three levels of management (i.e., department head, manager, and staff).

Figure 3.
Models of Close and Distant Leadership

	Close Leadership	Distant Leadership	
	Direct Model	Cascading Model	Bypass Model
Department Head / Manager / Staff			
Department as a whole [1]	Irrelevant	A–(D/E/F/G), when A–(B/C), B–(D/E), C–(F/G)	A–(D/E/F/G)
Groups in Department [2]	A–(B/C); B–(D/E); C–(F/G)	A–(D/E), when A–B, B–(D/E) A–(F/G), when A–C, C–(F/G)	Irrelevant
Dyads in Department [3]	A–B, A–C; B–D, B–E; C–F; C–G	Irrelevant	Irrelevant

NOTES: Adapted from Yammarino (1994). While more alternative levels-of-analysis views are possible, only a few representatives are demonstrated at the bottom of the figure. For more details, see Dansereau, Alutto, Yammarino (1984).
[1] Letter before dash denotes leader; letter after dash denotes *collective of followers*.
[2] Letter before dash denotes leader; letter after dash denotes *group of followers*.
[3] Letter before dash denotes leader; letter after dash denotes *a follower in each dyad*.

Because most organizations have a variety of positions at multiple levels of management, the direct model representing close leadership in Figure 3 can be applicable to leader-follower relationships at the upper level (e.g., department head and manager) and lower-level (e.g., manager and staff), as long as the leadership phenomenon occurs between a leader and his/her immediate followers. The direct model generally involves either dyadic leader-follower relationships or a relationship between a leader and group of followers.

First, the dyadic leader-follower relationship in the direct leadership model is composed of a focal leader and his/her immediate follower. As Figure 3 depicts, department head A forms two dyads at upper level, one with manager B and the other with manager C; manager B forms two dyads at lower level, one with staff D and the other with staff E; and manager C forms two dyads at lower level, one with staff F and the other with staff G. In these dyadic leader-follower relationships, charismatic and contingent reward leaders display their behaviors to each follower on a one-to-one basis. As such, each follower in each dyadic relationship may perceive and respond to the leader behaviors on a one-to-one basis as well.

Second, the other form of close/direct leadership is the relationship between a focal leader and his/her immediate group of followers. As Figure 3 shows, department head A forms a group with manager B and C at upper level; manager B forms a group with staff D and E at lower-level; and manager C forms a group with staff F and G at lower level. In this relationship between a leader and his/her immediate group of followers, charismatic and contingent reward leaders display their behaviors to all of their immediate followers as a group, and all of the followers under the leader may perceive the leader behaviors similarly and respond to the behaviors as a group.

The distant leadership is represented by two general models as showed in Figure 3: cascading and bypass models. Like the direct model of close leadership which can be manifested at upper and lower levels of management, the two distant leadership models are also applicable at higher and lower levels of management. For instance, a CEO and department heads form a distant leader-follower relationship at higher level, because TMT members are in between the two parties. As such, department head forms a distant leader-follower relationship with the rank-and-file staff members at lower level of management, because managers are in between the two parties.

First, a distant leader may be able to influence distant followers indirectly by his/her immediate followers who are also the immediate leaders for the distant followers. That is, the influence of distant leader can cascade down to distant followers through the intermediate level of management (Yammarino, 1994). Likert's (1961, 1967) 'linking pin' and Katz and Kahn's (1966) 'interpolation' notion represent the role of intermediate level of management in the cascading model of distant leadership.

As depicted in the center portion of Figure 3, department head A has a close/direct relationship with manager B and C (either dyadic or group-based, as addressed in direct leadership model), who then model the behaviors of department head A. As such, staff D and E model the behaviors of manager B, and staff F and G model the behaviors of manager C. Because the leadership of manager B and C is actually a manifestation of department head A's leadership, staff D, E, F, and G are influenced indirectly by department head A through the intermediate leaders, manager B and C. Therefore, the distant leader-follower relationships between department head A and staff D, E, F, and G can be held either at department level as a whole or at groups within the department level, as described in the bottom portion of Figure 3.

The similar behavioral leadership patterns across levels of management reflecting the cascading effect can be interpreted by several alternative explanations, such as stylistically matched selection, organizational climate, and various group processes (Franklin, 1975; Griffin & Mathieu, 1997). However, a primary mechanism of the cascading effect is followers' modeling of leader behaviors as well as a leader's exemplary role-modeling behaviors, and this notion has received considerable support in leadership literature (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Misumi, 1985; Ouchi & Maguire, 1975; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). In fact, Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) demonstrated the cascading effect of charismatic and contingent reward leadership across levels of management.

The second model of distant leadership is the bypass model (Yammarino, 1994), and all of recent studies examining the differences between close and distant charismatic leadership are solely based on this model (e.g., Avolio, Zhu, Koh, Bhatia, 2004; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Yagil, 1998). The bypass model of distant leadership represents that a leader influences his/her distant followers directly by skipping more than one level of management–without operating through his/her immediate followers who also act as the intermediate leader (Yammarino, 1994). As depicted in the right portion of Figure 3, department head A forms a leader-follower relationship with staff D, E, F, and G in the department directly, without any intermediate leaders in between the two parties.

Although Yammarino (1994) addressed the possibility of dyadic relationships in the bypass model between distant leader and followers, it seems to be speculative that a leader and a follower may be able to form a dyadic relationship in distant leadership situation at work where they may be physically separated, socially differentiated in power and status, and limited for frequent interpersonal interactions. Therefore, in the current study, the bypass model is expected

to be manifested at the department level; thus department head A may display his/her symbolic impression management behaviors through mess media and staged events to all of the rank-and-file followers, and the followers may also perceive similarly and respond to him/her as a whole.

It should be noted that the cascading and bypass models are complementary, and both approaches can be utilized by the same distant leader (Yammarino, 1994). Depending on the necessity and purpose of influencing plans and actions, distant leaders may have to make an optimal combination from both of them, like the complementary nature of charismatic and contingent reward leadership. For instance, the distant leader may need to maximize the utility of cascading model for the purpose of follower development. On the other hand, the distant leader may need to maximally utilize the potential of bypass model for arousing collective mood and actions by engaging in symbolic impression management behaviors. In fact, Waldman and Yammarino's (1999) work implies that heightened intragroup and intergroup cohesion in an organization would be dependent on how appropriately the distant charismatic leader, CEO, makes an optimal combination of cascading and bypass effects.

As discussed above, charismatic and contingent reward leadership are both relational and attributional, largely dependent on leader-follower distance. The effectiveness of charismatic and contingent reward leadership results from not only actual leader behaviors in most close situations, but also followers' attribution of leadership in most distant situations (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Because the followers separated from their leader by multiple hierarchical levels may not be able to observe actual behaviors of the leader, the distant leader must mobilize followers' attribution about him/her in positive way (i.e., bypass model: attribution-based leadership) and attempt to provide his/her immediate follower-leaders

with exemplary role-modeling behaviors which would cascade down to the distant followers (i.e., cascading model: relationship-based leadership). In sum, the above arguments suggest:

> **Proposition 4**: Distant charismatic and contingent reward leaders who utilize both cascading and bypass models of distant leadership in a complementary manner will be more effective than those who do not.

Dual-Mode Information Processing

The processes and structures underlying and related to models of close and distant leadership can be explored by incorporating the dual-mode information processing theories into close and distant leadership models. The most critical reason dual-mode information processing theories can be readily applied to a close and distant leadership model is that the antecedent factors determining one's level of cognitive elaboration can be well matched with the individual and contextual factors characterizing the close and distant situations.

One of the foundations in the persuasion and attitude change literature is dual-mode information processing theories: the elaboration likelihood model (ELM: Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and the systematic/heuristic model (Chaiken, 1980). The ELM is generally considered to be one of the most robust frameworks for explaining attitude formation, change, and strength. While the ELM explains the antecedent conditions and consequences of different levels of cognitive elaboration well enough, the ELM framework can be complemented by the systematic/heuristic model which details the process whereby the level of cognitive elaboration determines attitude consequences. In the ELM, the term *elaboration* refers to the level of cognitive effort or issue-relevant thinking a person puts forth to evaluate an attitude object. The term *attitude* in the model is defined as a general evaluation in regard to a target object that can be broadly defined in terms of categories of people (e.g., leaders), issues, situations, and decision (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

The ELM framework outlines two general information processing routes to persuasion and attitude change. One route is represented by thoughtful and systematic consideration of persuasion or attitude object, whereas the other route is based on simple inferences combined with peripheral cues in the persuasion context. When the persuasion context is conducive for high elaboration likelihood, the first information processing route (i.e., central) is used. When the persuasion context renders the elaboration likelihood low, the second information processing route (i.e., peripheral) is used. Depending on what information processing route is used in the persuasion situation, there are two different attitude consequences that can emerge. When attitude change by the persuasion is made through central information processing route, the changed attitude is more persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and consistently predictive of corresponding behaviors than through peripheral information processing route. The ELM framework is depicted in the left portion of Figure 2, and the following discussions are about the antecedent conditions determining the level of elaboration likelihood, two information processing routes, and each attitude consequence of the two information processing routes in order.

As shown in the Figure 2, one's level of elaboration likelihood is largely a function of two sets of individual and situational factors – motivation and ability to think about an attitude object (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). The motivation for the issue-relevant thinking represents a desire to consciously increase cognitive effort in evaluating the attributes of an attitude target. There are two general motivational factors: need for cognition and personal relevance. People with a high need for cognition have a tendency to enjoy careful thinking and problem solving, whereas people with low need for cognition do not (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). The degree of motivation for the issue-relevant thinking also can be affected by one's personal relevance to an

attitude target. Petty, Haugtvedt, and Smith (1995, p. 97) note that "when people think that a message is on a topic of high personal relevance or importance (i.e., the message is relevant to a person's important outcomes, goals, values, groups, possessions, and so forth), they engage in greater message scrutiny than when the message is perceived to be of little relevance or importance."

While a number of ability factors have been identified in the ELM literature, only a few key factors (i.e., amount of relevant information, repetition, and direct/indirect experience) useful for the understanding of close and distant leadership are discussed here. Several studies in the ELM literature indicate that the greater amount of one's knowledge or information relevant to an attitude object, the more he/she is likely to engage in careful and effortful consideration about the attitude target (Petty, Haugtvedt, & Smith, 1995, Wood, Kallgren, & Priesler, 1985). In addition, the ELM literature proposes that repeated observations of an attitude object provide the observer with a greater opportunity to consider the various aspects of attitude target in a relatively objective manner (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Lastly, Fazio's (1986) work on direct personal experience versus indirect experience (e.g., information from other sources) with an attitude object shows that the attitude formed by direct personal experience with the attitude object is more predictive of corresponding behaviors than that shaped by indirect experience. According to the ELM framework, this result implies that the attitude formation by direct experience may induce more careful and effortful consideration about the attitude target (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

According to the ELM literature, there are two relatively distinct information processing routes: central and peripheral information processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Taking the central information processing route is more likely to occur when a person engages in thoughtful

and effortful evaluation of information about an attitude object (i.e., high level of cognitive elaboration). In contrast, the peripheral information processing route is more likely to be used when a person does not take careful and effortful consideration into the attitude target (i.e., low level of cognitive elaboration). These ideas imply that the central information processing may be based on systematic, controlled, or effortful analysis of an attitude object, whereas the peripheral information processing may be better characterized by heuristic, automatic, or mindless manners (Chaiken, 1980).

When a person engages in heuristic information processing, he/she exerts relatively little cognitive effort in judging the information related to an attitude target. That is, an individual does not actively attempt to interpret and evaluate the validity of the information concerning the target object. Moreover, heuristic information processing typically relies on non-content or simple cues such as information source credibility and reputation, schemata (i.e., own prototype), another person's opinions, and obscure information, whereas systematic processing relies heavily on scrutinizing information content (Chaiken, 1980). Hence, central information processing is often used interchangeably with systematic information processing, while peripheral information processing is often described as heuristic information processing.

Lord and Smith's (1983) typology of attributional questions and level of information processing sheds light on the notions of central/systematic and peripheral/heuristic processes. They point out that some representative attribution theorists (e.g., Hamilton, 1980; Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1973) emphasize a rational or effortful process in which an individual considers multiple pieces of information in a conscious attempt to understand certain events, outcomes, and personal qualities. For example, Kelley's (1973) principle of configuration and covariation and Jones and Davis's (1965) concept of correspondence can be characterized as

engaging in central/systematic information processing (Chaiken, 1980). Lord and Smith's (1983) typology also shows what types of attribution processes are more relevant to low levels of elaboration. These processes typically depend on salient and proximal information for causality attributions, formal role for responsibility attribution, and prototype fit for attribution of personal characteristics. Moreover, these processes can be characterized as peripheral/heuristic information processing as well (Chaiken, 1980).

Finally, why does high level of elaboration entailing central/systematic information processing render an attitude strong? Why does low level of elaboration involving peripheral/heuristic information processing make an attitude weak? Petty and Cacioppo (1986) regard three aspects of attitude (i.e., temporal persistence, resistance to counterpersuasion, and consistency in attitude-behavior linkage) as the defining features of attitude strength. Petty and Cacioppo (1986, p. 175) argue that, "The process of elaborating issue-relevant arguments involves accessing the schema for the attitude object in order to evaluate each new argument (e.g., by comparing it to information previously stored in memory). Under the peripheral route, however, the schema may be accessed only once to incorporate the affect or inference elicited by a salient cue…Under the central route, then the issue-relevant attitude schema may be accessed, rehearsed, and manipulated more times strengthening the interconnections among the components and rendering the schema more internally consistent, accessible, enduring, and resistant than under the peripheral route." Their argument indicates that the more cognitive elaboration about an attitude object one puts forth, the more frequently and carefully the person compares attributes of the attitude object with the information previously stored in memory, thereby the stronger schema about the attitude object is created, an attitude that is persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of behaviors.

A Model of Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

The proposed model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership (Figure 2) is developed by integrating the literature on the dual-mode information processing of persuasion and attitude change with the literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership addressing the issue of leader-follower distance (see Table 1). The most critical reason the dual-mode information processing theories can be readily applied to close/direct and distant/bypass leadership model is that the antecedent factors (i.e., motivation and ability) determining one's level of cognitive elaboration can be well matched with the individual and contextual factors characterizing the close/direct and distant/bypass situations (the term 'distant' denotes distant/bypass leadership situation hereafter). Thus, a series of propositions are presented sequentially in accordance with the causal relations, starting from the leader-follower distance as shown in the left portion of Figure 2.

The first set of propositions concerns the relationship between leader-follower distance and the level of cognitive elaboration put forth by followers, which entails a type of the information processing. The second set of propositions concerns the relationship between the type of information processing and strength of the attitude followers hold toward their leader. The final proposition addresses the role of strength of attitude toward leader in the relationship between follower attitude toward leader and outcomes. The following discussion and propositions are summarized in Table 1. The table 1 includes the features of cascading model as well. But, following discussion is solely devoted to the different aspects between close/direct and distant/bypass leadership, in that the context of cascading model is exactly same as that of close/direct leadership situation at upper-level as discussed in previous section.

Table 1.
Dual-Mode Information Processing and Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

	Dual-Mode Information Processing				Leadership Process		
Leadership and Distance	Motivation and Ability to Process Information	Cognitive Elaboration	Mode of Info. Processing	Strength in Commitment to Leader	Mode of Leadership: Relational and Attributional	Bases of Commitment to Leader	Follower Outcomes
Close charismatic and contingent reward leadership	▪ High personal relevance to leader ▪ Large amount of leader-relevant information ▪ Frequent/repeated observations of leader actual behaviors ▪ Direct information/experiences with leader	High	Central/systematic information processing	**Strong**: ▪ Persistent over time ▪ Resistant to counterpersuasion ▪ High commitment-behavior consistency	Relational based on actual leader behaviors Examples of charismatic leader behaviors: ▪ Talks of values ▪ Models ethical standards ▪ Considers the moral/ethical consequences ▪ Emphasizes the collective mission ▪ Talks optimistically ▪ Expresses confidence ▪ Talks enthusiastically ▪ Arouses awareness about important issues Examples of contingent reward leader behaviors: ▪ Clarifies rewards ▪ Assists based on efforts ▪ Rewards achievement ▪ Recognizes achievement	▪ Charismatic: Personal identification and value internalization ▪ Contingent reward: Instrumental compliance ▪ **Mediating role:** *Full* (at least partial) mediation between leadership and criteria	▪ Job satisfaction ▪ Helping behaviors ▪ Performance
Distant (Bypass) charismatic and contingent reward leadership	▪ Low personal relevance to leader ▪ Little amount of leader-relevant information ▪ Occasional observations of leader actual behavior ▪ Indirect information/experience with leader	Low	Peripheral/heuristic information processing	**Weak**: ▪ Temporary ▪ Susceptible to counterpersuasion ▪ Low commitment-behavior consistency	Attributional based on: Examples of charismatic attribution: ▪ Symbolic impression management ▪ Shared implicit leadership theories of followers ▪ Social information processing among followers ▪ Peripheral cues from bulletins, mass media, staged events, leader/organizational performance, etc. Examples of contingent reward attribution: ▪ Department/company-wide compensation and recognition system, policy, slogan, etc. ▪ Shared implicit leadership theories of followers ▪ Social information processing among followers ▪ Peripheral cues from bulletins, mass media, staged events, leader/organizational performance, etc.	▪ Charismatic: Personal identification and value internalization ▪ Contingent reward: Instrumental compliance ▪ **Mediating role:** *No mediation* (at best partial) between leadership and criteria	▪ Job satisfaction ▪ Helping behaviors ▪ Performance
Distant (Cascading) charismatic and contingent reward leadership	▪ High personal relevance to leader ▪ Large amount of leader-relevant information ▪ Frequent/repeated observations of leader actual behaviors ▪ Direct information/experiences with leader	High	Central/systematic information processing	**Strong**: ▪ Persistent over time ▪ Resistant to counterpersuasion ▪ High commitment-behavior consistency	Relational based on actual leader behaviors Examples of charismatic leader behaviors: ▪ Same as those of close leadership Examples of contingent reward leader behaviors: ▪ Same as those of close leadership	▪ Charismatic: Personal identification and value internalization ▪ Contingent reward: Instrumental compliance ▪ **Mediating role:** *Full* (at least partial) mediation between leader behaviors at higher level & those at lower next level	▪ Similar behavioral patterns with those of immediate leader

Leader-follower distance and cognitive elaboration. The literature on dual-mode information processing suggests that one's level of cognitive elaboration is in part determined by various antecedents such as (a) how important attitude object is in terms of the person's interests, desired outcomes, and values, (b) how much relevant information about attitude object the person has, (c) how frequently/repeatedly the person observes attitude object, and (d) whether the person can have direct or indirect experience with attitude object (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986)

First, the leader-follower relationship in close situations may be very important in terms of the follower's interests. Whereas distant followers' perceptions, evaluations, and reactions may not seriously influence their leader-follower relationship itself, most issues embedded in the close leader-follower relationship are important in terms of the followers' personal outcomes, interests, values, and the working relationship itself.

Along this line of reasoning, Shamir (1995) suggests that experimental research designs may not be appropriate to identify differences between close and distant charismatic leader characteristics, because both artificial leaders and written or videotaped descriptions of leaders cannot represent real leader traits and behaviors whose relevance is so important to immediate followers. He notes that "even when the described situation is that of close leadership situation, the subjects are relatively aloof and neutral observers of a leader whose attributes, behaviors, and performance have no direct relevance to their lives…such experiments may…(be) in distant charismatic leadership…but not…in close charismatic leadership (p. 41)." Consequently, close leadership situations may be characterized as having high level of personal relevance in the viewpoint of immediate followers, whereas distant leadership situations may be described as having low level of personal relevance.

Second, close interpersonal interactions between a leader and his/her direct reports in close leader-follower relationships make it possible for the immediate followers to directly, frequently, and repeatedly observe and experience the leader's personal qualities (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammrino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). These face-to-face interactions are likely to increase the availability of relevant information on the leader's personal qualities as a charismatic and contingent reward leader, which followers can use when evaluating the leader's behaviors and effectiveness and forming their attitudes toward the leader. In distant leader-follower relationships, however, close interpersonal interactions between the two parties are constrained, the communication mode of distant relationships is often one-way from a leader to distant followers, and the follower' opportunity to question is limited (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammrino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). Consequently, the distant situations are likely to constrain the amount of leader-related information followers possess regarding the leader's charismatic and contingent reward qualities.

According to the literature on dual-mode information processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Chaiken, 1980), when a persuasion or attitude forming context is characterized by high personal relevance, a large amount of relevant information about attitude object, repeated observation, and direct experience with the attitude object (i.e., close situation), people tend to put forth high level of cognitive elaboration resulting in central/systematic information processing to evaluate the varying aspects of attitude object in the process of attitude formation. The central/systematic information processing may largely rely on the primary source of information which is directly and repeatedly observed; in this case, actual leader behaviors from the close interpersonal relationship. Consequently, the mode of charismatic and contingent

reward leadership in close leader-follower relationship may be a relational one, primarily based on actual leader behaviors.

In contrast, when a persuasion or attitude forming context is characterized by low personal relevance, less amount of relevant information about attitude object, occasional observation, and indirect experience with the attitude object (i.e., distant situation), people tend to exert low levels of cognitive elaboration, entailing peripheral/heuristic information processing to evaluate the attitude object in the process of attitude formation. The peripheral/heuristic information processing is primarily operated by non-content or simple cues such as information source credibility and reputation, schemata, another person's opinions, and obscure information (e.g., symbolic impression management, implicit leadership theories, social information processing, peripheral cues from bulletin, saga, leader and organizational performance, staged events, and policy and slogans). As such, the mode of charismatic and contingent reward leadership in distant leader-follower relationship may be attributional, largely based on follower's attribution of leadership. In short, the current study proposes:

> **Proposition 5a**: In close/direct charismatic and contingent reward leadership situations, a follower's level of cognitive elaboration concerning leader-related information will be high, and thus the follower will engage in central/systematic information processing.
>
> **Proposition 5b**: In distant/bypass charismatic and contingent reward leadership situations, a follower's level of cognitive elaboration concerning leader-related information will be low, and thus the follower will engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing.
>
> **Proposition 6a**: Close/direct charismatic and contingent reward leadership context where followers are more likely to engage in central/systematic information processing than peripheral/heuristic information processing will be more conducive for relational charismatic and contingent reward leadership than for attributional leadership.
>
> **Proposition 6b**: Distant/bypass charismatic and contingent reward leadership context where followers are more likely to engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing than central/systematic information processing will be more conducive for attributional charismatic and contingent reward leadership than for relational leadership.

Leader-follower distance and attitude strength. An attitude is multidimensional (i.e., feelings, beliefs, and behavioral predispositions) and can be directed toward multi-foci (i.e., people, issues, situations, and decision) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1972). When incorporating the dual-mode information processing models into the close and distant leadership contexts, the current study uses a work-related attitude, a follower's commitment to leader. A primary interest of the literature on dual-mode information processing is in the different features of resulting attitude through two types of information processing, the attitude strength that is defined by the level of temporal persistency, resistance to counterpersuasion, and predictability of behavior (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). The level of strength of attitude (e.g., strong or weak) is conceptually and empirically differentiated from the degree of attitude (e.g., positive, neutral, and negative or low, moderate, and high) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

Awamleh and Gardner (1999, p. 364) argued that, "when primary and secondary sources provide contrasting information, followers tend to discount the implications of the secondary sources in favor of the primary one." This suggests that followers in close relationships are likely to rely on the rich, directly acquired information through observing the day-to-day activities of their leaders (a primary source) (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Shamir, 1995). It further suggests that these close followers are less likely to depend on indirectly acquired leader-related information from other sources, such as coworker opinions, bulletins, sagas, and organizational records (secondary sources) (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Distant followers are more likely to use these secondary sources of information, since they have less opportunity to observe their leaders directly. Furthermore, distant followers are likely to rely on non-content or simple cues such as leader credibility or reputation, their own leader schemata, organizational performance, coworker opinions, and peripheral information from other secondary sources.

Meindl's (1990) romance of leadership perspective implies that followers in distant relationships are more likely to use heuristic rather than systematic information processing when forming attitudes and perceptions about their leaders. The necessary condition underlying this framework is that followers lack direct and unambiguous information with which they can rationally and systematically infer the locus of causality for organizational performance (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl, 1990). In these circumstances, followers are likely to be more comfortable in associating leaders with organizational performance by attributing the outcomes to the leaders who appear to have plausible effects on the outcomes (Meindl, 1990). Accordingly, a distant follower's attribution of leader charisma depends on whether tangible organizational performance is positive or negative. Further, the attributed charisma from organizational performance cues is spread, shared, and socially recreated through a social contagion process (Meindl, 1990), which may have little or no relation to the leader's actual behaviors.

As noted previously, attitudes formed or changed through higher levels of cognitive elaboration are stronger than those manifested through lower levels of cognitive elaboration. Strong attitudes are also more persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of behaviors than are weak attitudes (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Subsequently, the higher a follower's cognitive elaboration on information concerning a leader, the more persistent, resistant, and predictive of behaviors the follower's attitudes are toward the leader.

It may be possible that the systematic and heuristic information processing can coexist in close and/or distant leadership situation. The current study also recognizes the possibility that the heuristic information processing may precede the systematic information processing in close situation. For instance, information encoded, stored, and retrieved by heuristic processing can be

evaluated by systematic processing with more cognitive elaboration at later time (Lord & Smith, 1983). Additionally, newly acquired noncontent cues about an issue can sometimes serve as aids in assessing the validity of the issue in close leadership situation (Chaiken, 1980). It seems to be speculative, however, that the systematic and heuristic information processing can coexist in distant leadership situation where the followers cannot easily obtain primary source of information to engage in systematic information processing regarding the distant leader. In sum, the following is proposed:

> **Proposition 7a**: In *close/direct* charismatic and contingent reward leadership situations, characterized by follower's high level of cognitive elaboration concerning leader-related information and corresponding central/systematic information processing of the information, follower's commitment to the leader will be *strong* – persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of their behaviors.
>
> **Proposition 7b**: In *distant/bypas*s charismatic and contingent reward leadership situations, characterized by follower's low level of cognitive elaboration concerning leader-related information and corresponding peripheral/heuristic information processing of the information, follower's commitment to the leader will be *weak* – temporary, susceptible to counterpersuasion, and less predictive of their behaviors.

A continuing topic in the literature on dual-model information processing is the moderating role of attitude strength in the relationship between the attitude and possible consequences corresponding to the attitude (Petty, Wegener, Fabrigar, 1997). First, a strong attitude has an impact on other attitudes (Boninger, Krosnick, Berent, & Fabrigar, 1995). Research on the part-whole attitude effects shows that an attitude toward one's body parts is more strongly related to overall attitude toward one's body as a whole when the attitude toward one's body parts is personally very important – personal relevance (e.g., Watkins & Park, 1972; Rosen & Ross, 1968). This line of reasoning also implies that follower's commitment to leader (parts) can be more strongly correlated with their job satisfaction, representing an overall work-

attitude toward job environment including the leader (whole), when the commitment is strong rather than when it is weak.

Second, as previously noted, a defining feature of a strong attitude is its predictability of behavior. Fazio (1986) demonstrated that the attitude formed by direct personal experience with the attitude object is more predictive of corresponding behaviors than that shaped by indirect experience. The ELM framework can interpret this result, in such a way that the attitude formation by direct experiences involves more careful and effortful consideration about the attitude target through central/systematic information processing resulting in the strong attitude (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Accordingly, it can be expected that the followers, who have strong commitment to a charismatic and contingent reward leader who emphasizes a collective sense of mission and considers helping behaviors a factor of performance evaluation, are more likely to engage in the helping behaviors than those who have weak commitment to the leader.

Third, recognizing that follower performance is a product manifested by multiple factors such as individual differences, attitudes, behaviors, and contextual variables, we might expect that a follower's strong commitment to leader, which is highly predictive of a number of positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, is more likely to be related to higher performance than weak commitment to the leader. In sum, the strength of follower commitment to a leader may operate as a moderator in the commitment–follower outcomes linkages, and thus the present study proposes:

> **Proposition 8**: The positive relationship between commitment to charismatic and contingent reward leader and job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be stronger when the commitment is strong than when it is weak.

Multiple Levels of Analysis

Leadership is multiple-levels phenomenon manifested in the relationship between an individual leader and individual followers, group of followers, and/or collective of the groups of followers (Dansereau, Alutto, Yammarino, 1984; Dansereau & Yammarino, 1998a, 1998b). Particularly, organizational leadership across multiple levels of management, entailing close and distant leadership situations must be conceptualized and tested by a multiple levels-of-analysis approach, because individual followers are embedded in groups/teams, and the groups of followers are embedded in collectives (Dansereau, Alutto, Yammarino, 1984; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Due to the complexity of multiple levels-of-analysis inherent in the organizational leadership phenomenon, defining and understanding the principles and types of multiple levels of analysis must be addressed first. Then, a multiple-level view of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership is discussed and proposed.

Overview of levels-of-analysis issues. Levels of analysis represent the entities defined as the specific objects of interest in research (Dansereau, Alutto, Yammarino, 1984). Dansereau and colleagues (1984) refer to levels of analysis as classifications or groupings of entities (e.g., individuals, dyads, groups, and collectives) arranged in a hierarchical order (i.e., lower levels of analysis such as individuals are embedded in higher levels of analysis such as dyads, groups, or collectives). Organizations are multi-level by nature, because individuals work in dyads and groups/teams within organizations in certain industries. Every construct of organizational behavior cannot be free from one or more organizational entities or levels (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Thus, levels issues are essential parts of theory development in organizational research.

Calls for the incorporating of levels of analysis in organizational research are not new (e.g., Behling, 1978; Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Rousseau, 1985). Discussions of levels issues in organizational research, however, have primarily focused on statistical questions: how to justify aggregation and/or how to analyze data in accordance with levels-of-analysis perspective (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Rousseau, 1985). Yet, the concepts and applications of levels-of-analysis perspective are not limited to such statistical procedures. Levels represent integral parts of theory development and testing, involving levels of theory, measurement, data analysis, and alignment of theory and data in inference drawing (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

In line with the integral feature of levels of analysis, researchers can encounter serious levels-of-analysis problems when the levels of theory, measurement, and data analysis are not consistently aligned (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). The *level of theory* refers to the entities and their relationships that researchers depict and explain; the *level of measurement* is defined as the actual sources or entities of collected data (e.g., self-report data – individual level, even when the data is aggregated; group size – group level); and the *level of data analysis* describes the treatment of the data by appropriate statistical techniques (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

Theory development procedures are based on expectations of how particular constructs and their relationships hold in an entity or multiple entities. Unless theory, measurement, and data analysis are properly specified and aligned in a particular level of analysis, researchers can draw erroneous conclusions from the study (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). For example, if the level of theory, measurement, and data analysis are not consistent, the inferences drawn may just reflect the level of measurement or data

analysis rather than the level of theory. Improper specification and alignment of the level of theory, measurement, and data analysis will lead researchers to attribute the results from certain level of measurement or data analysis to the level of theory, committing a fallacy in conclusion (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Robinson, 1950; Yammarino & Markham, 1992).

Given the complexity of levels-of-analysis issues, a detailed discussion of the level of theory, measurement, and data analysis is addressed here in terms of a single level of analysis and then in terms of multiple levels of analysis. The term single level of analysis is defined as the consideration of one level of analysis independent of other levels of analysis, meaning that all variables of interest in a research model are expected to hold at a particular level of analysis (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984).

Human beings in organizational settings can be viewed in terms of entity groupings or levels of analysis as (a) *individuals* who are independent of one another; (b) *dyads*, two individuals who are interdependent on one-to-one basis; (c) *groups*, a collection of individuals who are interdependent and interact with one another; and (d) *collectives*, entities that are larger than groups and interdependent based on hierarchical structuring or a set of common expectations, while not often involving any direct interaction (e.g., department, functional area, or organization) (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984).

The level of theory refers to the entities and their relationships that researchers depict and explain. When a theory or model is conceptualized at a particular level of analysis (e.g., group), the researcher has to allow for the possibility of alternative levels of analysis, based on assumptions of variability within and between the entities (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984), as shown in Table 2. For example, when specifying the level of a theory, a researcher may

predict that members of groups involved in the theoretical constructs are homogeneous (*wholes* view), heterogeneous (*parts* view), or independent of the groups (*equivocal* view). Then, the researcher may predict that the relationships among the focal constructs are a function of between-groups variance/covariance, within-groups variance/covariance, or individual differences (independent of the groups) (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). That is, there are two components of the specification of levels of analysis in theory: specifications about the level of constructs and about the level of relationships among the constructs.

Table 2.
Levels of Theory: Assumptions of Variability across Organizational Entities

	Assumption of Variability (Units of Analysis)		
Entities (Levels of Analysis)	Wholes (Homogeneity within focal entity)	Parts (Heterogeneity within focal entity)	Equivocal (Independence from focal entity)
Individuals over time	Observations of each individual are homogeneous over time (e.g., dispositional effect, gender) Between-individual variance > Within-individual variance	Observations of each individual are heterogeneous over time (e.g., relative level of physical activity over time, height, educational level) Between-individual variance < Within-individual variance	Observations of each individual are independent over time (e.g., situational effect: emotion and attitude change dependent on situation) Between-individual variance ≈ Within-individual variance
Individuals within Dyad	Observations of each individual are homogeneous within each dyad (e.g., perceived power equilibrium within dyad) Between-dyad variance > Within-dyad variance	Observations of each individual are heterogeneous within each dyad (e.g., relative perceived power asymmetry within dyad) Between-dyad variance < Within-dyad variance	Observations of each individual are independent of dyad (e.g., individual differences) Between-dyad variance ≈ Within-dyad variance Reject dyad level
Individuals within Group	Observations of each individual are homogeneous within each group (e.g., ALS) Between-group variance > Within-group variance	Observations of each individual are heterogeneous within each group (e.g., relative perceived power asymmetry within group, relational demography) Between-group variance < Within-group variance	Observations of each individual are independent of group (e.g., individual differences) Between-group variance ≈ Within-group variance Reject group level
Groups within Department	Observations of each group are homogeneous within each department (e.g., group performance standard set by the department) Between-department variance > Within-department variance	Observations of each group are heterogeneous within each department (e.g., relative actual group performance within the department) Between-department variance < Within-department variance	Observations of each group are independent of department (e.g., group difference; frequency with which group members socialize as a group outside of work) Between-department variance ≈ Within-department variance Reject department level

Let us consider the relationship between participation in decision making and performance. First, a researcher may define participation as the extent to which decision making is made by group consensus among group members and examine its relationship with the group performance as a whole. In this case, both participation and performance can be conceptualized as wholes view (homogeneous within groups) in terms of levels of construct, and the relationship is function of between-group variance in terms of levels of relationship. A researcher predicting homogeneity within groups may obtain theoretical underpinnings for homogeneity from the attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987), social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977).

Second, participation and performance may be conceptualized as a parts view (heterogeneous within groups), and their relationship is a function of within-group variance. For example, when participation is defined as relative frequency of speaking out in comparison to the average frequency of the group and performance is estimated by the relative number of accepted ideas as compared to average number of ideas in the group, the focal variables can be conceptualized as heterogeneous within groups in terms of levels of construct, and the relationship is function of within-group variance in terms of levels of relationship. This line of research may be supported by the following theoretical underpinnings: leadership processes requiring leaders to differentiate among followers within the group, social comparison processes, and zero-sum-game properties (e.g., Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

Third, both participation and performance may be conceptualized as equivocal view (independent of the groups) and their relationship may be based on individual differences. For example, participation can be defined as an individual's propensity to participate in decision making, and performance can be defined as an individual performance independent of group

membership. In this case, both variables and their relationship are based on independence of group, and individual differences determine participation and performance. Support for the equivocal view can be found across a number of studies involving personality, personal characteristics (e.g., emotion and cognition), and implicit leadership theories (Lord, 1985).

As the conceptualization of focal constructs and their relationships shifts from a wholes view to a parts view to an equivocal view, the meanings and relationships of the constructs will change. Each one of the views above requires different theoretical explanations and is based on unique theoretical underpinnings, suggesting that a different level of measurement and data analysis corresponding to the level of theory is needed.

The level of measurement refers to the actual sources or entities of collected data (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). After the levels of theory are explicitly specified, researchers can collect data in such a way to ensure the conformity of the data to the level of theory. For example, they may collect global group-level data (e.g., group size and functional area) ensuring between-group variance to test the wholes view (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984).

Basic principles for data-collection strategy to ensure the conformity to the level of theory (wholes, parts, or equivocal views) are commonly presented as follows (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994): (a) wholes: focusing on the group as a whole and maximizing between-group variability; (b) parts: focusing on the position of each individual relative to the group mean and maximizing within-group variability; and (c) equivocal: focusing on each individual's unique differences and maximizing between-individual variability.

The data-collection strategies for an individual-level theory (i.e., equivocal view at higher level – individual differences) may be less complicated than those for higher level of theory (i.e., wholes and/or parts view). For example, survey measures rated by each individual may be employed to represent the individual's unique difference from others. But a higher-level theory may require a consideration of more complicated and various data-collection principles and strategies as shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
Levels of Measurement: Assumptions, Examples, and Strategies for Data Collection

	Wholes		Parts
	Global group properties	Shared group properties	Configural group properties
Assumption	Originate and manifest at this level. Objective, descriptive, and observable characteristics of the group. No within-group variability	Composition form of emergence (i.e., emergent whole: Dansereau et al., 1984). Isomorphism. Need to explain thoroughly the theoretical processes predicted to yield within-group agreement emerging from individual-level characteristics.	Compilation form of emergence (i.e., emergent parts: Dansereau et al., 1984).
Examples	Group size, group function (e.g., marketing, finance)	Organizational climate, collective efficacy, group norm.	Diversity and Demography research (e.g., the combination of members' abilities and demographic qualities constitutes the configural properties of the group; when group members engage in different but interdependent work)
Data collection Strategy	Expert informants.	An aggregated measure justified by agreement tests: r_{WG}, ICC, and WABA I. Due to the isomorphism and emergent property, data should be collected at individual level and agreement within the group should be evaluated.	Indices of variation or deviation, profile similarity, etc. Due to emergent property, collected at individual level. No need to evaluate consensus or agreement among individual members.

Note. The table is based on individuals within groups.

According to Chan's (1998) view, the whole and parts property can be specified by various composition models: additive (simple summation); direct consensus (e.g., group mood as an aggregated score of individual mood, George, 1990), referent-shift consensus (e.g., collective efficacy as an aggregated score by asking "I am confident that my team can perform this task" rather than "I am confident that I can perform this task"; and dispersion (identical with parts view).

Many of the controversies and problems associated with levels issues result from misspecification of the level of theory and misalignment between the level of theory and level of measurement (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000): aggregation of individual-level measures to represent group-level constructs without proper statistical justification – atomistic fallacy (Diez-Roux, 1998); use of aggregated group-level measures to infer individual-level phenomenon – ecological fallacy (Pedhazur, 1982: Robinson, 1950); and use of expert informants who lack enough knowledge and experience. Any data-collection strategy is not level neutral (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Survey measures may presuppose a particular level of theory by wording items differently like: (a) whole group – "How do the members of your group as a whole feel about X?"; (b) group parts – "Relative to the other members of your group, how much is your X?"; and (c) equivocal – "How satisfied are you personally with X?". It is evident, however, that the levels of measurement for all of the above, despite the different wording of items, are individual-level, and that the mismatch between the level of theory and level of measurement should be properly aligned by using appropriate statistical procedures such as r_{WG}, ICCs, or WABA (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). Ensuring the conformity of the level of data/measurement to the level of theory is not 'cheating' at all (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994), but one of the ways of achieving construct validity of the measurement (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984).

The level of data analysis refers to the treatment of the data by appropriate statistical techniques (e.g., for group-level construct, aggregation of individual scores and justification by statistical procedures) (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). If data are collected in such a way that ensures the conformity of the level of data/measurement to the level of theory, there would be no necessity for this kind of procedure (e.g., global group

properties – group size and functional area) (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). But, in many cases, focal constructs of interest and research methods and contexts may make it impossible to use this approach (e.g., shared group properties such as composition model of emergent whole must be measured at individual-level and aggregated with statistical justification – organizational climate and collective efficacy).

There are especially two approaches to assessing the level of data analysis: (a) assessment of the extent of agreement *within a single group* (e.g., r_{WG}: James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) and (b) assessment of the extent of agreement by contrasting *within- and between-group* variance (e.g., ICC: Bartko, 1976; WABA I: Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984). Furthermore, WABA II can be used to test whether the relationship between measures representing different theoretical constructs is a function of between-entities covariance (wholes, homogeneity), within-entities covariance (parts, heterogeneity), or independence of the entities (equivocal, independence) (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984).

Many questions remain regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the various approaches. Very helpful comparisons indicating the application range of the approaches are available in many publications (e.g., Castro, 2002; Klein, Bliese, Kozlowski, Dansereau, Gavin, Griffin, Hofmann, James, Yammarino, & Bligh, 2000). It is worthwhile to point out that testing the level of data analysis or the conformity of data to the level of theory through statistical procedures cannot substitute for precise level-specification and application in theory and measurement. As such, the level of data analysis must build on clear and solid definitions of the level of theory and measurement (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 194).

Multiple levels of analysis. The term multiple levels of analysis is defined as the simultaneous examination of two or more organizational entities. There are four main

approaches to consider: multi-level model, cross-level model, mixed-determinants model, and mixed-effects model (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994).

A *multi-level* model describes the relationship between distinct constructs that hold at different levels of analysis (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). While this type of model is sometimes called a cross-level model (Rousseau, 1985), this paper adopts the terminology of levels-of-analysis issues consistent with Dansereau, Alutto, and Yammarino (1984). Most commonly examined multi-level models in organizational literature depict the impact of group- or organizational-level constructs on individual-level constructs, and they can be subdivided into *direct effect*, *moderator*, and *frog-pond* models in accordance with the type of influence of the group or organizational entities (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Rousseau, 1985).

Many researchers using multi-level models examine the direct effect of contextual factors on lower-level phenomenon (e.g., $X_{group} \rightarrow Y_{individual}$). For example, group norm may influence or constraint individual members' behaviors. This downward orientation, however, is not a requirement of a multi-level model. Research on the relationship between CEO's personality (i.e., individual level) and organizational performance (organizational level) is viewed as upward-oriented multi-level model.

Contextual factors may moderate relationships at lower levels (e.g., ($X_{individual} \rightarrow Y_{individual}$) depends on Z_{group}). For example, group cohesion may moderate the relationship between mood and helping behaviors at the individual level (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000). Chatman's (1991) person-organization fit research is a typical example of a moderator model.

A frog-pond model of multi-level research highlights the effects of lower-level entities' relative standing within higher-level entities (e.g., ($X_{individual} - X_{group}$) $\rightarrow Y_{individual}$) (Dansereau,

Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Rousseau, 1985). Although this model also can be called group parts (heterogeneous within group) from a single levels-of-analysis perspective, it is a multi-level model by nature as it explores the effect of individual deviations from a group average on individual outcomes (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Rousseau, 1985). Relational demography literature (e.g., Riordan, 2000) is a typical example of a frog-pond model.

A cross-level model is defined as that in which patterns of relationships are replicated across organizational entities (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984; Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). In other words, a relationship between two or more variables is hypothesized to hold at the individual, group, and organizational levels. A typical example of this model is Staw, Sandelands, and Dutton's (1981) threat-rigidity model, where hypothesized threat-rigidity relationship at individual level is replicated at the group level, and the relationship at group level is replicated at the organizational level, showing homologous linking processes. Lindsley, Brass, and Thomas's model (1995) of efficacy-performance spirals also is an example of a homologous process. That is, effects at a single higher level of analysis emerge from effects at a single lower level of analysis by a composition process.

Klein, Dansereau, and Hall (1994) depict mixed-determinants models as those where predictors at a variety of levels may influence a criterion of interest at a particular level (e.g., $X_{individual}$, X_{group}, & $X_{organization} \rightarrow Y_{individual}$). For example, individual attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction), group composition (e.g., dissimilarity of demography within groups), and market demand (e.g., availability of jobs) may influence an individual's turnover rate. Contrary to mixed-determinants models, a mixed-effects model is defined as that where a single

organizational entity may influence constructs at other multiple levels of analysis (e.g., $X_{organization} \rightarrow Y_{individual}, Y_{group}, Y_{organization}$) (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). For example, an internal organizational crisis may influence individual job satisfaction, intragroup cooperation, and organizational climate. Both mixed-determinants and mixed-effects models may be combined and thereby create more complex multi-level models (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

As emphasized in terms of single levels of analysis, the importance of articulating and aligning levels of theory, measurement and data analysis also is critical for multiple levels of analysis. Although there is some degree of difficulty in articulating and aligning levels of theory, measurement, and data analysis for multiple levels-of-analysis models, it is suggested that the levels of measurement and data analysis should be guided by the levels of the theory's constructs rather than levels of theory (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994). In the moderator model of the multi-level approach above, for example, levels in measurement and data analysis for independent and dependent variables should ensure their independence (i.e., individual differences), and levels in measurement and data analysis for moderating variable should ensure its homogeneity or heterogeneity as a higher-level property, depending on the level of construct.

A Multiple-Level View of Close/Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

The scope of the following approach to close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership in terms of multiple levels of analysis is limited to the dyad, group, and department levels of analysis. As depicted in Figure 3, the close/direct model of leadership involves the dyad and group levels of analysis, and the bypass model of distant leadership holds at the department level of analysis. Building on preceding discussions in this chapter, a multiple-level view of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership is proposed and summarized in Table 4.

Table 4.
A Multiple-Level View of Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

Leadership	Close Leadership (Direct Model)	Distant Leadership (Bypass Model)
Charismatic Leadership	Group *parts*	*Whole* departments
Contingent Reward Leadership	*Whole* dyads	Department *parts*

Multiple-level view of close and distant charismatic leadership. The essence of charismatic leadership is its augmentation effect on contingent reward leadership. A charismatic leader stimulates followers' motivation and encourages their extra efforts to move beyond assigned role requirements and transcend their self-interests for the sake of the collective by implicating their self-concepts with the leader's ideology, values, and goals (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Since a follower's motivational origin in working with the charismatic leader is shifted from self-interests to collective interests, the follower personally identifying with the charismatic leader is expected to socially identify with the collective as well and view the collective's success as his/her own success. The extent to which distant charismatic leadership is effective and successful is necessarily dependent on the extent to which the distant leader induces followers' collective efforts and enactment for the collective mission. Hence, the ultimate goal of distant charismatic leader is to achieve the mission of the collective by engaging in charismatic behaviors toward the collective as a whole. Furthermore, the large span of control imposed on distant charismatic leaders may not make it plausible to tailor their charismatic behaviors to each of the distant rank-and-file; making the distant charismatic leader substantially involved in symbolic impression management behaviors toward the collective as a whole (e.g., random management by walking

around, taking time to visit sick, distant followers, and personally replying to a distant follower's email, Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

Along with the distant charismatic leader's behaviors toward the collective as a whole, distant followers under the leader also are likely to perceive the charismatic leadership in a very similar way. As specifically addressed in the model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership (see Figure 2 and Table 1), distant followers are more likely to engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing, typically relying on noncontent or simple cues such as source credibility and reputation, schemata, coworkers' opinions, and obscure information when they evaluate distant leadership. Stories and ritual forms of symbolic impression management behaviors of a distant leader and various leader-related peripheral cues such as bulletins, sagas, leader and organizational performance records, slogans, and policies may be passed and shared across distant followers in follower-follower relationships through social information processing – social contagion process (Chun, Jaussi, & Dionne, 2003; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

In sum, distant charismatic leadership may be largely based on distant followers' homogeneous attributions about the leadership which is shaped by the leader's symbolic impression management behaviors toward the collective as a whole and followers' attributions about leadership through social information processing of peripheral leader-related cues in follower-follower relationships. Therefore,

> **Proposition 9a**: Distant/bypass charismatic leadership is based on *whole departments*; specifically, there are differences between department heads, followers are viewed as a whole department, the leader-follower link is a person-department, and relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on between-department differences.

In contrast, close charismatic leadership is a relational phenomenon primarily manifested by a charismatic leader's actual day-to-day behaviors and followers' perceptions of those behaviors through central/systematic information processing about the leader in close interpersonal leader-follower relationships. The key role of charismatic leadership is to induce followers' collective efforts and enactment for collective goals by transcending their self-interests for the sake of collective interests. However, at the same time, a relatively small span of control entailing close interpersonal leader-follower relationships may make it conducive for a charismatic leader in a close relationship to accommodate each immediate follower's unique needs and tailor his/her charismatic behaviors to each of them. Concern for follower's needs and showing sensitivity to them is one charismatic leader behavior (Conger & Kanungo, 1998), and it is a higher-order exchange (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987), based on followers' higher-order needs.

Hence, close charismatic leader behaviors may be characterized by those displaying and emphasizing a collective-orientation in combination with tailoring behaviors to one or some of the followers within the group (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Close followers' perceptions and reactions to the charismatic leader are also expected to correspond to the charismatic behaviors toward followers within the group. Furthermore, engaging in central/systematic information processing, the close followers would not rely on secondary sources of information transmitted through social information processing, but rather, may solely rely on their direct and unique interpersonal experience with the leader, implying that one or some of followers within the group may differently perceive the leader from others within the same group. Taken together,

> **Proposition 9b**: Close/direct charismatic leadership is based on *group parts*; specifically, there are differences within the managers, there are differences among followers within the groups, the differentiated leader-follower link is within the group, and relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-group differences.

Multiple-level view of close and distant contingent reward leadership. Contingent reward leadership is defined by the notion of exchange. Contingent reward leadership represents that followers are motivated to carry out a leader's requests and organizational role requirements in exchange for extrinsic (e.g., pay increase) and intrinsic (e.g., recognition) rewards (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982). For contingent reward leadership to be effective, the tangible and intangible rewards need to correspond to followers' needs and desires. Hence, contingent reward leaders have to identify the needs and desires of followers first, and then provide the followers with the rewards corresponding to the needs and desires, contingent on their performance. The motivational process of the leadership, therefore, can be explained by expectancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964).

Distant leadership situation may not be a conducive context where a contingent reward leader is able to recognize each distant follower's unique needs and desires and then provide each of the followers with rewards meeting his/her needs, contingent on his/her achievements. A large span of control imposed on distant contingent reward leaders may make it impossible to tailor their contingent reward behaviors to each distant follower's unique needs. Rather, their role clarification and rewarding behaviors may focus on each group of followers within a department. Distant contingent reward leaders control rewards to each group of followers within a department, and as such, groups of distant followers within the department also control their performance.

Furthermore, in a distant leadership situation, contingent reward leadership also is an attributional phenomenon where the distant followers largely rely on peripheral/heuristic information processing about the leader. The social information processing based on various leader-related peripheral cues is more likely to operate among followers in groups within

department than across all distant followers in the department, because a distant contingent reward leader tailors his/her role clarification and rewarding behaviors to each group of followers within the department. Taken together, the above argument suggests:

> **Proposition 10a**: Distant/bypass contingent reward leadership is based on *department parts*; specifically, there are differences within department heads, there are differences among groups of followers within departments, differentiated leader-group of followers link within the department, and relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-department differences.

Contrary to a distant leadership situation, the close leader-follower context (i.e., relatively small span of control and direct interpersonal interaction) is conducive for a contingent reward leader to identify each immediate follower's unique needs and desires and provide each follower with role clarification and rewards correspondent to his/her needs, contingent on each follower's performance. A close contingent reward leader is able to monitor each follower's behaviors and performance, and as such, the direct-report also observes the leader's behaviors directly. The leader controls rewards to a specific follower, whereas the follower also controls his/her performance to the specific leader. The two parties form a unique independent dyad by exerting mutual control and influence (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Additionally, strong commitment to the direct contingent reward leader shaped by central/systematic information processing may be resistant to counterpersuasion transmitted by social information processing. When a direct follower evaluates his/her immediate contingent reward leader, the follower is likely to rely on his/her own direct and interpersonal experience with the leader, resulting in a strong and unique commitment to the leader. In sum, the current study proposes:

> **Proposition 10b**: Close contingent reward leadership is based on *whole dyads*; specifically, differences in dyads are independent of the leader, the followers are viewed as individuals, the dyad is a balanced interpersonal relationship, and relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on between-dyad differences.

CHAPTER 3

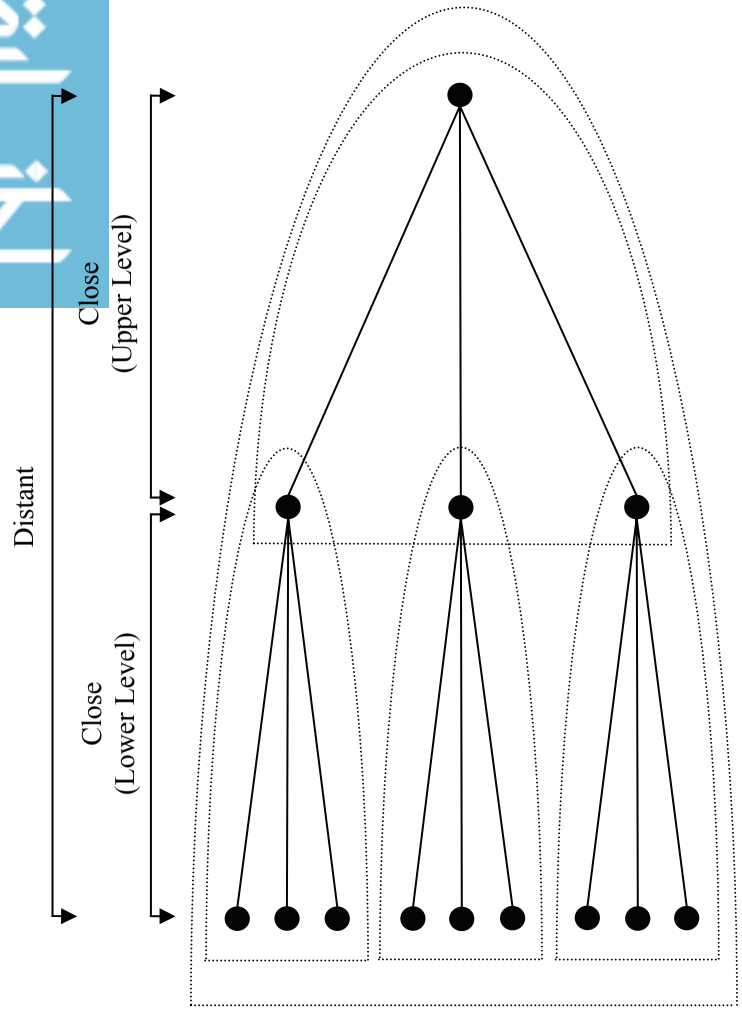
INTEGRATION AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

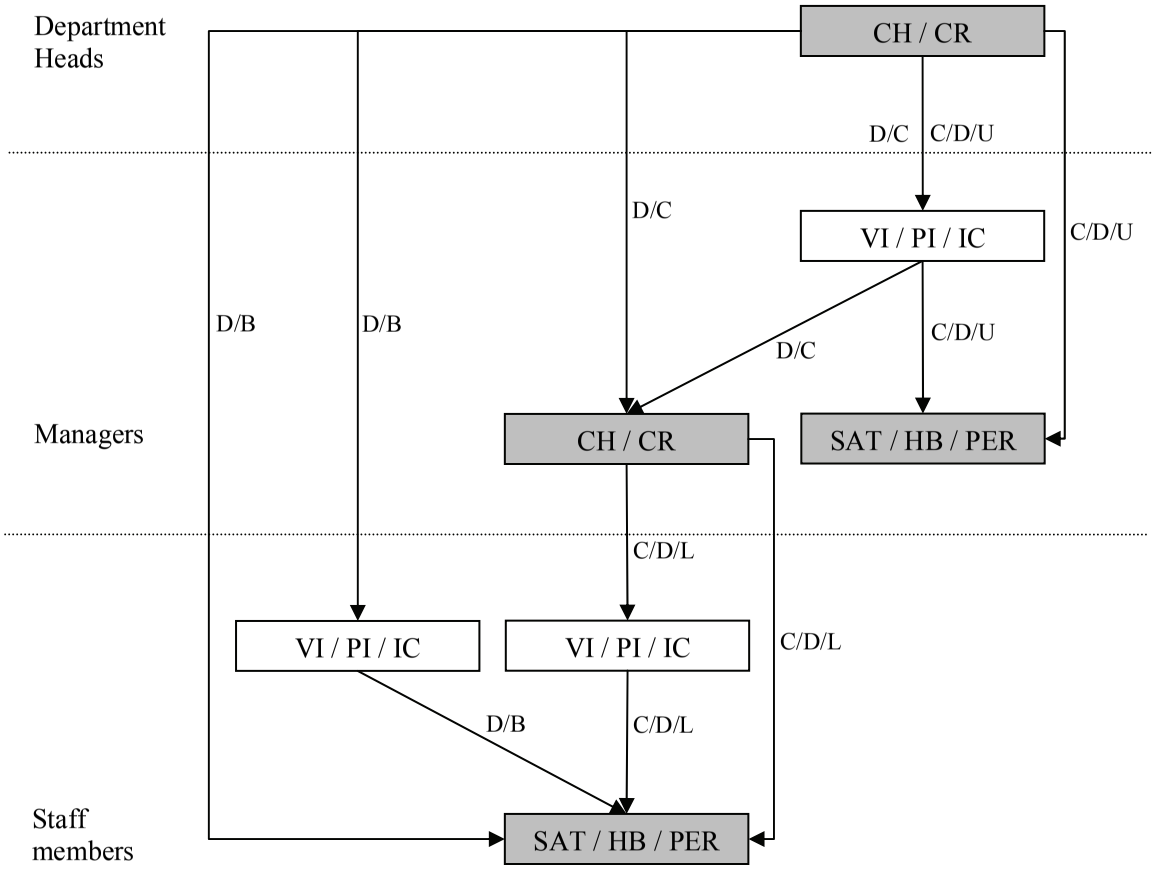
Building on the theoretical development and proposed conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership in the previous chapter, a series of hypotheses, alternative hypotheses, and research questions are formulated in this chapter. This chapter broadly consists of three parts: (a) research models depicting an overview of the hypotheses tested; (b) hypotheses regarding the relationships among relevant constructs/variables of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership; and (c) multiple levels-of-analysis hypotheses that provide the boundary conditions for the hypothesized research models.

Research Models

Three levels of management are included in the research models of the current study to examine various aspects involved in close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership: department heads, managers, and staff members (Figure 4). The three levels of management also form four close and distant leader-follower relationships and models (Figure 5). Specifically, first, the relationships between department head and staff members can represent a bypass model of distant leadership. The relationships involving relevant variables of the bypass model are indicated by "D/B" in Figure 4. Second, the relationships between a department head and managers can form a cascading model of distant leadership and a direct model of close leadership at upper levels of management. The relationships entailing relevant variables of these two models are indicated by "D/C" and "C/D/U", respectively, in the Figure 4. Third, the relationships between managers and staff members can reflect a direct model of close leadership at lower levels of management. The relationships among relevant variables of the direct model of close leadership at lower levels of management are marked by "C/D/L".

Figure 4.
Departmental Structure and Research Models across Levels of Management

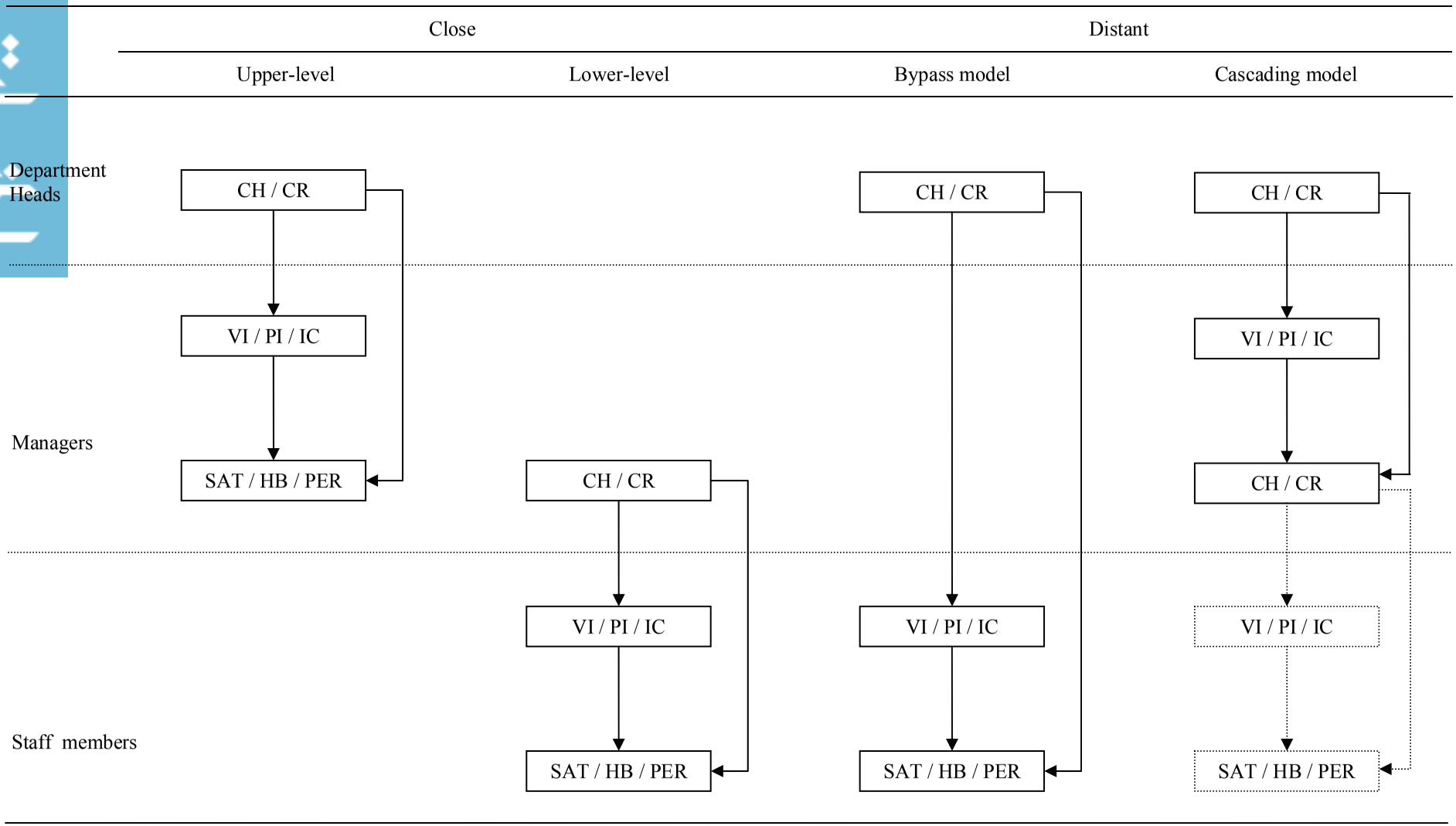




CH: Charismatic leadership; CR: Contingent reward leadership;
VI: Value internalization; PI: Personal identification; IC: Instrumental compliance
SAT: Job satisfaction; HB: Helping behavior; PER: Performance

D/B: Distant/Bypass model; D/C: Distant/Cascading model;
C/D/U: Close/Direct model at upper-level; C/D/L: Close/Direct model at lower-level

Figure 5.
Research Models of Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership



CH: Charismatic leadership; CR: Contingent reward leadership;
VI: Value internalization; PI: Personal identification; IC: Instrumental compliance;
SAT: Job satisfaction; HB: Helping behavior; PER: Performance

Figure 4 shows a saturated model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership that will be tested by division into four models of close and distant leader-follower relationships across hierarchical levels, as depicted in Figure 5. Accordingly, formulating a series of hypotheses in this chapter is guided by the four models of close and distant leadership partitioned from the saturated research model.

The first set of hypotheses (H1, H2, & H3) represents the direct models of close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels of management. The second series of hypotheses (H4, H5, & H6) are developed to examine differences between the two direct models of close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels of management. Third, the bypass model of distant leadership between a department head and staff members is explored by a series of hypotheses (H7 & H8) that represent the moderating role of leader-follower distance in the relationships between leadership and various criteria. Specifically, the bypass model of distant leadership is examined by comparing it with the direct model of close leadership at upper as well as that at lower levels of management. The fourth set of hypotheses (H9 & H10) is formulated to explore the cascading model of distant leadership which can be reflected by similar leader behavioral patterns between department heads and managers. Fifth, an alternative explanation of distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership is developed in the form of a research question.

Lastly, a series of hypotheses (H11–H18), based on a multiple levels-of-analysis perspective, are developed to provide boundary conditions on the hypothesized relationships examined in prior hypotheses.

Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

Recent meta-analytic reviews consistently provided strong support for positive relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and many leadership criteria across various study settings (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Despite the substantial amount of empirical evidence for the positive effects of those leadership types, we still have limited understanding of follower's psychological processes by which those leader behaviors are translated into followers' attitudes, behaviors, and performance (Bono & Judge, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, & De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004; Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004).

It seems to be paradoxical to advocate the effectiveness of leadership without sophisticated understating about why and how these leadership types engender positive consequences in followers. Furthermore, although the self-concept based theory of charismatic leadership specifically articulates psychological processes (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), it is surprising that only a handful studies examining the motivational processes exist, focusing on personal identification and value internalization (e.g., Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) found that transformational leadership is positively related to follower dependence on the leader through personal identification with the leader. Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, and Popper (1998) showed that a leader's supportive behaviors and emphasis on collective identity were positively related to identification with and trust in the leader. While some preliminary evidences exist that charismatic and transformational leadership engenders a followers' personal identification with the leader, whether personal identification and value internalization mediate the relationships between charismatic leadership and follower

outcomes still needs to be confirmed (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004).

Although contingent reward leadership is regarded as a base and complementary factor of charismatic and transformational leadership (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985), psychological processes underlying contingent reward leadership also have not been empirically tested. A key tenet of contingent reward leadership is its motivational process, whereby the leader clarifies and strengthens followers' effort-performance-rewards expectancies (Bass, 1985). The performance-rewards instrumentality in expectancy theory of motivation indicates why followers with an instrumental compliance motive are likely to be committed to a contingent reward leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

Based on charismatic and contingent reward leadership literature as discussed in the previous chapter, and given the research purposes addressed in this study, following hypotheses serve as starting points for this research regarding close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership.

> **Hypothesis 1a**: Close charismatic leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 1b**: The relationships between close charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by followers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 2a**: Close contingent reward leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 2b**: The relationships between close contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by followers' instrumental compliance with the leader at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.

Hypothesis 3: Close charismatic leadership will account for additional unique variance in followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance above and beyond that of close contingent reward leadership at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.

Comparisons of Close Leadership Models

A type of research on organizational leadership across levels of management is based on the notion that different patterns of leadership roles and styles are encountered at different hierarchical levels, implying that leader behaviors effective at one level of management may be less effective at another hierarchical level (Dalton, 1989; Day & Lord, 1988; Hunt & Ropo, 1995; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Tosi, 1991). Avolio and Bass (1988) suggest that transformational leadership is more observable at higher levels of management, though it can be practiced across all levels. While the notion remains intuitively appealing, two recent meta-analytic reviews demonstrated the effects of transformational leadership on leadership criteria were not significantly different from those of contingent reward leadership across hierarchical levels in organizations (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam (1996), however, recognize that different findings would emerge concerning hierarchical levels of leaders if the analysis included a number of eliminated studies that did not meet their sampling standards (p. 413). Testing the moderating effect of the hierarchical level of the leader on leadership style-criterion relationship, Judge and Piccolo (2004) used an overall score of transformational leadership, rather than a four-dimension model and found the overall measure of transformational leadership was very highly correlated with contingent reward leadership (corrected mean-correlation was .80). This procedure seems to be problematic, in that many studies demonstrated a high correlation between individualized consideration items and contingent reward leadership items (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999;

Goodwin, Wofford, & Whittington, 2001; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). The studies included in the meta-analytic review may not appropriately represent the different functionality of charismatic components of transformational leadership as compared to contingent reward leadership across different hierarchical levels. Given the problematic nature of these meta-analytic findings, it seems necessary to reexamine the moderating role of the hierarchical level of the leader.

Leaders who tailor their behaviors to followers' needs, expectations, and abilities should be more effective than those who do not (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997). Kovach (1995) found that individuals' need structures differ across organizational levels: lower nonsupervisory employees emphasize "good wage and job security" first, whereas middle and higher level employees prioritize "interesting work and full appreciation of work done." These findings imply that contingent reward leadership effectively dealing with lower-order needs would be more appropriate at lower levels of management; in contrast, charismatic leadership relevant to meeting followers' high-order needs may be more effective at upper levels of management.

Followers' job tenure and tenure under the immediate leader also need to be taken into account. Staff members at lower levels are generally more junior in tenure, and may have less established relationships with the leader and may not be familiar with their job and work environment. They may expect specific role clarification and assigned direction which can be addressed by a contingent reward leader. In contrast, managers at upper levels are generally more senior in tenure, and may have more established relationships with department heads and be able to independently act with considerable degree of discretion as a leader for the staff members. Empowerment of followers is often regarded as a main feature of charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), and this aspect distinguishes the charismatic

leadership from contingent reward leadership. Delegation of responsibility and encouraging followers to come up with their own ideas may be more appropriate for those who hold a leadership role, expect to be allowed self-direction, and are prepared to utilize those opportunities. Taken together, following hypotheses are developed:

> **Hypothesis 4a**: Close charismatic leadership will be more prevalent at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 4b**: Close charismatic leadership will be more strongly related to job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 5a**: Close contingent reward leadership will be more prevalent at lower- (managers-staff members) than at upper- (department heads-managers) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 5b**: Close contingent reward leadership will be more strongly related to job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at lower- (mangers-staff members) than at upper- (department heads-managers) levels of management.
>
> **Hypothesis 6**: The extent to which close charismatic leadership accounts for additional unique variance in followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance above and beyond that of close contingent reward leadership will be higher at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.

Bypass Model of Distant Leadership

The model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership depicted in Figure 2 summarizes the basic arguments of the current study (also see Table 1). In brief, the close/direct leadership context is characterized by high personal relevance, substantial amount of leader-related information, repeated observation of leader actual day-to-day behaviors, and direct interpersonal experience with the leader. In this context, immediate followers are more likely to engage in central/systematic information processing when they form an attitude toward the

leader. Consequently, charismatic and contingent reward leadership in a close/direct leadership situation becomes a relational phenomenon mainly based on a leader-follower interpersonal relationship, and a strong follower attitude (i.e., commitment) toward the leader may be produced. Finally, strong commitment to the leader (i.e., persistent over time, resistant to counterpersuasion, and predictive of behaviors) may positively influence the relationship between commitment to the leader and follower outcomes.

In contrast, the distant/bypass leadership context is characterized by low personal relevance, little leader-related information, occasional observation of leader symbolic impression management behaviors, and indirect experience with the leader. In this distant leadership context, distant followers may engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing when they form an attitude toward the leader. Accordingly, charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance may become a leadership phenomenon largely based on followers' attributions of the leader, and weak follower attitude (i.e., commitment) toward the leader is engendered. Finally, the weak commitment to the leader (i.e., temporary, susceptible to counterpersuasion, and less predictive of behaviors) may negatively influence the relationship between commitment to leader and follower job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Two key points to note in this conceptualization of close and distant leadership are that: (a) two different attitude consequences in terms of strength arise; and (b) the moderating effect of attitude strength on the attitude-mediating relationship between leadership and follower outcomes. The difference between the degree of attitude (i.e., positive, neutral, or negative *or* low, moderate, or high) and the strength of attitude (i.e., strong or weak) may permit one to estimate various different aspects of close/direct as compared to the distant/bypass model of leadership.

Relational charismatic and contingent reward leadership in the close/direct leadership context may evoke such strong follower commitment to the leader that follower commitment may fully or at least partially mediate the relationship between the relational leadership and its criteria. In contrast, attributional charismatic and contingent reward leadership in the distant/bypass leadership situations may also increase the degree of follower commitment to the leader, but the commitment may not be strong enough to mediate the relationship between the attributional leadership and its criteria. This is a key notion in the moderating role of commitment strength.

This line of reasoning seems to be reflected in several study findings that close charismatic and transformational leadership had stronger positive effects on followers' charismatic perceptions and outcomes than distant charismatic and transformational leadership did (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002; Yagil, 1998). The current reasoning suggests that the stronger positive effects in close leadership situations might be produced by the strong follower psychological attachment to the leader in close leadership context. Taken together, the following hypotheses are developed:

Hypothesis 7a: Bypass distant charismatic leadership will be related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Hypothesis 7b: Followers' personal identification and value internalization with distant leader will *not* mediate the relationship between charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Hypothesis 8a: Bypass distant contingent reward leadership will be related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

Hypothesis 8b: Followers' instrumental compliance with distant leader will *not* mediate the relationship between contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.

It is critical to compare the distant/bypass model of leadership with both of the close/direct models of leadership at upper- and lower-levels of management. First, in the comparison of distant/bypass leadership with close/direct leadership at upper levels, where there is a shared leader (department head) by two different followers across hierarchical levels (managers and staff members), it may be possible that any potential differences in the comparison result from both leader-follower distance and various exogenous factors derived from two different followers who have own unique qualities. Second, in the comparison of distant/bypass model with close/direct leadership at lower levels, where there is a shared follower (staff member) by two different leaders (department head and manager), it may be possible that any resulting differences in the comparison are caused by both leader-follower distance and the exogenous factors from the two different leaders. Because we expect the aforementioned differences to primarily result from the leader-follower distance, if we obtain consistent results from the two comparisons, it seems reasonable to accept that the leader-follower distance may explain the differences in the leadership phenomena.

Cascading Model of Distant Leadership

Another mechanism by which a distant leader is able to influence distant followers is explained by the cascading model of distant leadership. The cascading model describes the process whereby a distant leader influences distant followers indirectly by his/her immediate followers who are also the immediate leaders for the distant followers, meaning that the influence of a distant leader can cascade down to distant followers through intermediate levels of management (Bass, 1990; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). That is, the leader behavioral pattern of intermediate levels of management is actually a manifestation of a distant leader's behavioral pattern.

The similar behavioral patterns, reflecting the cascading effect between a distant leader and intermediate levels of management, can be explained by several plausible interpretations, such as stylistically matched selection, organizational culture and norms, and various group processes (Bass, 1990; Franklin, 1975; Griffin & Mathieu, 1997). However, a primary mechanism of the cascading effect may be followers' modeling of leader behavioral patterns, combined with a leader's exemplary role-modeling behaviors (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Misumi, 1985; Ouchi & Maguire, 1975; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). In fact, Burns (1978) noted that a transformational leader's dedicatory, caring, and participation-stimulating behaviors are multiplied outward to distant followers through his/her direct reports, who are modeling his/her behaviors and whose behaviors are imitated by their next-level followers.

There is empirical evidence showing the cascading effect of transformational and contingent reward leadership (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987). However, by relying on correlational findings in the leadership behaviors between two levels of management, the study did not demonstrate how and why the cascading effect occurs between the two levels of management. The current study suggests that the psychological influence processes operating between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and follower outcomes also mediate the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leader behaviors of department heads and those of managers.

Personal identification with the leader occurs when a follower accepts influence from the leader, because the acceptance of influence is related to a satisfying, self-defining relationship with the leader which represents a feeling of pride in the association with the leader, respect for the values and beliefs the leader holds, and attempts to be like the leader (Kelman, 1958, 1961).

Similarly, personal identification with a charismatic leader exerting referent power and displaying role-modeling exemplary behaviors evokes followers' pride in the association with the leader, respect for the leader, and ultimately, desire to idolize and imitate the charismatic behaviors and qualities (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

Value internalization occurs when a follower accepts influence from the leader because the content of influence is congruent with the follower's value system (Kelman, 1958, 1961). The values and beliefs of a charismatic leader are reflected in his/her behaviors such as articulating an appealing vision, providing ideological explanations of work, displaying self-confidence and high performance expectations, taking personal risks, and emphasizing moral values and a collective orientation. Internalization of the values and beliefs of a charismatic leader would transform follower attitudes toward the leader and work environments and induce followers' similar behavioral patterns consistent with the values and beliefs of the leader (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Instrumental compliance with a leader occurs when a follower accepts influence from the leader because the follower hopes to garner a favorable reaction from the leader who can control rewards with position and reward power (Kelman, 1958, 1961). Hence, the instrumental compliance motive explains why followers under contingent reward leadership are likely to comply with the leader and carry out their role requirements (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). The intermediate level of management holds dual positions as a leader for the followers below him/her as well as a follower for his/her superior. As such, performance of the middle managers can be gauged by their dual roles. A contingent reward superior of the middle managers may expect them to play a role as a contingent reward leader, and the middle managers may interpret the contingent reward role requirement. It is

expected, therefore, that the middle managers as followers of contingent reward leader would display contingent rewarding leadership behaviors when they instrumentally comply with the contingent reward leader and their role requirements.

Taken together, the current study suggests that not only do personal identification and value internalization with a charismatic leader and instrumental compliance with a contingent reward leader play roles as mediators in the relationships between leadership and follower outcomes, but also explain the process by which the charismatic and contingent reward leadership behaviors are observed at the next level of management. I hypothesized:

> **Hypothesis 9a**: Charismatic leadership of department heads will be positively related to managers' charismatic leadership.
>
> **Hypothesis 9b**: The relationship between charismatic leadership of department heads and charismatic leadership of managers will be mediated by managers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader.
>
> **Hypothesis 10a**: Contingent reward leadership of department heads will be positively related to managers' contingent reward leadership.
>
> **Hypothesis 10b**: The relationship between contingent reward leadership of department heads and contingent reward leadership of managers will be mediated by managers' compliance with the leader.

Alternatives to Distant Leadership

"Must mediation relations be additive?" "May mediators also be moderators?" and "May moderators also assume the role of mediators?" (James & Brett, 1984, p. 308). As discussed before, previous literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance identified only two models of distant leadership – the mediation model, where a distant leader directly influences distant followers (i.e., bypass model), and where distant leader indirectly

influences distant followers through intermediate levels of management (i.e., cascading model) (e.g., Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994).

Given the dearth of theory and research on distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership, it may be premature to dismiss any alternative mechanisms by which a distant leader exerts influence on distant followers beyond the mediation model. For example, (a) when the cascading effect indicated by significant relationship between the leader behavioral patterns across two hierarchical levels is not obtained and/or (b) when the bypass effect of a distant leader on distant followers is not significant enough, we may be able to consider another possibility – the interaction effect of both leadership approaches across hierarchical levels on distant follower outcomes.

The interaction or combined effect has been demonstrated by other leadership approaches such as Performance-Maintenance theory of leadership and Ohio State leadership model. Misumi (1985) found the interaction effect of performance and maintenance leader behaviors across two levels of management on the performance of banking subordinates. Hunt (1971) and Hunt, Hill, and Reaser (1973) showed that although the leader behaviors at two levels above from distant followers were not significantly related to the followers' job satisfaction, the combined leadership behaviors of first- and second-level leaders produced significant effects on followers' job satisfaction.

Building on the research findings from other leadership areas, the current study attempts to explore the moderating roles of charismatic and contingent reward leadership across two hierarchical levels: (a) is the relationship between charismatic and contingent reward leadership of managers and staff members' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance (i.e., close/direct leadership at lower levels) moderated by charismatic and contingent reward

leadership of the department head (i.e., distant leader of the staff members)?; and (b) is the relationship between charismatic and contingent reward leadership of the department head and staff members' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance (i.e., distant/bypass leadership) moderated by charismatic and contingent reward leadership of managers (i.e., close/direct leader of the staff members)? To explore the interaction effects of both leadership approaches at different levels, the following research question is developed:

> **Research Question**: Are there any interaction effects of charismatic and contingent reward leadership between department head and manager? If so, what is the optimal combination of charismatic and contingent reward leadership at two hierarchical levels to predict the highest positive effects on staff members' outcomes (i.e., charismatic department head and charismatic manager; contingent reward department head and contingent reward manager: charismatic department head and contingent reward manager; and contingent reward department head and charismatic manager)?

Multiple Levels of Analysis: Leadership and Distance

Based on the prototypical conceptual multiple-level view of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership (Table 4), an elaborated, testable multiple-level perspective of close and distant leadership is developed and hypothesized (Table 5). Neither constructs nor their relationships are context free. Leader-follower distance in charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomenon may challenge us to reconceptualize previous multiple levels-of-analysis perspectives largely limited to close leadership situations.

Table 5.
Summary of Hypotheses for a Multiple-Level Perspective of Close and Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership

	Close Leadership		Distant Leadership	
	Upper-Level [a]	Lower-Level [b]	Bypass Model [c]	Cascading Model [d]
Charismatic Leadership	Group *parts* (H13)	Group *parts* (H14)	*Whole* departments (H11)	Group *parts* (H12)
Contingent Reward Leadership	*Whole* dyads (H17)	Dyad *parts* (H18)	Department *parts* (H15)	*Whole* dyads (H16)

a: department heads–managers relationships
b: mangers–staff members relationships
c: department heads–staff members relationships
d: department heads–managers relationships

Multiple-level perspective on close and distant charismatic leadership. A charismatic leader evokes followers' extra efforts to move beyond assigned role requirements and transcend their self-interests for the sake of the collective by implicating their self-concepts with the leader's ideology, values, and goals (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Personal identification with the charismatic leader whose values and beliefs are based on a collective sense is likely to be followed by social identification with the collective and the followers viewing the collective's success as their own success. To stimulate followers' collective efforts and enactment for the collective mission, the charismatic leader is likely to engage in charismatic behaviors toward the collective as a whole. This whole view of charismatic leader behaviors has been accepted in most theoretical work and used as an operational levels of analysis in most empirical research (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).

The large span of control imposed on distant/bypass charismatic leaders may not make it plausible to tailor their charismatic behaviors to each of the distant followers, making the

distant/bypass charismatic leader substantially involved in symbolic impression management behaviors toward the collective as a whole (e.g., random management by walking around). Distant followers under the charismatic leader are also likely to perceive the charismatic leader in a very similar way. Stories and ritual forms of symbolic impression management behaviors and various leader-related peripheral cues, such as bulletins, sagas, and slogans, are passed and shared among the distant followers through social information processing in follower-follower relationships where they are more likely to engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing when they evaluate distant leadership. And the social information processing seems to be more observable in the relationship among distant followers, because their attitudes would be weak and thereby vulnerable to other's opinions.

In sum, the distant/bypass charismatic leadership phenomenon may be based mainly on distant followers' homogeneous attributions about leadership which is formed not only by the leader's symbolic behaviors toward the collective as a whole, but also by followers' attributions of leadership through social information processing of peripheral leader-related cues in follower-follower relationships. Therefore,

> **Hypothesis 11**: Distant/bypass charismatic leadership (i.e., a department head–staff members) will be based on a *whole departments* effect, such that: (a) there are differences between department heads; (b) followers are viewed as a whole department; (c) the leader-follower link is a person-department; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of leadership are based on between-department differences.

In contrast, distant/cascading charismatic leadership (i.e., a department head–managers) and close/direct charismatic leadership at upper and lower levels of management (i.e., a department head–managers and a manager–staff members, respectively) may be a relational phenomenon primarily manifested by a charismatic leader's actual day-to-day behaviors and

followers' perceptions of the behaviors and attitude formations toward the leader through central/systematic information processing. Although the key role of charismatic leadership is to stimulate followers' collective efforts and enactment for a collective mission, at the same time, a relatively small span of control entailing interpersonal leader-follower relationships may make it possible for a charismatic leader in a close relationship to recognize each immediate follower's unique needs, and tailor his/her charismatic behaviors to each of the followers. Showing sensitivity to follower's needs is one charismatic leader behavior (Conger & Kanungo, 1998), representing a higher-order exchange (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987) based on a follower's higher-order needs. Accordingly, the charismatic leader behaviors in close relationships may be characterized by those displaying and emphasizing a collective sense in combination with tailoring behaviors to one or some of followers within the group (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998).

Close followers' perceptions and reactions to the charismatic leader may also be correspondent to the charismatic behaviors toward followers within the group, because the close followers may not rely on secondary sources of information transmitted through social information processing, but rather, may solely rely on their direct personal experiences with the leader, resulting in different perceptions of the leader from others within the same group. Taken together, it is expected that a group parts effect would manifest in the distant/cascading charismatic leadership (i.e., a department head–managers) and close/direct charismatic leadership at upper and lower levels of management (i.e., a department head–managers and a manager–staff members, respectively).

Given the notion of collective-orientation in charismatic leader behaviors, the extent to which the leader tailors his/her behaviors to one or some of the followers within a group in close

relationships may raise a question about the same levels-of-analysis perspective between a cascading model and close/direct charismatic leadership at upper levels (i.e., a department head–managers) *and* close/direct charismatic leadership at lower levels (i.e., a manager–staff members). Relative to managers, staff members at the lowest level of management may be juniors who may have less established relationships with their leader and may not be familiar with their job and work environment due to relatively short job tenure and tenure under their leader. They may need more care and tailoring behaviors by their immediate leader, implying that the close leadership at lower levels (i.e., manager–staff members) could manifest at the dyad level. However, the current study argues that excessive caring and providing role clarification tailored to a particular follower does not seem to be a charismatic leader behavior, but rather more closely resembles contingent reward leader behavior. Based on the above theoretical discussion, the present study hypothesizes:

> **Hypothesis 12**: Cascading model of distant charismatic leadership (i.e., a department head–managers) will be based on a *group parts* effect, such that: (a) there are differences within the department heads; (b) there are differences among followers within the groups; (c) the leader-follower links are differentiated within the group; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-group differences.
>
> **Hypothesis 13**: Close/direct charismatic leadership at upper levels of management (i.e., a department head–managers) will be based on a *group parts* effect, such that: (a) there are differences within the department heads; (b) there are differences among followers within the groups; (c) the leader-follower links are differentiated within the group; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-group differences.
>
> **Hypothesis 14**: Close/direct charismatic leadership at lower levels of management (i.e., a manager–staff members) will be based on a *group parts* effect, such that: (a) there are differences within the managers; (b) there are differences among followers within the groups; (c) the leader-follower links are differentiated within the group; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-group differences.

Multiple-level perspective on close and distant contingent reward leadership. A contingent reward leader motivates followers to carry out the leader's requests and organizational role requirements in exchange for extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982). For contingent reward leadership to be effective, the rewards need to correspond to followers' needs and desires. Accordingly, contingent reward leaders have to identify the needs and desires first, and then provide the followers with the rewards corresponding to the needs and desires, contingent on follower performance.

A large span of control imposed on distant/bypass contingent reward leaders may make it impossible to recognize each distant follower's unique needs, and then tailor contingent rewards to each of the distant followers. Accordingly, role clarification and rewarding behaviors of distant/bypass contingent reward leader may focus on each group of distant followers within a department, and as such, each group of distant followers within the department also controls its performance.

Contingent reward leadership at a distance is also an attributional phenomenon where peripheral/heuristic information processing may be a primary route for distant followers to evaluate the leadership. Social information processing based on various leader-related peripheral cues may be more likely to operate among followers in groups within department rather than across all distant followers in the department. This may be due to the notion that a distant contingent reward leader tailors his/her role clarification and rewarding behaviors to each group of followers within the department. In sum, the above argument suggests:

> **Hypothesis 15**: Distant/bypass contingent reward leadership (i.e., a department head–staff members) will be based on a *department parts* effect, such that: (a) there are differences within the department heads; (b) there are differences among groups of followers within departments; (c) the leader-group of followers links are differentiated within the department; and (d) relevant construct/variables of the leadership are based on within-department differences.

Contrary to a distant/bypass leadership situation, the close leader-follower interpersonal context characterized by a relatively small span of control and direct interpersonal interaction may make it possible for a contingent reward leader to recognize each immediate follower's unique needs and provide each follower with role clarification and intrinsic/extrinsic rewards meeting his/her needs, contingent upon his/her performance. A close contingent reward leader is able to monitor each follower's actual behaviors and performance, and as such, the follower also directly observes the leader's day-to-day actual behaviors. Direct followers holding strong commitment to the contingent reward leader shaped by central/systematic information processing may be resistant to counterpersuasion transmitted by other coworkers via social information processing. The leader controls rewards to a particular follower, whereas the follower also controls his/her performance to the leader depending on the quality of exchange. The two parties may form an independent dyad by exerting mutual influence (Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Accordingly, distant/cascading contingent reward leadership (i.e., a department head–managers) and close/direct contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels of management (i.e., a department head–managers and a manager–staff members, respectively) may hold at dyad level of analysis.

Individualized leadership theory suggests that a superior-subordinate dyad can be manifested by balanced or unbalanced interpersonal relationships (i.e., whole dyads or dyad parts), partly depending on the stage of exchange in which the superior and subordinate engage (Dansereau, Yammarino, Markham, Alutto, Newman, Dumas, Nachman, Naughton, Kim, Al-Kelabi, Lee, & Keller, 1995). The dyadic notion of individualized leadership implies that variability within dyads may partly depend on how long the dyadic exchange relationship is maintained. As previously noted, staff members at lowest level of management are juniors who

may not be accustomed to their job and workplace and may have less established exchange relationships with managers as their leader due to relatively short job tenure and tenure under their leader. Therefore, it is expected that close/direct contingent reward leadership at lower levels of management (i.e., a manager–staff members) displays a dyad parts effect, whereas close/direct contingent reward leadership at upper levels of management and distant/cascading contingent reward leadership manifest whole dyads effects. Thus:

> **Hypothesis 16**: Cascading model of distant contingent reward leadership (i.e., a department head–managers) will be based on a *whole dyads* effect, such that: (a) differences in dyads are independent of leader; (b) the followers are viewed as individuals; (c) the leader-follower link is a balanced interpersonal relationships; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on between-dyad differences.
>
> **Hypothesis 17**: Close/direct contingent reward leadership at upper levels of management (i.e., a department head–managers) will be based on a *whole dyads* effect, such that: (a) differences in dyads are independent of leader; (b) the followers are viewed as individuals; (c) the leader-follower link is a balanced interpersonal relationship; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on between-dyad differences.
>
> **Hypothesis 18**: Close/direct contingent reward leadership at lower levels of management (i.e., a manager–staff members) will be based on a *dyad parts* effect, such that: (a) differences in dyads are independent of leader; (b) the followers are viewed as individuals; (c) the leader-follower link is an unbalanced interpersonal relationship; and (d) relevant constructs/variables of the leadership are based on within-dyad differences.

Table 6.
Summary of Hypotheses [a]

Issues	Hypotheses
Close Leaderships	**H 1a**: Close charismatic leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 1b: The relationships between close charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by followers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 2a: Close contingent reward leadership will be positively related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 2b: The relationships between close contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance will be mediated by followers' instrumental compliance with the leader at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 3: Close charismatic leadership will account for additional unique variance in followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance above and beyond that of close contingent reward leadership at both upper- (department heads-managers) and lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
Comparisons of Close leaderships	**H 4a**: Close charismatic leadership will be more prevalent at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 4b: Close charismatic leadership will be more strongly related to job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
	H 5a: Close contingent reward leadership will be more prevalent at lower- (managers-staff members) than at upper- (department heads-managers) levels of management.
	H 5b: Close contingent reward leadership will be more strongly related to job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance at lower- (mangers-staff members) than at upper- (department heads-managers) levels of management.
	H 6: The extent to which close charismatic leadership accounts for additional unique variance in followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance above and beyond that of close contingent reward leadership will be higher at upper- (department heads-managers) than at lower- (managers-staff members) levels of management.
Bypass Distant Leadership Compared to Close Leadership	**H 7a**: Bypass distant charismatic leadership will be related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.
	H 7b:Followers' personal identification and value internalization with distant leader will *not* mediate the relationship between charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.
	H 8a: Bypass distant contingent reward leadership will be related to followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.
	H 8b: Followers' instrumental compliance with distant leader will *not* mediate the relationship between contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance.
Cascading Distant Leadership	**H 9a**: Charismatic leadership of department heads will be positively related to managers' charismatic leadership.
	H 9b: The relationship between charismatic leadership of department heads and charismatic leadership of managers will be mediated by managers' personal identification and value internalization with the leader.
	H 10a: Contingent reward leadership of department heads will be positively related to managers' contingent reward leadership.
	H 10b: The relationship between contingent reward leadership of department heads and contingent reward leadership of managers will be mediated by managers' compliance with the leader.
Alternative to Distant Leadership	**Research Question**: Are there any interaction effects of charismatic and contingent reward leadership between department head and manager? If so, what is the optimal combination of charismatic and contingent reward leadership at two hierarchical levels to predict the highest positive effects on staff members' outcomes (i.e., charismatic department head and charismatic manager; contingent reward department head and contingent reward manager; charismatic department head and contingent reward manager; and contingent reward department head and charismatic manager)?

[a] This table does not include the hypotheses for multiple levels of analysis. See TABLE 5 for those hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Procedure

The research design of current study involves three levels of management: department heads, managers, and staff members. The close and distant leadership context formed by three hierarchical levels allows for the empirical possibilities of individual, dyad, group, and department (collective) levels of analysis effects to be manifested. To incorporate these alternative levels of analysis into theory testing, measurement, and data analysis, matched reports (i.e., followers report about their leaders and the leaders report about *each* of their followers) must be obtained. Adapted from Schriesheim, Castro, and Yammarino's (2000) study, the following procedure was implemented to obtain the matched reports from three hierarchical levels.

This study was carried out at the headquarters site of a variety companies in Seoul, Korea. I initially contacted vice presidents, senior executive directors, or general managers in the department of human resources management from 16 organizations by telephone or in person in most cases. In the conversations, I briefly explained the current study's purpose and research design and verified whether the organizational structure and the number of followers under a leader were appropriate to test the hypotheses of interest. Thirteen companies finally agreed to participate in the current research project and they were considered satisfactory to be included in hypothesis testing.

Survey questionnaires were administered during regular working hours to a sample of 42 executive directors or general managers working as heads of their departments or divisions in the 13 companies. Full verbal explanations as well as the survey's written instructions were provided,

along with special emphasis on confidentiality of all responses. To ensure confidentiality, enclosed with every questionnaire were a joint researcher-company cover letter and a sealable return envelope that would be kept by respondents and directly gathered by managers appointed by me to do so.

The department heads were first asked to randomly select three managers as their immediate followers within the departments and then to describe their leadership toward each of the managers and to rate the managers' performance separately. Included in the department heads' survey packet were three additional survey packets, labeled Manager A, Manager B, and Manager C, and numbered to correspond with each department head's questionnaire. The department heads, after completing their surveys, were directed to hand out those three survey packets to the focal managers rated in their questionnaires and to encourage them to complete their surveys.

The managers were first asked to describe department heads' leadership and to rate their own performance level; then the identical procedure used with department heads was applied to managers as well. The managers were instructed to randomly select three staff members working as their direct reports within the departments and then to complete questionnaires about their leadership toward each of the selected staff members and the followers' performance separately. After completing their questionnaires, the managers were asked to give the focal staff members three questionnaires, labeled Staff A, Staff B, and Staff C, and numbered to correspond with each department head's and manager's questionnaire. Finally, the three staff members were instructed to describe department head's leadership (distant leader) as well as manager's leadership (close leader), in addition to their own performance levels. No matched report for the distant leader-follower relationship was obtained, as it would be very unusual for executive

directors in large companies to establish formal working relationships with individual staff members.

Sample

Matched reports from three levels of management were obtained through the procedure described above, but participants were not asked to provide their names, and their responses remained anonymous. Of the administered survey questionnaires, 33 department heads (78.6% of the distributed questionnaires), 94 managers (74.6%), and 269 staff members (71.2%) returned their questionnaires. Potential participants were excluded from analyses if a leader report was provided but a matching follower report was not obtained and/or if a follower report was available but a matching leader report was not. Additionally, the current study included only staff members and managers who had at least a 3-month tenure with their leaders (managers and department heads, respectively) to ensure sufficient acquaintance of followers with their leaders and to allow development of personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance.

Final usable matched data set for hypothesis testing consisted of 27 department heads (81.8% of the returned questionnaires), 77 managers (81.9%), and 218 staff members (81.0%) from 13 large Korean companies, including Hyundai Motors, Samsung SDI, and SK Networks. This data set generated 77 department head–manager dyads and 27 teams with a mean of 2.85 managers per department head at the upper level, and 218 manager–staff member dyads and 77 teams with a mean of 2.83 staff members per manager at the lower level; all these dyads and teams are embedded in 27 departments from 13 companies.

Although the response rates (over 80% for all three hierarchical levels) were considered quite adequate (Babbie, 1990; De Vaus, 1986), I conducted multivariate analysis of variance

(MANOVA) to ensure that there was minimal nonresponse bias. There were no significant differences on demographic (i.e., age and tenure in the organization), leadership, and outcome variables at all three hierarchical levels between participants included and those excluded because of a lack of matching report or tenure with leader; that is, the comparisons were 27 department heads included vs. 6 department heads excluded; 77 managers included vs. 17 managers dropped; 218 staff members included vs. 51 staff members omitted. Therefore, nonresponse bias did not appear problematic in this study.

All respondents were full-time employees doing office work in various industries. The number of companies and departments within a industry category were 1 lodging/hotel including 1 department (8%), 1 consulting including 2 departments (8%), 4 manufacturing including 10 departments (31%), 1 distribution including 5 departments (8%), 3 retail/wholesale including 3 departments (23%), 1 construction including 4 departments (8%), 1 transportation including 1 department (8%), and 1 telecommunication including 1 department (8%). No significant differences on any of the leadership or outcome variables were found across the industry categories.

For the department heads, mean age was 47.96 years ranging from 42 to 53 years; average tenure in the organizations and in their current position/job were 17.76 years ranging from .25 to 25.42 years and 2.24 years ranging from .25 to 7.33 years, respectively; and they all were male. For the managers, mean age was 42.38 years ranging from 32 to 52 years; mean tenure in the organizations and in their current position/job were 13.17 years ranging from .25 to 25.33 years and 2.45 years ranging from .25 to 6.25 years, respectively; and all of them were male. For the staff members, average age was 33.90 years ranging from 21 to 45 years; mean tenure in the organizations and in their current position/job were 6.07 years ranging from .25 to

18.25 years and 2.65 years ranging from .25 to 11.75 years; and 92% of staff members were male.

Measures

All survey questions were subjective measures which focus on participants' perceptions rather than actual behaviors and phenomena measured by objective indicators. Although a single instrument based on participants' perceptions was used to derive the relationships among relevant variables, multiple raters are used to eliminate concerns of common-source (rater) bias and minimize the impact of common-method bias. Specifically, the variables of leadership, bases of commitment to leader, and outcomes, forming a substantive model of leadership, were measured by multi-raters (department heads, managers, and staff members).

The Korean versions of all measures were created by following Brislin's (1980) translation-back-translation procedure. Multiple-item measures were aggregated and divided by the appropriate number of items to create composite scale scores for each construct/variable, after conducting a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (EFA and CFA), reliability checks, and measurement equivalence/invariance tests.

Leader behaviors. Measures of charismatic and contingent reward leadership were adopted from the short version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X, Bass & Avolio, 1997). Several studies have confirmed the six-factor structure of the MLQ where the factor of charisma consists of items of idealized influence and inspirational motivation and the contingent reward factor is distinguished from the factor of charisma (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Given discriminant validity, the current study used eight charismatic items and four contingent reward leadership items from the MLQ-5X. Four items measuring attributed idealized influence were not included, because they have been

criticized for representing leadership impact or results rather than leader actual behaviors (Yukl, 1999) and might artificially inflate its relationship with personal identification and value internalization.

The items used in this study were slightly modified to specifically tap the interactions between a leader and each follower in close and cascading distant leadership situations as well as between a leader and a department of followers in bypass distant leadership situations. For example, an item from the follower version in the close and cascading distant charismatic leadership contexts states, "*The department head* (or *manager*) talks to *me* about *his/her* most important values and beliefs." The matched item from the leader version states, "*I* talk to *this follower* about *my* most important values and beliefs." An item from the follower version in the bypass distant charismatic leadership situations states, "*The department head* talks to *us* about *his/her* most important values and beliefs." Respondents, both leaders and followers, were asked to indicate the frequency with which the perceptions and behaviors occurred in their relationships on a five-point scale ranging from 0 = "not at all" to 4 = "frequently, if not always." The reliability coefficient alphas of charismatic and contingent reward leadership from leader ratings were .91 and .81, respectively; the reliability coefficient alphas of charismatic and contingent reward leadership from follower ratings were .89 and .88, respectively.

***Bases of commitment to leader*.** Personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance were assessed using four, three, and two items, respectively, adapted from several commitment and value congruence studies (Becker, 1992; Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Posner, 1992). As in the case of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, the referents of these items also were slightly modified to specifically tap the interactions between leaders and followers. A sample item of follower

version is (a) "I view his/her success as my own success." (personal identification); (b) "There is a great deal of agreement between my personal values and his/her core values." (value internalization); and (c) "How hard I work for my job is directly linked to how much I am rewarded/recognized by him/her." (instrumental compliance). Both department heads and managers reported the managers' bases of commitment to the department heads; both managers and staff members rated the staff members' bases of commitment to the managers; and the staff members' bases of commitment to department heads were measured by staff themselves. The raters were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a five-point scale ranging from 0 = "strongly disagree" to 4 = "strongly agree." The reliability coefficient alphas for personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance were .86, .81, and .74, respectively, for leader ratings; the coefficient alphas for those scales for follower ratings were .88, .79, and .73, respectively.

Outcomes. Three follower outcomes of charismatic and contingent reward leadership were measured using the matched-report procedure by leaders and corresponding followers. Referents of the items of these three outcome measures also were slightly modified for the matched reports. First, affective and general *job satisfaction* was assessed using three items from the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). A sample item of follower version states, "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job." Leaders and their immediate followers in close and cascading distant leadership situations at upper-levels (department heads-managers) and in close situation at lower-levels of management (managers-staff members) were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 = "strongly disagree" to 4 = "strongly agree." The reliability coefficient alpha for leader ratings was .72; the coefficient alpha for follower ratings was .76.

Second, *helping behavior* was measured using three items of the altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behaviors (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001). A sample item of follower version is "I give of my time to help others." Respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a five-point scale ranging from 0 = "strongly disagree" to 4 = "strongly agree." The reliability coefficient alpha for leader ratings was .86; the coefficient alpha for follower ratings was .81.

Third, follower *performance* was measured using three items regarding quantity, quality, and efficiency of work from Mott's (1972) scale. Previous studies employing a long version of the original scale demonstrated that it was significantly correlated with objective performance indicators (e.g., Fulk & Wendler, 1982). The items used in follower version are: (a) quantity–"Thinking of the various things which you do for your job, how much are you producing? Check one." (responses ranged from 0 = "My production is very low" to 4 = "It is very high."); (b) quality–"How good would you say is the quality of your performance? Check one." (responses ranged from 0 = "My quality is poor" to 4 = "Excellent quality."); and (c) efficiency–"How efficiently do you do your work? Check one." (responses ranged from 0 = "I do not work efficiently at all" to 4 = "I am extremely efficient."). The reliability coefficient alpha for leader ratings was .85; the reliability coefficient alpha for follower ratings was .80.

Other measures. Greater hierarchical differences in organizations may most often manifest both greater physical and social distance between leaders and followers, whereas lesser hierarchical differences tend to result in both lesser physical and social distance between the two parties. However, given the team-based structure adopted in many current organizations, flattening their structures and eliminating many middle-levels, differences in levels of

management may not indicate the interaction frequency between leaders and followers. To ensure that all three aspects of leader-follower distance were considered in the partition of close and distant groups of relationships, leader-follower interaction frequency and attitude strength for each basis of commitment were measured.

Frequency of interaction between department heads and managers was reported by mangers. The interaction frequencies between managers and staff members as well as between department heads and staff members were reported by staff members. All cases were measured by asking the managers and staff members, "Looking back on the past 3 months, approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with the leader you describe above at work? Check one." Response categories ranged from 0 = "less than 1 hour" to 4 = "more than 15 hours."

Strength in personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance were assessed using a single-item measure of *attitude certainty*. Certainty refers to the confidence with which an individual holds an attitude. As an index of attitude strength, certainty has implications for persistency, resistance, and predictability of behaviors of an attitude (Gross, Holtz, & Miller, 1995; Wegener, Downing, Krosnick, & Petty, 1995). After completing each measure of the personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance, managers and staff members were asked to make an overall rating of the certainty of each measure on a 5-point scale ranging 0 = "very uncertain" to 4 = "very certain." The single-item measure of certainty states, "How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (#~#)? Check one."

Construct Validity and Measurement Equivalence

Construct validity. Given a well-established theoretical framework of charismatic and contingent reward leadership and relevant outcomes to the theory, confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using AMOS 4.0 maximum likelihood procedure (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999) were conducted to examine the validity of all measures included in this study. A one-factor model where all items were set to load on a single factor was first examined; then using fit indices and chi-square difference tests, the constrained one-factor model was compared to less-constrained two-factor model where some items were set to load on a factor and others were set to load on the other factor; lastly, the fit indices and chi-square of two-factor model were compared with those of the least constrained three-factor model. This procedure tests whether the proposed theoretical dimensionality of construct should be confirmed in the measures (Byrne, 2001).

For the measures of charismatic and contingent reward leadership (Table 7), various fit indices across leader and follower ratings indicate that both the 2-factor model (charisma and contingent reward) and 3-factor model (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and continent reward) are acceptable to use. The chi-square difference tests for the models, however, suggests that the 3-factor model is the best fitting model ($\Delta \chi^2$ *(d.f.)* = 14.41(2), $p < .05$ for leader ratings; $\Delta \chi^2$ *(d.f.)* = 44.90 (2), $p < .05$ for follower ratings).

Nonetheless, I decided to retain the 2-factor model for current study, because: (a) theoretically, inspirational motivation is regarded as a subfactor within idealized influence often called charisma (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985). In fact, Bass (1985) noted "…here, we should like to focus on the inspirational leadership process–the arousal and heightening of motivation among followers that occurs primarily from charismatic leadership (p. 62)."; (b) empirically, Bass and his colleagues have continuously demonstrated a six-factor model where idealized influence and inspirational motivation are pooled into a factor, charisma (Avolio, Bass,

& Jung, 1999; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Furthermore, the fit indices for the 2-factor model appear good, at least acceptable across leader and follower ratings (RMSEA = .05, TLI = .97, CFI = .97 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .08, TLI = .94, CFI = .95 for follower ratings); and (c) practically, the main purpose of current study is to examine the differences in leadership processes and effectiveness between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership, but not to test the possible differentiated impact of idealized influence from inspirational motivation.

For the measures of personal identification, value internalization, instrumental compliance (Table 8), chi-square comparisons with the next best fitting model across both rating sources supported the superiority of the 3-factor model where the items of personal identification, value identification and instrumental compliance were set to load on three corresponding factors ($\Delta \chi^2$ *(d.f.)* = 72.28 (2), $p < .05$ for leader ratings; $\Delta \chi^2$ *(d.f.)* = 94.34 (2), $p < .05$ for follower ratings). Model fit statistics for the 3-factor model also indicated good model fit for both rating sources (RMSEA = .04, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for leader ratings; RMSEA = .03, TLI = .99, CFI = .99 for follower ratings).

Lastly, for job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance, CFA with a 3-factor model was conducted across leader and follower ratings, because EFA for those measures demonstrated a very clear 3-factor structure without any cross-loadings and considerable correlations among the items. As expected, the 3-factor model for both rating sources was confirmed (leader ratings: n = 295 (department head's ratings about each of 77 managers and manager's ratings about each of 218 staff members), χ^2 *(d.f.)* = 36.36 (24), RMSEA = .04, TLI = .99, CFI = .99; follower ratings: n = 295 (77 managers' self-ratings and 218 staff members' self-ratings), χ^2 *(d.f.)* = 40.37 (24), RMSEA = .05, TLI = .98, CFI = .98).

Table 7.
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership [a, b]

	Leader Ratings [c]					Follower Ratings [d]				
Model	χ^2 / *d.f.*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$ *(d.f.)*	χ^2 / *d.f.*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$ *(d.f.)*
1 Factor	244.66 / 54	.11	.87	.90		601.77 / 54	.14	.80	.84	
2 Factor	101.95 / 53	.05	.97	.97	142.71 (1)*	220.44 / 53	.08	.94	.95	381.33 (1)*
3 Factor	87.54 / 51	.05	.97	.98	14.41 (2)*	175.54 / 51	.07	.95	.96	44.90 (2)*

[a] All CFAs were conducted using the 4 items from MLQ form 5X for each of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and contingent reward.
[b] All standardized factor loadings were greater than .50 for all models across two different sources.
[c] n = 295 (77 + 218: department heads' ratings about each of 77 managers and managers' ratings about each of 218 staff members)
[d] n = 513 (77 + 218 + 218: 77 managers' ratings about department heads and 218 staff members' ratings about managers and department heads).
* $p < .05$

Table 8.
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Personal Identification, Value Internalization, and Instrumental Compliance [a, b]

	Leader Ratings [c]					Follower Ratings [d]				
Model	χ^2 / *d.f.*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$ *(d.f.)*	χ^2 / *d.f.*	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$ *(d.f.)*
1 Factor	184.82 / 27	.14	.83	.87		260.74 / 27	.13	.85	.89	
2 Factor	107.27 / 26	.10	.91	.93	77.55 (1)*	129.82 / 26	.09	.93	.95	130.92 (1)*
3 Factor	34.99 / 24	.04	.99	.99	72.28 (2)*	35.48 / 24	.03	.99	.99	94.34 (2)*

[a] All CFAs were conducted using the 4 items, 3 items, and 2 items for personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance, respectively.
[b] Except for some items in 1 factor model, all standardized factor loadings were greater than .50 across two different sources.
[c] n = 295 (77 + 218: department heads' ratings about each of 77 managers and managers' ratings about each of 218 staff members)
[d] n = 513 (77 + 218 + 218: 77 managers' ratings about their commitment to department heads and 218 staff members' ratings about their commitment to managers and department heads).
* $p < .05$

Measurement equivalence. Invariance/equivalence in measurement between leader and follower ratings is a critical issue that all investigators using matched-report procedure have to examine before hypothesis testing; while the leaders and followers with different characteristics such as roles and positions may rate an identical target in different ways, the measurement of the target should be equivalent across the two rating sources.

The generalizability of the measurement model and the invariance of structural parameters between leader and follower ratings were tested using multigroup measurement analysis for all measures included in this study (Byrne, 2001; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). First, a two-group baseline model was estimated, in which factor patterns were equal and all parameters were set free across the two groups (model A). Second, this baseline model was compared to another two-group model (model B) where factor patterns were equal *but* factor loadings were constrained to be equal across the two groups. This comparison demonstrates whether both factor loadings and factor patterns are invariant across the two rating groups. Specifically, to support the invariance, the chi-square difference between the two models should *not* be significant and model fit statistics for both models should be identical and acceptable.

For the 2-factor measurement model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership, the chi-square difference between the two models (model A and model B) was not statistically significant (model A: $\chi^2 = 322.36$, *d.f.* = 106; model B: $\chi^2 = 333.44$, *d.f.* = 116; $\Delta\chi^2/d.f.$ = 11.08/10, $p > .05$). Model fit statistics for both models were identical across two rating sources and showed good model fit (for both models: RMSEA = .05, TLI = .95, CFI = .96).

The 3-factor measurement model of personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance also was invariant between leader and follower ratings. The chi-square difference between model A and model B was not significant (model A: $\chi^2 = 70.48$, *d.f.* = 48;

model B: χ^2 = 74.78, *d.f.* = 54; $\Delta\chi^2/d.f.$ = 4.30/6, $p > .05$). Model fit indices for model A and model B were identical across leader and follower ratings and indicated good model fit (for both models, RMSEA = .02, TLI = .99, CFI = .99).

Lastly, the 3-factor measurement model of job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance was proved to be invariant across two rating sources as well. The chi-square difference test for model A and model B was not statistically significant (model A: χ^2 = 76.73, *d.f.* = 48; model B: χ^2 = 80.87, *d.f.* = 54; $\Delta\chi^2/d.f.$ = 4.14/6, $p > .05$); and model fit statistics for both models were the same across two rating sources and indicated good model fit (for both models, RMSEA = .03, TLI = .98, CFI = .99).

In all, a series of CFAs and multigroup measurement analyses indicate that all measures included in hypothesis testing can be differentiated empirically and that this distinction is invariant across two rating sources–leaders and followers. The supporting result for invariance in measurement between leader and follower ratings justifies the use of the matched-report procedure to test the multiple levels of analysis effects and to mitigate the potential of common-source bias.

Analyses

Raw-score analyses. Traditional correlation analyses were conducted using the respondents' raw data (untransformed, thereby individual-level in this study) and computing means, standard deviations, and Pearson's correlation coefficients. Then, hierarchical linear multiple regression analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) was employed to assess the presence of mediating effects of three commitment bases on the relationships between leadership and various follower outcomes.

Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1177) recommended that the three following regression equations should be estimated to test for the presence of mediation: (step 1) the mediator is regressed on the independent variable; (step 2) the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable; and (step 3) the dependent variable is regressed on both the independent variable and on the mediator. To support the mediated relationship, following three conditions need to be met. First, the independent variable (e.g., charismatic leadership) needs to be related to the mediator (e.g., personal identification) in the first regression equation. Second, the independent variable needs to be related to the dependent variable (e.g., helping behavior) in the second equation. Third, the mediator needs to be related to the dependent variable when the independent variable is controlled in the third equation. If the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable disappears when the mediator is controlled in the third equation, it is called *full* mediation. If the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable remains significant even when the mediator is controlled, it is called *partial* mediation.

Within and Between Analysis. Within and Between Analysis (WABA: Dansereau et al., 1984) was employed to test the effects of multiple levels of analysis. There are three steps in WABA. First, in WABA I, *each variable* in a hypothesized relationship is assessed at a particular level (e.g., dyad) to determine whether individual scores for the variable vary primarily between, within, or both between and within the units of interest (i.e., between-variance > within-variance; between-variance < within-variance; or between-variance ≈ within-variance, respectively). Within-eta (η) and between-eta (η) correlations are compared to identify the source of variation, and the difference is tested using *F*-tests for statistical significance and *E*-tests for practical significance (magnitude of effects) which is not dependent on degree of freedom.

Second, in WABA II, the hypothesized *relationship among variables* is assessed at a particular level (e.g., dyad) to determine whether covariation among the variables varies primarily between, within, or both between and within the units of interest (i.e., between-covariance > within-covariance; between-covariance < within-covariance; or between-covariance ≈ within-covariance, respectively). Between- and within-cell correlations are examined using bivariate *t*- or multivariate *F*-tests for statistical significance and *R*-tests for practical significance. Differences between the paired between- and within-cell correlations are tested using *z*-tests for statistical significance and *A*-tests for practical significance.

Third, the results from the first two steps are combined to draw an overall conclusion. Specifically, first, the cross-product of independent and dependent variables' WABA I between etas is multiplied by their WABA II between correlation, resulting in a between component; second, the cross-product of independent and dependent variables' WABA I within etas is multiplied by their WABA II within correlation, deriving a within component; finally, these two between and within components total to the traditional raw-score correlation. The combining procedure is summarized in the basic WABA equation:

$$^{\eta}B_x\,^{\eta}B_y\,^{r}B_{xy} + {}^{\eta}W_x\,^{\eta}W_y\,^{r}W_{xy} = {}^{r}T_{xy}$$

where $^{\eta}B_x$ and $^{\eta}B_y$ are the between etas for independent variable x and dependent variable y, respectively; $^{\eta}W_x$ and $^{\eta}W_y$ are the corresponding within eats; $^{r}B_{xy}$ and $^{r}W_{xy}$ are the corresponding between and within correlation; and $^{r}T_{xy}$ is the traditional raw-score correlation between variable x and variable y.

The WABA procedure outlined above is a key aspect of the approach designed for application in bivariate analysis. However, the basic procedure is easily extended to conduct

multivariate analysis through the application of hierarchical linear multiple regression (Schriesheim, 1995). Underlying basic procedure of the multivariate WABA is that the unstandardized partial regression coefficients (β_1 and β_2, assuming two independent variables) are multiplied by between- and within-cell scores, resulting in a new composite between-entities independent variable and a new composite within-entities independent variable.

$$^{\eta}B_{x1x2}{}^{\eta}B_{y}{}^{r}B_{x1x2y} + {}^{\eta}W_{x1x2}{}^{\eta}W_{y}{}^{r}W_{x1x2y} = {}^{r}T_{x1x2y}$$

The terms in the multivariate WABA equation shown above have the same meanings as those in the basic bivariate WABA equation. That is, an independent variable x in the bivariate relationship with a dependent variable y is simply replaced by a weighted linear composite of multiple independent variables, x1 and x2. Additionally, for the *F*- and *Z*-tests for statistical significance, the degrees of freedom are adjusted to reflect the additional parameters. Simple conceptualization of the multivariate WABA is that a weighted linear composite of multiple independent variables forms a bivariate relationship with a dependent variable under the application of WABA.

Control variable issues. Two issues of control variables should be noted. Prior research has demonstrated that controlling for the effects of demographic variables such as age, gender, organizational tenure, and tenure under leader is an important procedure in leadership research (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Among others, it is worthwhile to consider three demographic variables (age, organizational tenure, and tenure under leader) in the current study; but because (a) all department heads and managers included were male, and 92% of staff members were male as well, controlling gender was unnecessary; (b) although the respondents included were from various functional areas, they all held office positions at the headquarters site

of companies, implying that differences in function might not have potential effects on leadership process; and lastly, (c) despite the presence of industry difference, no significant differences on any of the leadership and outcome variables were found to depend on industry categories.

Using hierarchical linear multiple regression procedures, the three demographic variables were first entered into regressions to determine whether they explain any meaningful variance in outcome variables. However, the results of multiple regressions including these variables produced virtually the identical findings from the multiple regressions without those variables. Based on these results, only substantive variables of interest in the hypothesized relationships were examined in hierarchical linear multiple regressions and multivariate WABA analyses and presented in the following chapter.

Another important issue about control variable warrants consideration. Three levels of management are involved to test the hypotheses of interest in the current research model, where staff members' outcomes may be affected by manager's close leadership as well as department head's bypass distant leadership. To identify the effects of manager's close leadership on staff members' outcomes, department head's leadership may need to be controlled. Likewise, manager's close leadership seems necessary to be controlled to test the effects of department head's distant leadership on staff members' outcomes. Nonetheless, I decided not to incorporate the controlling procedure in hierarchical multiple regressions and multivariate WABA analyses, because it is necessary to make an equivalent condition across close situations at upper and lower levels when both are compared. Specifically, if department head's leadership toward staff members is controlled when manager's leadership effects on staff members' outcomes are examined, it is also essential to control the leadership above the department head (e.g., CEO)

distant from the manager, so that both close leaderships at upper and lower levels can be compared under an equivalent condition. But this approach was not feasible with the current research design.

CHPTER 5

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of leader-follower distance check, raw-score analyses, and multivariate WABA analyses in that order. The results of raw-score analyses are presented separately and in sequence for the four research models (Figure 5) in addition to an alternative model to distant leadership. Descriptive statistics and raw-score correlations were produced separately for each research model, because the research models involve different leader-follower relationships at different levels of management, resulting in unequal numbers of raw-score reports. For example, a raw-score correlation cannot be generated, due to the unequal numbers of reports, for the relationship between department head's charismatic leadership rated by staff members ($n = 218$) and manager's performance rated by department head ($n = 77$). The results of multivariate WABA analyses also are presented separately for the research models.

Leader-Follower Distance Check

Given the team-based structure widespread in many companies, flattening their structure by eliminating many middle levels, it is necessary to check whether the three hierarchical levels actually represent close and distant situations. According to the results of paired sample *t*-tests, there was a significant difference in interaction frequency reported by staff members between department head–staff member relations and manager–staff member relations ($t = 22.35$, $p < .01$), indicating that staff members interact more frequently with their immediate managers than with their distant department heads. Furthermore, independent sample *t*-tests showed that the frequency of interacting with department heads reported by managers was significantly higher than the frequency of interacting with the department heads reported by staff members ($t = 21.58$, $p < .01$).

Given the ample empirical evidence in dual-mode information processing literature that repeated observations of an attitude object produce strong attitude toward the object, attitude strength may serve as a proxy measure for leader-follower distance. In fact, paired sample *t*-tests revealed that strength in all three bases of staff members' commitment to close managers was significantly greater than strength in staff members' commitment to distant department heads (strength in personal identification: $t = 14.53$, $p < .01$; strength in value internalization: $t = 15.25$, $p < .01$; strength in instrumental compliance: $t = 15.01$, $p < .01$). And also, according to independent sample *t*-tests, managers' bases of commitment to immediate department heads were significantly stronger than staff members' bases of commitment to distant department heads (strength in personal identification: $t = 10.51$, $p < .01$; strength in value internalization: $t = 9.80$, $p < .01$; strength in instrumental compliance: $t = 8.89$, $p < .01$). In all, these results confirmed that the partition of leadership situations into close and distant leader-follower relations in the current study might be sufficient enough to test the hypotheses of interest regarding close and distant leadership.

Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: H1~ H3

Table 9 and Table 10 present the rating sources for each variable in the hypothesized substantive relationships in close leaderships at upper- and lower-level. Although there are many possibilities of combination by multiple sources, only two combinations are used to follow the principle that leadership is measured (assessed) by followers and followers' outcomes are measured (assessed) by corresponding leaders.

Table 11 and Table 12 present the individual-level, raw-score descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables in close leadership at upper and lower levels, respectively. Overall, the hypothesized and tested relationships among the variables fluctuated substantially. However,

it is worth mentioning that the correlations among variables *not* included in the hypothesis testing (i.e., relationships by omitted combinations of multiple sources) show an interesting finding. Leadership variables rated by leader him/herself were not significantly (or significant, but lesser) related to follower's commitment and outcomes rated by follower him/herself (e.g., DCHD–MPERM: $r = .07$). This finding may confirm that rater's self-serving and/or social desirability bias in survey methods often operate to distort the hypothesized relationships. Conversely, the finding indicates that the combination used in the multiple sources here appears appropriate to minimize the potential of those biases.

Tables 13 through 18 present the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses to test the hypothesized mediated relationships by following the steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) (Model 1: step 1; Model 2a-2c: step 2; Model 3a-3c: step 3). In all cases for close charismatic leadership at upper and lower levels, Hypothesis 1a and 1b were supported, with an exception (see Table 13) that manager's personal identification reported by the manager (MPID) did not mediate the relations between department head's charismatic leadership rated by the manager (DCHM) and his/her job satisfaction evaluated by the department head (MSATD). Clearly, in close leadership contexts at both upper and lower levels, followers' personal identification and value internalization with their leaders *fully*, or at least *partially*, mediated the relations between charismatic leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance (see Table 13 through Table 16). In conjunction with the results of the significant differences in follower's attitude strength between close and distant contexts, these findings further support the current study's theoretical arguments.

Hypothesis 2a and 2b about close contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels were partially supported (see Tables 17 & 18). Specifically, although close contingent reward

leadership at both levels were significantly related to all followers' outcomes (i.e., support for H 2a), the mediating role of follower's instrumental compliance with the leaderships was *not* fully demonstrated across single and multiple rating sources; that is, despite the presence of partial and full mediation of instrumental compliance in many cases, several non-mediating results also were found. It might be possible that instrumental compliance was not sufficiently developed by followers in Korea where employees at the same hierarchical levels and with identical organizational tenures are often given the same amount of monetary rewards, regardless of their individual performance. And also, social desirability bias might operate especially when the instrumental compliance was reported from self-rating. Deeper discussion of these issues will be provided in the following chapter.

The hypothesis of the augmentation effect of charismatic leadership on contingent reward leadership (Hypothesis 3) was *not* supported in close leadership situations at neither upper nor lower levels. To test the effect, I conducted a series of hierarchical regression analyses where (a) contingent reward leadership rated by followers was first entered in a regression equation, (b) both contingent reward leadership and charismatic leadership rated by followers were then entered in a regression equation, and (c) change in R^2 was examined. The augmenting effects were not found for any of the followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by their corresponding leader ($\Delta R^2 < .01$ and $p > .10$ in all regressions). These findings seem to have resulted from a strong correlation between charismatic and contingent reward leadership ($r = .71$** at upper level; $r = .61$** at lower level), raising multicollinearity issues which will be discussed further in the discussion chapter.

Table 9.
Variables and Rating Sources in Close Leadership at Upper Level [a]

	Leadership	Commitment to Leader	Outcome
	CH, CR [b]	PI, VI, IC [c]	SAT, HB, PER [d]
Single Source	Department Head	Department Head	Department Head
	Manager	Manager	Manager
Multiple Sources	Manager	Manager	Department Head
	Manager	Department Head	Department Head

[a] Close leadership situation between department head and manager
[b] CH = Charismatic leadership; CR = Contingent reward leadership
[c] PI = Personal identification; VI = Value internalization; IC = Instrumental compliance
[d] SAT = Job satisfaction; HB = Helping behavior; PER = Performance

Table 10.
Variables and Rating Sources in Close Leadership at Lower Level [a]

	Leadership	Commitment to Leader	Outcome
	CH, CR [b]	PI, VI, IC [c]	SAT, HB, PER [d]
Single Source	Manager	Manager	Manager
	Staff Member	Staff Member	Staff Member
Multiple Sources	Staff Member	Staff Member	Manager
	Staff Member	Manager	Manager

[a] Close leadership situation between manager and staff members
[b] CH = Charismatic leadership; CR = Contingent reward leadership
[c] PI = Personal identification; VI = Value internalization; IC = Instrumental compliance
[d] SAT = Job satisfaction; HB = Helping behavior; PER = Performance

Table 11.
Raw-Score Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Close Leadership at Upper-Level

Variables [a]	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. DCHD	2.98	0.49															
2. DCRD	2.65	0.59	.37**														
3. DCHM	2.86	0.55	.27*	.15													
4. DCRM	2.63	0.64	.10	.22	.71**												
5. MPID	2.74	0.56	.48**	.54**	.34**	.37**											
6. MVID	2.96	0.53	.38**	.44**	.36**	.37**	.73**										
7. MICD	2.70	0.56	.16	.76**	.23*	.30**	.57**	.54**									
8. MPIM	2.92	0.59	.13	.02	.70**	.56**	.36**	.33**	.12								
9. MVIM	2.92	0.59	.21	.13	.72**	.62**	.42**	.43**	.17	.71**							
10.MICM	2.72	0.58	.14	.25*	.58**	.73**	.42**	.49**	.33**	.44**	.55**						
11.MSATD	3.00	0.42	.34**	.23*	.34**	.43**	.61**	.61**	.28*	.35**	.46**	.40**					
12.MHBD	2.88	0.57	.39**	.40**	.44**	.53**	.78**	.75**	.50**	.46**	.47**	.49**	.62**				
13.MPERD	2.71	0.55	.31**	.42**	.37**	.43**	.71**	.67**	.46**	.42**	.53**	.40**	.67**	.74**			
14.MSATM	2.95	0.59	.23*	.00	.50**	.44**	.26*	.34**	.01	.51**	.56**	.49**	.48**	.30**	.30**		
15.MHBM	3.09	0.67	.16	.22	.71**	.58**	.42**	.48**	.23*	.67**	.78**	.55**	.39**	.50**	.49**	.47**	
16.MPERM	2.86	0.54	.07	.16	.50**	.45**	.24*	.24*	.16	.50**	.56**	.41**	.14	.24*	.31**	.37**	.58**

[a] DCHD & DCRD = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by self.
DCHM & DCRM = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager.
MPID, MVID, MICD = Manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance, rated by department head.
MPIM, MVIM, MICM = Manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by self.
MSATD, MHBD, MPEFD = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by department head.
MSATM, MHBM, MPEFM = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by self.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 12.
Raw-Score Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Close Leadership at Lower-Level

Variables [a]	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. MCHM	2.81	0.62															
2. MCRM	2.65	0.61	.70**														
3. MCHS	2.67	0.60	.37**	.24**													
4. MCRS	2.50	0.73	.19**	.23**	.61**												
5. SPIM	2.57	0.67	.55**	.47**	.29**	.22**											
6. SVIM	2.58	0.65	.62**	.59**	.40**	.29**	.66**										
7. SICM	2.69	0.65	.47**	.44**	.23**	.21**	.39**	.45**									
8. SPIS	2.74	0.60	.24**	.23**	.55**	.52**	.32**	.37**	.29**								
9. SVIS	2.61	0.57	.23**	.19**	.57**	.59**	.28**	.33**	.27**	.58**							
10. SICS	2.87	0.66	.14*	.17*	.34**	.39**	.10	.11	.07	.42**	.38**						
11. SSATM	2.76	0.62	.40**	.44**	.18**	.17*	.48**	.45**	.31**	.22**	.22**	.21**					
12. SHBM	2.91	0.63	.39**	.40**	.22**	.29**	.54**	.50**	.28**	.33**	.30**	.11	.43**				
13. SPERM	2.79	0.60	.32**	.38**	.23**	.24**	.49**	.43**	.22**	.26**	.24**	.09	.41**	.52**			
14. SSATS	2.65	0.67	.22**	.27**	.42**	.38**	.18**	.28**	.34**	.45**	.43**	.26**	.30**	.30**	.19**		
15. SHBS	2.96	0.59	.28**	.20**	.32**	.39**	.19**	.19**	.22**	.45**	.46**	.32**	.12	.21**	.12	.30**	
16. SPERS	2.60	0.57	.12	.12	.38**	.28**	.08	.03	.21**	.32**	.37**	.23**	.14*	.06	.09	.41**	.33**

[a] MCHM & MCRM = Manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by self.
MCHS & MCRS = Manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
SPIM, SVIM, SICM = Staff member's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance, rated by manager.
SPIS, SVIS, SICS = Staff member's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by self.
SSATM, SHBM, SPEFM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
SSATS, SHBS, SPEFS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by self.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 13.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Personal Identification as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Upper-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: PI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCHD: department head), (MPID: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHD	.54**	.29*	.44**	.35**	.06	.02	–.04
MPID					.43**	.79**	.72**
Single Source: (DCHM: manager), (MPIM: manager), (MSATM, MHBM, MPERM: manager)							
DCHM	.76**	.53**	.88**	.50**	.30*	.58**	.30*
MPIM					.31*	.39**	.26*
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: manager), (MPIM: manager), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHM	.76**	.26**	.45**	.37**	.14	.23	.14
MPIM					.16	.29*	.30*
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: manager), (MPID: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHM	.35**	.26**	.45**	.37**	.12	.20*	.14
MPID					.42**	.73**	.65**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCHD & DCHM = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by self and manager, respectively.
MPID & MPIM = Manager's personal identification rated by department head and self, respectively.
MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by department head, respectively.
MSATM, MHBM, & MPERM = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 14.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Personal Identification as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Lower-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: PI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (MCHM: manager), (SPIM: manager), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHM	.60**	.39**	.39**	.31**	.18**	.13	.06
SPIM					.35**	.43**	.41**
Single Source: (MCHS: staff member), (SPIS: staff member), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff member)							
MCHS	.54**	.47**	.32**	.36**	.28**	.11	.27**
SPIS					.35**	.39**	.16*
Multiple Sources: (MCHS: staff member), (SPIS: staff member), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHS	.55**	.19**	.23**	.23**	.09	.06	.13
SPIS					.18*	.32**	.19*
Multiple Sources: (MCHS: staff member), (SPIM: manager), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHS	.32**	.19**	.23**	.23**	.05	.07	.09
SPIM					.43**	.48**	.42**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
MCHM & MCHS = Manager's charismatic leadership rated by self and staff member, respectively.
SPIM & SPIS = Staff member's personal identification rated by manager and self, respectively.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager, respectively.
SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between manager and staff member.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 15.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Value Internalization as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Upper-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: VI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCHD: department head), (MVID: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHD	.40**	.29*	.44**	.35**	.11	.14	.07
MVID					.45**	.76**	.68**
Single Source: (DCHM: manager), (MVIM: manager), (MSATM, MHBM, MPERM: manager)							
DCHM	.78**	.53**	.88**	.50**	.22	.39**	.21
MVIM					.40**	.63**	.37**
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: manager), (MVIM: manager), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHM	.78**	.26**	.45**	.37**	.01	.22	–.03
MVIM					.32**	.30*	.52**
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: manager), (MVID: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCHM	.35**	.26**	.45**	.37**	.11	.20*	.14
MVID					.45**	.74**	.65**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCHD & DCHM = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by self and manager, respectively.
MVID & MVIM = Manager's value internalization rated by department head and self, respectively.
MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by department head, respectively.
MSATM, MHBM, & MPERM = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 16.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Value Internalization as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Lower-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: PI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (MCHM: manager), (SVIM: manager), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHM	.65**	.39**	.39**	.31**	.19*	.12	.08
SVIM					.32**	.41**	.35**
Single Source: (MCHS: staff member), (SVIS: staff member), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff member)							
MCHS	.55**	.47**	.32**	.36**	.29**	.09	.23**
SVIS					.34**	.43**	.24**
Multiple Sources: (MCHS: staff member), (SVIS: staff member), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHS	.55**	.19**	.23**	.23**	.08	.07	.13
SVIS					.20*	.29**	.18*
Multiple Sources: (MCHS: staff member), (SVIM: manager), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCHS	.44**	.19**	.23**	.23**	–.001	.02	.07
SVIM					.43**	.48**	.37**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
MCHM & MCHS = Manager's charismatic leadership rated by self and staff member, respectively.
SVIM & SVIS = Staff member's value internalization rated by manager and self, respectively.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager, respectively.
SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between manager and staff member.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 17.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Instrumental Compliance as the Mediator in the Relationship of Contingent Reward Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Upper-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: IC	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCRD: department head), (MICD: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCRD	.72**	.17*	.39**	.40**	.04	.04	.16
MICD					.18	.47**	.33*
Single Source: (DCRM: manager), (MICM: manager), (MSATM, MHBM, MPERM: manager)							
DCRM	.67**	.40**	.62**	.38**	.15	.41**	.27*
MICM					.37*	.32*	.17
Multiple Sources: (DCRM: manager), (MICM: manager), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCRM	.67**	.28**	.47**	.37**	.19	.33*	.26*
MICM					.13	.22	.17
Multiple Sources: (DCRM: manager), (MICD: department head), (MSATD, MHBD, MPERD: department head)							
DCRM	.26**	.28**	.47**	.37**	.25**	.38**	.28**
MICD					.12	.38**	.36**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCRD & DCRM = Department head's contingent reward leadership rated by self and manager, respectively.
MICD & MICM = Manager's instrumental compliance rated by department head and self, respectively.
MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by department head, respectively.
MSATM, MHBM, & MPERM = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 18.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Instrumental Compliance as the Mediator in the Relationship of Contingent Reward Leadership with Follower Outcomes at Lower-Level Close Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: IC	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (MCRM: manager), (SICM: manager), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCRM	.47**	.45**	.41**	.37**	.39**	.36**	.34**
SICM					.14*	.12	.06
Single Source: (MCRS: staff member), (SICS: staff member), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff member)							
MCRS	.35**	.34**	.31**	.22**	.30**	.25**	.17**
SICS					.14*	.18**	.12*
Multiple Sources: (MCRS: staff member), (SICS: staff member), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCRS	.35**	.14*	.25**	.20**	.08	.25**	.20**
SICS					.17*	–.01	–.001
Multiple Sources: (MCRS: staff member), (SICM: member), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: manager)							
MCRS	.18**	.14*	.25**	.20**	.09	.21**	.17**
SICM					.28**	.22**	.17**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCRD & DCRM = Department head's contingent reward leadership rated by self and manager, respectively.
MICD & MICM = Manager's instrumental compliance rated by department head and self, respectively.
MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by department head, respectively.
MSATM, MHBM, & MPERM = Manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
[a] Close leadership situation between manager and staff member.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Comparisons of Close Leadership: H4 ~ H6

Hypothesis 4a proposed that higher-level leaders (department heads) would be perceived to demonstrate more charismatic leadership behaviors than lower-level leaders (managers), while Hypothesis 5a stated that lower-level leaders would practice more frequently contingent reward leadership behaviors than higher-level leaders. Table 19 presents the results of a series of independent sample *t*-tests using both follower ratings and leader (self) ratings to examine those expectations. Supporting Hypothesis 4a, the results of *t*-tests indicate that charismatic leadership was more frequently perceived by followers and demonstrated by leaders at upper-level close relationships (department heads-managers) than at lower levels (managers-staff members) (CH: $t = 2.43$, $p < .05$ for follower ratings; $t = 2.11$, $p < .05$ for leader-ratings). However, there were no significant differences in the prevalence of contingent reward leadership between upper-level and lower-level close relationships, indicating that Hypothesis 5a was *not* supported (CR: $t = 1.36$, $p > .05$ for follower ratings; $t = .05$, $p > .05$ for leader-ratings).

Table 19.
Comparison of Prevalence in Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership between Upper Level and Lower Level

Leadership	Rating Source	Variables [a]	Mean (*n*)	*t* value (*d.f.*)
CH	Follower Rating	DCHM at upper level	2.86 (*n* = 77)	2.43* (293)
		MCHS at lower level	2.67 (*n* = 218)	
	Self Rating	DCHD at upper level	2.98 (*n* = 77)	2.11* (293)
		MCHM at lower level	2.81 (*n* = 218)	
CR	Follower Rating	DCRM at upper level	2.63 (*n* = 77)	1.36 (293)
		MCRS at lower level	2.50 (*n* = 218)	
	Self Rating	DCRD at upper level	2.65 (*n* = 77)	0.05 (293)
		MCRM at lower level	2.64 (*n* = 218)	

[a] DCHD, DCRD = department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by self.
DCHM, DCRM = department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by manager.
MCHM, MCRM = manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by self.
MCHS, MCRS = manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership rated by staff members.
* $p < .05$

Table 20 presents the results for Hypothesis 4b and 5b. Using *t*-tests for independent β coefficient differences and Fisher's z' transformation for independent *r* coefficient differences, the magnitude of relationships of charismatic and contingent reward leadership with followers' outcomes were compared between upper and lower levels. The results of those analyses revealed that the relationships between charismatic leadership and any of follower outcomes were not significantly stronger at upper levels than at lower levels, making Hypothesis 4b *not* supported. Unexpectedly, the relationship between contingent reward leadership and follower's helping behavior was significantly stronger at upper levels than at lower levels, indicating the reverse results of Hypothesis 5b ($t = 2.15$, $p < .05$; $z = 2.14$, $p < .05$). The positive signs of both *t* and *z* values may indicate that both charismatic and contingent reward leadership might be more strongly related to follower outcomes at the upper level than at the lower level, though they were not statistically significant.

Table 20.
Comparison of Magnitude of Relationships of Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership with Follower Outcomes between Upper Level and Lower Level

	β (*r*)			
Variables [a]	Upper Level	Lower Level	*t*-test (*d.f.* = 291)	*z*-test
CH and				
SAT	.261 (.341)	.185 (.178)	$t = 0.70$	$z = 1.3$
HB	.453 (.436)	.229 (.218)	$t = 1.74$	$z = 1.82$
PER	.370 (.366)	.229 (.225)	$t = 1.10$	$z = 1.15$
CR and				
SAT	.284 (.429)	.141 (.165)	$t = 1.60$	$z = 2.17$*
HB	.474 (.529)	.250 (.292)	$t = 2.15$*	$z = 2.14$*
PER	.373 (.429)	.202 (.244)	$t = 1.61$	$z = 1.56$

[a] CH and CR were follower-ratings. SAT, HB, and PER were leader-ratings. * $p < .05$

Finally, Hypothesis 6 stated that the augmentation effects of charismatic leadership on contingent reward leadership would be greater at upper levels than at lower levels. However, the augmentation effects were found neither at upper levels nor at lower levels (Hypothesis 3 was not supported), so Hypothesis 6 was not testable.

Bypass Distant Leadership: H7 ~ H8

Table 21 illustrates the rating sources for each variable in the hypothesized relationships in bypass distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Despite the presence of several possibilities of combination by multiple sources from the study data set, only one combination is used to keep the principle that leadership are rated by followers and the followers' outcomes are measured (rated) by leaders. The leaders reporting the followers' outcomes here were managers, because the distant leaders, department heads, did not appear to have frequent enough interaction to evaluate their distant followers' performance.

Table 21.
Variables and Rating Sources in Bypass Distant Leadership [a]

	Leadership	Commitment to Leader	Outcome
	CH, CR [b]	PI, VI, IC [c]	SAT, HB, PER [d]
Single Source	Staff Member	Staff Member	Staff Member
Multiple Sources	Staff Member	Staff Member	Manager

[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and staff members
[b] CH = Charismatic leadership; CR = Contingent reward leadership
[c] PI = Personal identification; VI = Value internalization; IC = Instrumental compliance
[d] SAT = Job satisfaction; HB = Helping behavior; PER = Performance

Raw-score variable means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables in bypass distant leadership are presented in Table 22. Overall, the hypothesized relationships among variables fluctuated substantially. Specifically, the magnitude of correlations between

department heads' leadership and staff members' outcomes looked stronger than that of correlations between staff members' three bases of commitment to the department heads and their outcomes. This implies that no mediation effects would be found as expected in hypotheses regarding bypass distant leadership.

Tables 23 through 25 present the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses to test the hypothesized mediated relationships by following the procedures described in Baron and Kenny (1986) (Model 1: step 1; Model 2a-2c: step 2; Model 3a-3c: step 3). Supporting the Hypothesis 7a from the results in Table 23, department head's distant charismatic leadership was significantly related to staff members' job satisfaction, helping behaviors, and performance (step 2). Furthermore, the effects of charismatic leadership of department heads still remained significant, with an exception, even after staff members' personal identification and value internalization with the department heads were controlled (entered) in the regression equation (step 3), indicating that Hypothesis 7b is partially supported. In other words, staff members' personal identification and value internalization with department heads did *not* mediate, or *at best partially* mediated, the relationships between department heads' charismatic leadership and staff members' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance. This finding of no mediation becomes much stronger, considering that these results were found even in single-source data sets, where the relationships between mediators and outcome variables might be inflated due to same-source effects. For example, the only partial mediation of personal identification was found in a single-source data set (see Table 23).

The results for Hypothesis 8a and 8b are presented in Table 25. Partially supporting Hypothesis 8a, results from the second step of regression indicated that department head's contingent reward leadership was significantly related to staff members' job satisfaction, helping

behavior, and performance across single- and multi-source ratings, with an exception that the contingent reward leadership did not significantly relate to staff members' helping behavior rated by managers (β = .09, p > .05). Supporting Hypothesis 8b, results from the third step of regression showed that staff members' instrumental compliance with department heads was not significantly related to their job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance.

In all, distant followers' three bases of commitment to their distant leaders did not mediate, or at best partially mediated, the relationship between charismatic and contingent reward leadership of the leaders and followers' attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcome.

Table 22.
Raw-Score Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Bypass Distant Leadership

Variables [a]	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. DCHS	2.58	0.60										
2. DCRS	2.37	0.75	.70**									
3. SPIWDS	2.34	0.77	.61**	.63**								
4. SVIWDS	2.34	0.69	.61**	.58**	.68**							
5. SICWDS	2.65	0.72	.42**	.53**	.41**	.44**						
6. SSATS	2.65	0.67	.33**	.30**	.31**	.26**	.20**					
7. SHBS	2.96	0.59	.26**	.22**	.25**	.23**	.18**	.30**				
8. SPERS	2.60	0.57	.25**	.23**	.19**	.21**	.15*	.41**	.33**			
9. SSATM	2.76	0.62	.22**	.18**	.14*	.15*	.17*	.30**	.12	.15*		
10. SHBM	2.91	0.63	.17*	.11	.17**	.09	.01	.30**	.21**	.06	.43**	
11. SPERM	2.79	0.60	.21**	.20**	.14**	.13	.09	.19**	.12	.09	.41**	.52**

[a] DCHS & DCRS = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
SPIWDS, SVIWDS, SICWDS = Staff member's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head rated by self.
SSATM, SHBM, SPEFM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
SSATS, SHBS, SPEFS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by self.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 23.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Personal Identification as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes in Bypass-Distant Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: PI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCHS: staff members), (SPIWDS: staff members), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff members)							
DCHS	.78**	.37**	.25**	.24**	.26**	.16*	.21**
SPIWDS					.14*	.11	.04
Multiple Sources: (DCHS: staff members), (SPIWDS: staff members), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: managers)							
DCHS	.78**	.23**	.17*	.21**	.22*	.10	.20*
SPIWDS					.01	.09	.01

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCHS = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by staff member.
SPIWDS = Staff member's personal identification with department head rated by self.
SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager, respectively.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and staff member.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 24.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Value Internalization as the Mediator in the Relationship of Charismatic Leadership with Follower Outcomes in Bypass-Distant Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: VI	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCHS: staff members), (SVIWDS: staff members), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff members)							
DCHS	.70**	.37**	.25**	.24**	.31**	.18*	.20**
SVIWDS					.09	.10	.07
Multiple Sources: (DCHS: staff members), (SVIWDS: staff members), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: managers)							
DCHS	.70**	.23**	.17*	.21**	.21*	.19*	.21*
SVIWDS					.03	–.02	.01

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCHS = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by staff member.
SVIWDS = Staff member's value internalization with department head rated by self.
SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager, respectively.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and staff member.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 25.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Instrumental Compliance as the Mediator in the Relationship of Contingent Reward Leadership with Follower Outcomes in Bypass-Distant Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables						
Independent Variables	Model 1: IC	Model 2a: SAT	Model 2b: HB	Model 2c: PER	Model 3a: SAT	Model 3b: HB	Model 3c: PER
Single Source: (DCRS: staff members), (SICWDS: staff members), (SSATS, SHBS, SPERS: staff members)							
DCRS	.51**	.26**	.17**	.17**	.24**	.13*	.15*
SICWDS					.05	.08	.04
Multiple Sources: (DCRS: staff members), (SICWDS: staff members), (SSATM, SHBM, SPERM: managers)							
DCRS	.51**	.15*	.09	.16**	.10	.13	.17**
SICWDS					.09	–.06	–.02

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCRS = Department head's contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
SICWDS = Staff member's instrumental compliance with department head rated by self.
SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by self, respectively.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance rated by manager, respectively.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and staff member.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Cascading Distant Leadership: H9 ~ H10

Table 26 demonstrates the rating sources for each variable in the hypothesized relationships in the cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Given the presence of unequal numbers of ratings between department head's leaderships toward each manager (n = 77) and manager's leaderships toward each staff member (n = 218), the leadership of managers toward each staff member within their units was aggregated to a manager's leadership score to make the alignment in the number of relationships. To justify the aggregation of a manager's leadership scores within his/her unit, WABA I analyses were conducted and the results provided sufficient evidence for the aggregation. Specifically, for charismatic leadership, the between eta ($^{\eta}$B = .93) was significantly higher than the within eta ($^{\eta}$W = .36) in both a statistical (F-test) and in a practical sense (E-test). Likewise, the between eta ($^{\eta}$B = .93) for contingent reward leadership was statistically and practically greater than the within eta ($^{\eta}$W = .38). Table 27 presents the individual-level, raw-score descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables in cascading distant leadership. Overall, the hypothesized relationships among variables were found at the bottom two lines in the table.

Table 26.
Constructs and Rating Source in Cascading Distant Leadership [a]

	Leadership: Department Head's Leadership	Commitment to Leader	Outcome: Manager's Leadership
	CH, CR [b]	PI, VI, IC [c]	CH, CR [b]
Single Source	Manager	Manager	Manager
Multiple Sources	Manager	Department Head	Manager

[a] Leadership situation between department head and manager
[b] CH = Charismatic leadership; CR = Contingent reward leadership
[c] PI = Personal identification; VI = Value internalization; IC = Instrumental compliance

Tables 28 and 29 present the results for the cascading model of charismatic relationships mediated by personal identification and value internalization. Supporting Hypothesis 9a, the results from the Model 2 (step 2) in hierarchical regressions indicate that there was a significant relationship between department head's charismatic leadership toward managers and managers' charismatic leadership toward staff members (βs = .65, p < .01). However, Hypothesis 9b was partially supported (Model 3), in that manager's personal identification with department head did not mediate the cascading model of charismatic leadership even in a single-source data set; while personal identification partially mediated the cascading model in a multiple-source rating and value internalization mediated the model partially both in single- and multi-source ratings. These results are somewhat unexpected, considering the presence of managers' strong commitment to their leader in close leadership situation. I address these findings in the discussion chapter.

Table 30 presents the results of the mediating effect of instrumental compliance on the cascading model of contingent reward leadership. Although contingent reward leadership of department heads had significant positive relationship with the corresponding leadership of manager, and thus Hypothesis 10a was supported (β = .44, p < .01), managers' instrumental compliance with their leaders did not mediate the relationship between department head's contingent reward leadership toward them and their contingent reward leadership toward staff members, *not* supporting Hypothesis 10b. Given the presence of strong attitude in close leadership situations and although the key notion of the cascading effect was generally confirmed, this finding also is unexpected; further elaborated discussion is warranted below.

Table 27.
Raw-Score Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Cascading Distant Leadership [a]

	Variables [b]	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	DCHM	2.86	0.55									
2.	DCRM	2.63	0.64	.71**								
3.	MPID	2.74	0.56	.34**	.37**							
4.	MVID	2.96	0.53	.36**	.37**	.73**						
5.	MICD	2.70	0.56	.23*	.30**	.57**	.54**					
6.	MPIM	2.92	0.59	.70**	.56**	.36**	.33**	.12				
7.	MVIM	2.92	0.59	.72**	.62**	.42**	.43**	.17	.71**			
8.	MICM	2.72	0.58	.58**	.73**	.42**	.49**	.33**	.44**	.55**		
9.	MCHMagg	2.81	0.58	.62**	.51**	.37**	.43**	.22	.44**	.65**	.44**	
10.	MCRMagg	2.64	0.56	.48**	.50**	.23*	.27*	.14	.27*	.51**	.40**	.73**

[a] *Note* MCHMagg and MCRMagg are transformed score by aggregation.

[b] DCHM & DCRM = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager.
MPID, MVID, MICD = Manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head rated by department head.
MPIM, MVIM, MICM = Manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head rated by self.
MCHMagg = Aggregated manager's charismatic leadership toward each staff member.
MCRMagg = Aggregated manager's contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 28.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Personal Identification as the Mediator in Cascading Distant Charismatic Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables		
Independent Variables	Model 1: PI	Model 2: CH	Model 3: CH
Single Source: (DCHM: managers), (MPIM: managers), (MCHMagg: managers)			
DCHM	.76**	.65**	.64**
MPIM			.01
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: managers), (MPID: department heads), (MCHMagg: managers)			
DCHM	.35**	.65**	.59**
MPID			.20*

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients
DCHM = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by manager.
MPIM = Manager's personal identification with department head rated by self.
MPID = Manager's personal identification with department head rated by department head.
MCHMagg = Aggregated manager's charismatic leadership toward each staff member.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 29.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Value Internalization as the Mediator in Cascading Distant Charismatic Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables		
Independent Variables	Model 1: VI	Model 2: CH	Model 3: CH
Single Source: (DCHM: managers), (MVIM: managers), (MCHMagg: managers)			
DCHM	.78**	.65**	.33*
MVIM			.41**
Multiple Sources: (DCHM: managers), (MVID: department heads), (MCHMagg: managers)			
DCHM	.35**	.65**	.56**
MVID			.26*

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients
DCHM = Department head's charismatic leadership rated by manager.
MVIM = Manager's value internalization with department head rated by self.
MVID = Manager's value internalization with department head rated by department head.
MCHMagg = Aggregated manager's charismatic leadership toward each staff member.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 30.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Instrumental Compliance as the Mediator in Cascading Distant Contingent Reward Leadership [a]

	Dependent Variables		
Independent Variables	Model 1: IC	Model 2: CR	Model 3: CR
Single Source: (DCRM: managers), (MICM: managers), (MCRMagg: managers)			
DCRM	.67**	.44**	.39**
MICM			.07
Multiple Sources: (DCRM: managers), (MICD: department heads), (MCRMagg: managers)			
DCRM	.26**	.44**	.44**
MICD			-.01

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients
DCRM = Department head's contingent reward leadership rated by manager.
MICM = Manager's instrumental compliance with department head rated by self.
MICD = Manager's instrumental compliance with department head rated by department head.
MCRMagg = Aggregated manager's contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.
[a] Distant leadership situation between department head and manager.
$n = 77$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Alternative to Distant Leadership

Combining the bypass distant leadership model with the cascading model produces a mediated leadership framework where the leadership of the distant leader is directly (bypass) and indirectly through the intermediate leader (cascading) related to distant followers' performance. As an alternative to this mediated leadership process, interaction effects of leadership between department heads and managers on staff members were examined.

To test the interaction effects, a series of moderated hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted using department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership reported by staff members and corresponding manager's leadership rated by staff members as well. But manager-reported staff members' outcomes were used to mitigate the potential of common-

source bias. Total four types of interaction terms were created by two types of leadership behaviors and two levels of management involved. Employing the procedure of moderated multiple regression analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983), department head's leadership was first entered into the regression equation (step 1); then manager's leadership was entered second (step 2); lastly, a cross-product interaction term was added (step 3) to assess the unique variance contributed by the interaction term.

Table 31 presents individual-level, raw-score variable means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables included in the examination. Table 32 suggests that there was no empirical support for any of cross-product interaction terms. That is, none of the multiple *R*-squared results were significantly incremented by adding the four interaction terms; these results further strengthen the existing distant leadership models–bypass and cascading.

This finding was in some degree expected, because of the presence of cascading model where department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership were significantly related to the corresponding leadership of managers. However, it is worthy to note that the interaction terms produced by different leadership from two leaders (e.g., department head's charismatic × manager's contingent reward) also did not yield any interaction effects.

Table 31.
Raw-Score Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Alternative to Distant Leadership

Variables [a]	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. DCHS	2.58	0.60						
2. DCRS	2.37	0.75	.70**					
3. MCHS	2.67	0.60	.48**	.39**				
4. MCRS	2.50	0.73	.39**	.43**	.61**			
5. SSATM	2.76	0.62	.22**	.18**	.18**	.17*		
6. SHBM	2.91	0.63	.17*	.11	.22**	.29**	.43**	
7. SPERM	2.79	0.60	.21**	.20**	.23**	.24**	.41**	.52**

[a] DCHS & DCRS = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
MCHS & MCRS = Manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
SSATM, SHBM, SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 32.
Raw-Score Regression Results for Alternative to Distant Leadership

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables								
	SSATM			SHBM			SPERM		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step1	Step2	Step3
I. Department Head's Charismatic × Manager's Charismatic									
1. DCHS	.23**	.18*	.17	.17*	.08	.40	.21**	.13	.46
2. MCHS		.10	.08		.19*	.48		.17*	.46
3. DCHS × MCHS			.01			-.11			-.12
Δ R^2	.05**	.01	.00	.03*	.02*	.01	.04**	.02*	.01
Total R^2	.05**	.06**	.06**	.03*	.05**	.06**	.04**	.06**	.07**
II. Department Head's Contingent Reward × Manager's Contingent Reward									
1. DCRS	.15*	.11	.03	.09	-.01	.14	.16**	.10	.21
2. MCRS		.10	.02		.26**	.39*		.16**	.26
3. DCRS × MCRS			.03			-.06			-.04
Δ R^2	.03*	.01	.00	.01	.08**	.00	.04**	.03**	.00
Total R^2	.03*	.04*	.04*	.01	.09**	.09**	.04**	.07**	.07**
III. Department Head's Charismatic × Manager's Contingent Reward									
1. DCHS	.23**	.19*	.26	.17*	.06	.29	.21**	.14	.20
2. MCRS		.08	.14		.23**	.45		.16**	.22
3. DCHS × MCRS			-.03			-.09			-.02
Δ R^2	.05**	.01	.00	.03*	.06**	.00	.04**	.04**	.00
Total R^2	.05**	.06**	.06**	.03*	.09**	.09**	.04**	.08**	.08**
IV. Department Head's Contingent Reward × Manager's Charismatic									
1. DCRS	.15*	.10	-.01	.09	.03	.25	.16**	.11	.52*
2. MCHS		.13	.04		.22**	.41		.17*	.53*
3. DCRS × MCHS			.04			-.08			-.15
Δ R^2	.03*	.01	.00	.01	.04**	.00	.04**	.03*	.01
Total R^2	.03*	.04**	.04*	.01	.05**	.05*	.04**	.07**	.08**

Note. Results are unstandardized regression coefficients.
DCHS & DCRS = Department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
MCHS & MCRS = Manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member.
SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = Staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager, respectively.
$n = 218$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Multivariate WABA Results

The results of multivariate WABA are presented in order for the four research models. Specifically, Tables 33a through 33e and Tables 34a through 34e present the results for close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper (department head-manager: H 13 & H 14) and lower (manager-staff member: H17 & H18) levels, respectively, that were tested at dyad and group levels of analysis across single and multiple rating sources. The results for bypass-distant leadership (department head-staff member: H 11 & H 15) at the department level of analysis across single and multiple rating sources are shown in Tables 35a and 35b. Lastly, Tables 36a through 36c present the results for the cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership (department head-manager: H 12 & H 16) at dyad and group levels of analysis with single and multiple rating sources. Specific hypotheses for the multiple levels of analysis are presented in Table 5.

Each table includes all results from the three steps of WABA: between- and within-eta correlations (WABA I), between- and within-entities correlations and their practical and statistical differences (WABA II), and overall inference drawing using between and within components combining the results of WABA I and WABA II. The decision rules that were employed for the overall assessments are outlined in numerous publications by Dansereau and colleagues (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1984: chapter 7; Yammarino, Dansereau, Schriesheim, Castro, Cogliser, De Church, & Zhou, 2000; Yammarino, et al., 1997).

Close charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Hypotheses 13 and 14 proposed that close charismatic leadership phenomena are based on a group parts view at both upper and lower levels. Overall, the Hypotheses 13 and 14 were *not* fully supported. Although there were many statistically and practically significant values, the lack of significant differences between

the magnitude of the between and within dimensions for WABA I and WABA II yielded many equivocal or whole effects at the group level of analysis.

Instead, the results from the dyad level of analysis of multivariate WABA in conjunction with the equivocal effects at the group level of analysis revealed that close charismatic leadership at upper levels appear to be a leadership phenomenon based on the dyad level of analysis (level-specific whole dyads), where a charismatic department head forms a unique one-to-one relationship with a manager regardless of group membership. The effects of level-specific whole dyads were found in the relationships between a department head's charismatic leadership and managers' job satisfaction and helping behavior, and the effects were fully demonstrated across single- and multiple-source ratings (see Tables 33a through 33e).

Interestingly, the leadership phenomenon in the relations between a department head's charismatic leadership and the manager's performance was found at both dyad and group levels of analysis, indicating that the leadership phenomena at the dyad level were replicated at the group level as well (cross-level effect). Specifically, wholes at dyad level of analysis (between-dyads effects) were followed by parts at group level of analysis (within-group effects) in the current study (cross-level parts), and the evidence of the effect of cross-level parts appeared strong, in that the effect was found even for multiple-rating sources. For example, department head's charismatic one-to-one relationships with a manager regardless of group membership developed into charismatic one-to-one dyadic relationships within the group. This is a very interesting and valuable finding by which we may be able to reconcile or integrate the individualized leadership approach building on dyadic view of leadership (Dansereau et al., 1995) with the charismatic leadership theories emphasizing a collective orientation (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003). This issue will be further elaborated in the discussion chapter below.

Contrary to close charismatic leadership at the upper level, there were no cross-level effects found in close charismatic leadership at the lower level (see Tables 34a through 34e). Instead, the leadership phenomena for the relationships between manager's charismatic leadership and staff members' job satisfaction held only at the whole group level of analysis (emergent wholes), and the relationships between the charismatic leadership and staff members' helping behavior were found only at the dyad level of analysis (level-specific whole dyads). In addition, the leadership-performance relations were based on individual differences.

For close contingent reward leadership, Hypotheses 17 and 18 proposed that contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels would be based on whole dyads and dyad parts views, respectively. Partially supporting Hypothesis 17, the results of multivariate WABA (Tables 33a through 33e) indicate that the relationships between department head's contingent reward leadership and managers' helping behavior and performance were based on the whole dyad level of analysis, but the relationship of contingent reward leadership with job satisfaction held at individual level of analysis. Because these results were drawn from both dyad and group levels of analysis with single and multiple-source ratings, cross-level effects were not found here.

Although the Hypothesis 18 was *not* supported, an interesting cross-level effect was found (Tables 34a through 34e). Specifically, the relationships of a manager's contingent reward leadership with all three outcome variables for staff members held at the whole dyad levels of analysis rather than at the dyad parts level; furthermore, the whole dyad effects were followed by whole effects at the group level of analysis for the relationships between contingent reward leadership and job satisfaction and helping behavior when all relevant variables were reported by a single source–i.e., manager. Despite the presence of cross-level whole group effects, these findings should be interpreted with caution, because the leadership phenomenon based on whole

group effects may primarily represent a leader's perspective (manager here) of his/her leadership practice and effectiveness. The leaders might believe that they demonstrated similar contingent reward behavior toward all staff members, so that the followers might feel, behave, and perform in the same manner as the leadership practice displayed.

In all, the various level effects in close charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena seem to differ by levels of management and for different variables of interest involved in the leadership phenomena. Further elaboration about various level-relevant issues will be addressed in the following chapter.

Table 33a.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Upper Level: Dyad Level of Analysis [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
IC and	.81†*	.58							
CR	.78*	.62	.80†*	.64†*	.22	2.01*	.51†	.23	Neither
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CR	.78*	.62	.41†*	.26*	.16	1.02	.27	.08	Neither
CR + IC	.82†*	.58	.43†*	.36†*	.07	.46	.30	.11	Neither
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CR	.78*	.62	.64†*	.20	.49†	3.40*	.43†	.06	**Between**
CR + IC	.81†*	.58	.66†*	.28†*	.44†	3.07*	.46†	.09	**Between(w)**
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CR	.78*	.62	.58†*	.17	.45†	3.01*	.36†	.06	**Between**
CR + IC	.81†*	.58	.59†*	.22	.41†	2.79*	.39†	.08	**Between**
Charismatic									
PI and	.82†*	.58							
CH	.79*	.61	.64†*	.46†*	.22	1.59	.41	.16	Neither
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CH	.79*	.61	.52†*	.27†*	.28†	1.88*	.35†	.09	**Between(w)**
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.63†*	.39†*	.27†	1.95*	.44†	.12	**Between(w)**
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.37†*	.30†	2.13*	.42†	.12	**Between(w)**
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.82†*	.56†*	.38†	3.30*	.58†	.17	Neither
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CH	.79*	.61	.49†*	.21	.31†	2.03*	.31	.08	**Between(w)**
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.70†*	.44†*	.33†	2.45*	.46†	.15	Neither
VI and	.84†*	.54							
CH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.44†*	.23	1.69*	.42†	.14	Neither
SAT and	.85†*	.53							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.68†*	.36†*	.38†	2.75*	.49†	.10	**Between(w)**
HB and	.85†*	.52							
CH + VI	.85†*	.53	.85†*	.53†*	.46†	4.07*	.61†	.15	Neither
PER and	.80†*	.60							
CH + VI	.85†*	.53	.74†*	.33†*	.49†	3.66*	.50†	.11	**Between(w)**

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., CR + IC) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.

[a] Relationship between department head and manager at dyad level of analysis ($N = 154$, $J = 77$).

[b] CH = charismatic leadership; CR = contingent reward leadership; PI = personal identification; VI = value internalization; IC = instrumental compliance; SAT = job satisfaction; HB = helping behavior; PER = performance.

[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.

[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-dyad correlation.

[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 33b.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Upper Level: Group Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Department Head – Department Head – Department Head) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICD and	.79*	.61							
DCRD	.86†*	.52	.75†*	.79†*	-.06	-.39	.51†	.25	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCRD	.86†*	.52	.16	.37†*	-.22	-.92	.10	.13	Neither
DCRD + MICD	.80†*	.60	.19	.41†*	-.24	-.99	.11	.17	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCRD	.86†*	.52	.32†	.56†*	-.27†	-1.23	.19	.21	Neither
DCRD + MICD	.79†*	.61	.43†	.59†*	-.18	-.83	.24	.26	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCRD	.86†*	.52	.48†*	.40†*	.09	.42	.26	.16	Neither
DCRD + MICD	.81†*	.59	.58†*	.39†*	.21	.96	.29	.18	Neither
Charismatic									
MPID and	.68	.73							
DCHD	.81†*	.59	.34†	.68†*	-.39†	-1.86*	.19	.29	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHD	.81†*	.59	.19	.56†*	-.40†	-1.77*	.11	.23	Neither
DCHD + MPID	.68	.73	.52†*	.70†*	-.24	-1.19	.26	.35	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHD	.81†*	.59	.26†	.56†*	-.33†	-1.48	.15	.24	Neither
DCHD + MPID	.68	.73	.75†*	.80†*	-.08	-.50	.36	.42	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCHD	.81†*	.59	.19	.46†*	-.28†	-1.21	.10	.21	Neither
DCHD + MPID	.69	.73	.74†*	.69†*	.07	.39	.32	.39	Neither
MVID and	.65	.76							
DCHD	.81†*	.59	.22	.59†*	-.40†	-1.78*	.12	.26	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHD + MVID	.64	.77	.50†*	.73†*	-.29†	-1.47	.24	.38	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHD + MVID	.64	.77	.73†*	.78†*	-.08	-.46	.33	.43	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCHD + MVID	.64	.77	.69†*	.67†*	.04	.19	.28	.40	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRD + MICD) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department head and manager at group level of analysis, based on ratings of department head ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHD & DCRD = department head's self-rating about charismatic & contingent reward leadership; MPID, MVID, & MICD = manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by department head; MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by department head.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

Table 33c.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Upper Level: Group Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Manager – Manager – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICM and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.75†*	.72†*	.05	.30	.33	.39	Neither
MSATM and	.71*	.71							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.46†*	.41†*	.04	.21	.23	.21	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.66	.76	.58†*	.44†*	.16	.73	.27	.24	Neither
MHBM and	.59	.81†							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.54†*	.63†*	-.11	-.54	.22	.36	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.68	.73	.62†*	.61†*	.00	.01	.25	.36	Neither
MPERM and	.63	.77							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.34†	.54†*	-.22	-.99	.15	.29	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.68	.73	.38†	.53†*	-.17	-.74	.17	.30	Neither
Charismatic									
MPIM and	.66	.75							
DCHM	.62	.79	.73†*	.69†*	.06	.36	.30	.40	Neither
MSATM and	.71*	.71							
DCHM	.62	.79	.66†*	.38†*	.32†	1.53	.29	.21	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.65	.76	.64†*	.48†*	.19	.91	.29	.26	Neither
MHBM and	.59	.81†							
DCHM	.62	.79	.58†*	.79†*	-.30†	-1.66*	.21	.50†	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.64	.77	.66†*	.81†*	-.22	-1.28	.25	.50†	Neither
MPERM and	.63	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.41†*	.56†*	-.18	-.81	.16	.34	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.64	.76	.49†*	.58†*	-.11	-.50	.20	.34	Neither
MVIM and	.54	.84†							
DCHM	.62	.79	.68†*	.75†*	-.10	-.57	.23	.49†	Neither
MSATM and	.71*	.71							
DCHM + MVIM	.56	.83†	.67†*	.53†*	.18	.87	.27	.31	Neither
MHBM and	.59	.81†							
DCHM + MVIM	.56	.83†	.64†*	.89†*	-.41†	-2.64*	.21	.60†	Neither
MPERM and	.63	.77							
DCHM + MVIM	.56	.83†	.44†	.66†*	-.27†	-1.27	.16	.42†	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRM + MICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department head and manager at group level of analysis, based on ratings of manager ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHM & DCRM = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIM, MVIM, & MICM = manager's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance; MSATM, MHBM, & MPERM = manager's self-ratings about job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

Table 33d.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Upper Level: Group Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Manager – Manager – Department Head) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICM and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.75†*	.72†*	.05	.30	.33	.39	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.41†*	.44†*	-.03	-.14	.21	.21	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.68	.73	.42†	.47†*	-.05	-.23	.21	.24	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.55†*	.51†*	.04	.17	.27	.26	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.68	.73	.55†*	.56†*	-.01	-.05	.26	.29	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.33†	.51†*	-.21	-.91	.15	.28	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.68	.73	.35†	.52†*	-.18	-.80	.15	.29	Neither
Charismatic									
MPIM and	.66	.75							
DCHM	.62	.79	.73†*	.69†*	.06	.36	.30	.40	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM	.62	.79	.24	.43†*	-.20	-.85	.11	.23	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.65	.76	.25	.49†*	-.26†	-1.12	.12	.26	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHM	.62	.79	.27†	.56†*	-.32†	-1.43	.12	.32	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.65	.76	.30†	.64†*	-.38†	-1.74*	.14	.35	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.02	.59†*	-.61†	-2.60*	.01	.36†	**Within(w)**
DCHM + MPIM	.65	.76	.07	.68†*	-.69†	-3.02*	.03	.40†	**Within(w)**
MVIM and	.54	.84†							
DCHM	.62	.79	.68†*	.75†*	-.10	-.57	.23	.49†	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM + MVIM	.54	.84†	.39†	.54†*	-.17	-.77	.15	.31	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCHM + MVIM	.57	.82†	.32†	.61†*	-.32†	-1.44	.13	.36	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.77							
DCHM + MVIM	.54	.84†	.29†*	.66†*	-.42†	-1.92*	.10	.43†	**Within(w)**

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRM + MICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department head and manager at group level of analysis, based on cross-ratings ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHM & DCRM = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIM, MVIM, & MICM = manager's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance; MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by department head.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 33e.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Upper Level: Group Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Manager – Department Head – Department Head) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICD and	.79*	.61							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.22	.40†*	-.19	-.81	.12	.17	Neither
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.41†*	.44†*	-.03	-.14	.21	.21	Neither
DCRM + MICD	.71*	.71*	.42†	.50†*	-.09	-.39	.22	.24	Neither
MHBD and	.70	.72							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.55†*	.51†*	.04	.17	.27	.26	Neither
DCRM + MICD	.72*	.69	.63†*	.65†*	-.02	-.12	.32	.32	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.33†	.51†*	-.21	-.91	.15	.28	Neither
DCRM + MICD	.73*	.68	.60†*	.52†*	.09	.41	.27	.28	Neither
Charismatic									
MPID and	.68	.73							
DCHM	.62	.79	.07	.54†*	-.50†	-2.14*	.03	.31†	**Within(w)**
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM	.62	.79	.24	.43†*	-.20	-.85	.11	.23	Neither
DCHM + MPID	.64	.77	.55†*	.69†*	-.18	-.92	.26	.37	Neither
MHBD and	.63	.78							
DCHM	.62	.79	.27†	.56†*	-.32†	-1.43	.12	.32	Neither
DCHM + MPID	.64	.77	.78†*	.82†*	-.06	-.37	.35	.45	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCHM	.62	.79	.02	.59†*	-.61†	-2.60*	.01	.36†	**Within(w)**
DCHM + MPID	.64	.76	.72†*	.72†*	-.01	-.05	.29	.43	Neither
MVID and	.65	.76							
DCHM	.62	.79	.13	.52†*	-.41†	-.174*	.05	.31†	**Within(w)**
MSATD and	.73*	.69							
DCHM + MVID	.61	.79	.53†*	.71†*	-.24	-1.22	.24	.39	Neither
MHBD and	.63	.78							
DCHM + MVID	.61	.79	.75†*	.80†*	-.08	-.47	.32	.45	Neither
MPERD and	.63	.78							
DCHM + MVID	.61	.79	.66†*	.70†*	-.05	-.29	.26	.43	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRM + MICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department head and manager at group level of analysis, based on cross-ratings ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHM & DCRM = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPID, MVID, & MICD = manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by department head; MSATD, MHBD, & MPERD = manager's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by department head.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 34a.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Lower Level: Dyad Level of Analysis [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
IC and	.72	.69							
CR	.78*	.63	.53†*	.22*	.34†	3.82*	.30	.09	**Between(w)**
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CR	.78*	.63	.49†*	.28†*	.23	2.62*	.31	.10	Neither
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.54†*	.23*	.33†	3.74*	.34†	.08	**Between**
HB and	.78*	.63							
CR	.78*	.63	.53†*	.16*	.40†	4.45*	.32†	.06	**Between**
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.55†*	.21*	.37†	4.21*	.34†	.08	**Between**
PER and	.73	.68							
CR	.78*	.63	.44†*	.19*	.26†	2.88*	.25	.08	**Between(w)**
CR + IC	.79*	.61	.46†*	.19*	.29†	3.18*	.26	.08	**Between(w)**
Charismatic									
PI and	.81†*	.59							
CH	.82†*	.57	.60†*	.38†*	.26	3.11*	.40†	.13	Neither
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CH	.82†*	.57	.45†*	.33†*	.14	1.53	.30	.11	Neither
CH + PI	.83†*	.56	.54†*	.40†*	.15	1.79*	.36	.13	Neither
HB and	.78*	.63							
CH	.82†*	.57	.47†*	.13*	.36†	3.91*	.30	.05	**Between**
CH + PI	.82†*	.57	.61†*	.33†*	.32†	3.85*	.39†	.12	**Between(w)**
PER and	.73	.68							
CH	.82†*	.57	.42†*	.26†*	.17	1.90*	.25	.10	Neither
CH + PI	.83†*	.55	.51†*	.31†*	.22	2.53*	.31	.12	Neither
VI and	.81†*	.58							
CH	.82†*	.57	.68†*	.41†*	.32†	4.08*	.46†	.14	Neither
SAT and	.80†*	.59							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.54†*	.35†*	.21	2.49*	.36	.11	Neither
HB and	.78*	.63							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.58†*	.33†*	.29†	3.39*	.37	.12	**Between(w)**
PER and	.73	.68							
CH + VI	.84†*	.54	.47†*	.35†*	.13	1.49	.29	.13	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., CR + IC) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.

[a] Relationship between managers and staff members at dyad level of analysis ($N = 436$, $J = 218$).

[b] CH = charismatic leadership; CR = contingent reward leadership; PI = personal identification; VI = value internalization; IC = instrumental compliance; SAT = job satisfaction; HB = helping behavior; PER = performance.

[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.

[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-dyad correlation.

[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 34b.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Lower Level: Group Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Manager – Manager – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICM and	.86†*	.52							
MCRM	.93†*	.38	.50†*	.22*	.30†	2.26*	.40†	.04	**Between**
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCRM	.93†*	.38	.56†*	.08	.51†	3.81*	.43†	.02	**Between**
MCRM + SICM	.92†*	.38	.56†*	.13	.47†	3.49*	.43†	.03	**Between**
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCRM	.93†*	.38	.52†*	.19*	.36†	2.66*	.35†	.05	**Between**
MCRM + SICM	.92†*	.38	.54†*	.19	.38†	2.87*	.37†	.05	**Between**
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCRM	.93†*	.38	.43†*	.24*	.21	1.51	.32†	.05	Neither
MCRM + SICM	.93†*	.38	.43†*	.25*	.19	1.43	.33†	.05	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIM and	.87†*	.49							
MCHM	.93†*	.36	.58†*	.45†*	.16	1.30	.48†	.08	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHM	.93†*	.36	.49†*	.10	.41†	2.99*	.38†	.02	**Between**
MCHM + SPIM	.90†*	.44	.59†*	.27†*	.36†	2.79*	.44†	.07	**Between(w)**
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHM	.93†*	.36	.48†*	.27†*	.23	1.72*	.32	.07	Neither
MCHM + SPIM	.89†*	.46	.63†*	.44†*	.23	1.86*	.41†	.14	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHM	.93†*	.36	.34†*	.27†*	.07	.54	.26	.06	Neither
MCHM + SPIM	.88†*	.47	.55†*	.36†*	.21	1.60	.39†	.10	Neither
SVIM and	.85†*	.53							
MCHM	.93†*	.36	.69†*	.40†*	.35†	2.96*	.55†	.08	**Between(w)**
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHM + SVIM	.89†*	.45	.56†*	.22*	.38†	2.87*	.42†	.05	**Between**
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHM + SVIM	.88†*	.48	.58†*	.43†*	.18	1.41	.37	.14	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHM + SVIM	.87†*	.49	.46†*	.38†*	.09	.67	.32	.11	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., MCRM + SICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between managers and staff members at group level of analysis, based on ratings of managers.
[b] MCHM & MCRM = manager's self-rating about charismatic & contingent reward leadership; SPIM, SVIM, & SICM = staff member's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by manager; SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 34c.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Lower Level: Group Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Staff – Staff – Staff) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICS and	.63	.78							
MCRS	.70	.71	.44†*	.35†*	.10	.77	.20	.19	Neither
SSATS and	.65	.76							
MCRS	.70	.71	.47†*	.30†*	.18	1.36	.21	.16	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.69	.72	.46†*	.34†*	.13	.97	.21	.19	Neither
SHBS and	.67	.74							
MCRS	.70	.71	.32†*	.45†*	-.14	-1.08	.15	.24	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.69	.72	.40†*	.45†*	-.06	-.43	.18	.24	Neither
SPERS and	.68	.74							
MCRS	.70	.71	.28†*	.28†*	-.00	-.00	.13	.15	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.69	.72	.31†*	.31†*	.00	.00	.14	.17	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIS and	.73*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.63†*	.45†*	.22	1.82*	.33	.21	Neither
SSATS and	.65	.76							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.50†*	.35†*	.17	1.31	.24	.18	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.75*	.67	.55†*	.44†*	.13	1.03	.27	.23	Neither
SHBS and	.67	.74							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.33†*	.31†*	.02	.16	.16	.16	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.75*	.67	.51†*	.41†*	.11	.85	.25	.21	Neither
SPERS and	.68	.74							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.37†*	.38†*	-.01	-.07	.18	.19	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.74*	.67	.41†*	.39†*	.03	.23	.21	.19	Neither
SVIS and	.70	.72							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.67†*	.47†*	.25	2.11*	.34	.23	Neither
SSATS and	.65	.76							
MCHS + SVIS	.73*	.68	.60†*	.38†*	.24	1.94*	.28	.20	Neither
SHBS and	.67	.74							
MCHS + SVIS	.71*	.70	.46†*	.47†*	-.00	-.03	.22	.24	Neither
SPERS and	.68	.74							
MCHS + SVIS	.73*	.68	.45†*	.40†*	.06	.47	.22	.20	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., MCRS + SICS) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.

[a] Relationship between managers and staff members at group level of analysis, based on ratings of staff members.

[b] MCHS & MCRS = manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIS, SVIS, & SICS = staff member's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance; SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = staff member's self-ratings about job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance.

[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.

[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.

[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 34d.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Lower Level: Group Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Staff – Staff – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICS and	.63	.78							
MCRS	.70	.71	.44†*	.35†*	.10	.77	.20	.19	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCRS	.70	.71	.25*	.05	.21	1.48	.15	.02	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.66	.75	.29†*	.18	.11	.76	.16	.08	Neither
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCRS	.70	.71	.50†*	.08	.45†	3.27*	.25	.04	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.70	.71	.50†*	.08	.44†	3.21*	.25	.04	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCRS	.70	.71	.39†*	.05	.35†	2.48*	.22	.02	Neither
MCRS + SICS	.70	.71	.39†*	.05	.35†	2.46*	.22	.02	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIS and	.73*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.63†*	.45†*	.22	1.82*	.33	.21	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.30†*	-.01	.30†	2.09*	.18	-.00	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.74*	.67	.29†*	.13	.16	1.15	.18	.05	Neither
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.36†*	.06	.31†	2.24*	.19	.03	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.74*	.68	.47†*	.17	.32†	2.34*	.25	.08	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.34†*	.06	.29†	2.05*	.20	.02	Neither
MCHS + SPIS	.74	.67	.40†*	.09	.32†	2.28*	.24	.03	Neither
SVIS and	.70	.72							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.67†*	.47†*	.25	2.11*	.34	.23	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS + SVIS	.72*	.69	.32†*	.11	.21	1.46	.19	.04	Neither
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS + SVIS	.71*	.70	.41†*	.20	.22	1.61	.21	.09	Neither
SPERM and	.82†**	.57							
MCHS + SVIS	.73*	.68	.37†*	.11	.26†	1.86*	.22	.04	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., MCRS + SICS) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between managers and staff members at group level of analysis, based on cross-ratings.
[b] MCHS & MCRS = manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIS, SVIS, & SICS = staff member's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance; SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Table 34e.
Multivariate WABA Results for Close Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership at Lower Level: Group Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Staff – Manager – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICM and	.86†*	.52							
MCRS	.70	.71	.31†*	.05	.27†	1.89*	.19	.02	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCRS	.70	.71	.25*	.05	.21	1.48	.15	.02	Neither
MCRS + SICM	.85†*	.52	.40†*	.17	.24	1.74*	.28	.05	Neither
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCRS	.70	.71	.50†*	.08	.45†	3.27*	.25	.04	Neither
MCRS + SICM	.81†*	.59	.55†*	.11	.48†	3.53*	.32	.04	**Between**
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCRS	.70	.71	.39†*	.05	.35†	2.48*	.22	.02	Neither
MCRS + SICM	.80†*	.59	.40†*	.11	.30†	2.12*	.26	.04	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIM and	.87†*	.49							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.39†*	.12	.28†	2.00*	.25	.04	Neither
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.30†*	-.01	.30†	2.09*	.18	-.00	Neither
MCHS + SPIM	.87†*	.49	.56†*	.28†*	.32†	2.42*	.41†	.08	**Between(w)**
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.36†*	.06	.31†	2.24*	.19	.03	Neither
MCHS + SPIM	.87†*	.49	.63†*	.43†*	.23	1.90*	.40†	.14	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.34†*	.06	.29†	2.05*	.20	.02	Neither
MCHS + SPIM	.87†*	.49	.56†*	.35†*	.24	1.89*	.40†	.10	Neither
SVIM and	.85†*	.53							
MCHS	.72*	.69	.53†*	.20	.36†	2.68*	.33†	.07	**Between**
SSATM and	.83†*	.56							
MCHS + SVIM	.85†*	.53	.54†*	.22	.35†	2.61*	.38†	.07	**Between**
SHBM and	.72*	.69							
MCHS + SVIM	.85†*	.53	.57†*	.42†*	.18	1.43	.35	.15	Neither
SPERM and	.82†*	.57							
MCHS + SVIM	.85†*	.52	.47†*	.35†*	.13	.94	.33	.11	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., MCRS + SICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between manager and staff member at group level of analysis, based on cross-ratings.
[b] MCHS & MCRS = manager's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIM, SVIM, & SICM = staff member's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by manager; SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-dyad component differences are indicated.

Bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Hypotheses 11 and 15 suggested that the bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena would be viewed as whole departments and department parts, respectively; assuming that the level effects would be tested only at department levels, because distant leaders and followers, department heads and staff members, would not have frequent enough interaction to form one-to-one dyadic relationships.

Not supporting Hypotheses 11 and 15, the results for department level of analysis with single- and multiple-rating sources indicated that bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership held at individual level of analysis (equivocal results at department level of analysis), and this was the case for all variables and substantive relationships among the variables (Tables 35a and 35b).

However, it is worthwhile to note that the within-eta correlations for charismatic and contingent reward leadership assessed by staff members were significantly greater in a practical sense than the between-eta correlations for the variables (WABA I results), implying that the leadership perceptions of staff members might be the department-level phenomena as proposed in the current study. Therefore, it seems essential to discuss why department-level leadership perceptions did not co-vary with staff members' outcomes, yielding the lack of significant differences between the magnitudes of the between- and within-entities correlations (WABA II) and thereby culminating in the equivocal effects. This will be addressed in the discussion section.

Table 35a.
Multivariate WABA Results for Bypass-Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: Department Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Staff – Staff – Staff) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICWDS and	.45	.89†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.69†*	.49†*	.25	1.44	.16	.38	Neither
SSATS and	.48	.88†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.39†*	.27†*	.13	.65	.10	.20	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.51	.86†	.39†	.27†*	.12	.58	.10	.21	Neither
SHBS and	.52	.85†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.20	.22*	-.02	-.08	.05	.16	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.51	.86†	.22	.23*	-.01	-.07	.06	.17	Neither
SPERS and	.41	.91†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.36†	.19*	.18	.85	.08	.15	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.51	.86†	.38†	.19*	.19	.90	.08	.15	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIWDS and	.60	.80†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.72†*	.53†*	.25	1.49	.29	.32	Neither
SSATS and	.48	.88†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.49†*	.31†*	.21	1.02	.16	.20	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.66	.75	.49†*	.31†*	.21	1.02	.16	.20	Neither
SHBS and	.52	.85†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.30†	.24*	.06	.30	.10	.15	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.66	.76	.33†	.26†*	.07	.33	.11	.17	Neither
SPERS and	.41	.91†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.44†*	.20*	.26†	1.28	.12	.13	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.67	.75	.44†	.20*	.25	1.18	.12	.14	Neither
SVIWDS and	.53	.85†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.83†*	.50†*	.46†	2.98*	.29	.32	Neither
SSATS and	.48	.88†							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.66	.75	.53†*	.27†*	.28†	1.40	.17	.18	Neither
SHBS and	.52	.85†							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.65	.76	.29†	.27†*	.02	.10	.10	.17	Neither
SPERS and	.41	.91†							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.66	.75	.41†	.22*	.20	.96	.11	.15	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRS + SICWDS) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department heads and staff members at department level of analysis, based on ratings of staff members ($N = 218$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHS & DCRS = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIWDS, SVIWDS, & SICWDS = staff member's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head; SSATS, SHBS, & SPERS = staff member's self-ratings about job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-department correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-collective component differences are indicated.

Table 35b.
Multivariate WABA Results for Bypass-Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: Department Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Staff – Staff – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
SICWDS and	.45	.89†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.69†*	.49†*	.25	1.44	.16	.38	Neither
SSATM and	.66	.75							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.40†*	.06	.35†	1.67*	.13	.04	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.50	.86†	.43†	.08	.37†	1.73*	.14	.05	Neither
SHBM and	.57	.82†							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.39†*	.00	.40†	1.88*	.11	.00	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.46	.89†	.35†	.05	.31†	1.45	.09	.03	Neither
SPERM and	.62	.78							
DCRS	.51	.86†	.56†*	.04	.56†	2.75*	.18	.03	Neither
DCRS+SICWDS	.50	.86†	.57†*	.04	.57†	2.75*	.18	.03	Neither
Charismatic									
SPIWDS and	.60	.80†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.72†*	.53†*	.25	1.49	.29	.32	Neither
SSATM and	.66	.75							
DCHS	.66	.75	.46†*	.04	.44†	2.11*	.20	.02	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.66	.75	.45†	.04	.43†	2.03*	.20	.02	Neither
SHBM and	.57	.82†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.33†	.07	.26†	1.24	.12	.04	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.65	.76	.39†	.08	.32†	1.50	.14	.05	Neither
SPERM and	.62	.78							
DCHS	.66	.75	.38†	.09	.29†	1.40	.16	.05	Neither
DCHS+SPIWDS	.66	.75	.38†	.09	.30†	1.41	.16	.05	Neither
SVIWDS and	.53	.85†							
DCHS	.66	.75	.83†*	.50†*	.46†	2.98*	.29	.32	Neither
SSATM and	.66	.75							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.67	.75	.44†	.05	.42†	1.97*	.20	.03	Neither
SHBM and	.57	.82†							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.65	.76	.33†	.07	.26	1.20	.12	.05	Neither
SPERM and	.62	.78							
DCHS+SVIWDS	.66	.75	.37†	.09	.29†	1.34	.15	.06	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRS + SICWDS) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department heads and staff members at department level of analysis, based on cross-ratings.
[b] DCHS & DCRS = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by staff member; SPIWDS, SVIWDS, & SICWDS = staff member's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head; SSATM, SHBM, & SPERM = staff member's job satisfaction, helping behavior, & performance rated by manager.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-department correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-collective component differences are indicated.

Cascading distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Hypotheses 12 and 16 proposed that positive relationships between department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership and manager's corresponding leadership would hold at the within-groups (group parts) and between-dyads (whole dyads) levels of analysis, respectively. To test the level effects, matched reports from the department head and managers for all focal variables should be obtained. Since the managers' charismatic and contingent reward leadership were not rated by their corresponding department heads, the managers' performance rated by the department heads were used as a substitute for managers' charismatic and contingent reward leadership to yield matched reports for those variables. A similar procedure was used in a past study examining women transformational and contingent reward leadership at dyad and group levels of analysis (Yammarino et al., 1997). Also, in the current study, there were significant positive correlations between manager-reported charismatic and contingent reward leadership and the manager's performance as rated by the department head ($r = .41$, $p < .01$ for charismatic leadership; $r = .30$, $p < .01$ for contingent reward leadership). Given these results and prior work, the matching procedure described above was considered acceptable.

Hypothesis 12 was *not* supported, because the dyad level of analysis indicated that the positive relationship for charismatic leadership between department head and managers was based on the between-dyads level of analysis (Table 36a), in conjunction with the presence of equivocal effects from the group level of analysis across single- and multiple-rating sources (Tables 36b and 36c). Although there were within-group effects between managers' personal identification and value internalization and the department head's charismatic leadership in bivariate WABA (see Table 36c), within-group effects were not obtained when identification and

internalization were entered into the multivariate WABA equations with charismatic leadership of the department head.

Supporting Hypothesis 16, the results from the dyad level of analysis (Table 36a) indicated that the positive relationship between department head's contingent reward leadership and managers' corresponding leadership was based on a whole dyads view -- contingent reward leadership of department head and managers are based on a unique one-to-one relationship, independent of group membership and differentiated from other dyads. The between-dyads effect was further confirmed by the presence of equivocal effects found at group level of analysis across single- and multiple-rating sources (Tables 36b and 36c).

Interestingly, the between-dyads level of analysis for the cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership is virtually identical with the level of analysis for close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at the upper level. This indicates that charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena at the upper level may be considered established, whole-dyads phenomenon where followers' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes and even their leadership co-vary with their leaders' leadership practices at the between-dyads level of analysis.

Table 36a.
Multivariate WABA Results for Cascading-Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: Dyad Level of Analysis [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MIC and	.81†*	.58							
DCR	.78*	.62	.80†*	.64†*	.22	2.01*	.51†	.23	Neither
MCR and	.80†*	.60							
DCR	.78*	.62	.61†*	.22	.44†	2.98*	.38†	.08	**Between**
DCR + MIC	.80†*	.59	.61†*	.24	.42†	2.85*	.40†	.09	**Between**
Charismatic									
MPI and	.82†*	.58							
DCH	.79*	.61	.64†*	.46†*	.22	1.59	.41	.16	Neither
MCH and	.84†*	.55							
DCH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.13	.56†	3.77*	.42†	.04	**Between**
DCH + MPI	.82†*	.57	.73†*	.28†*	.54†	3.92*	.50†	.09	**Between(w)**
MVI and	.84†*	.54							
DCH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.44†*	.23	1.69*	.42†	.14	Neither
MCH and	.84†*	.55							
DCH	.79*	.61	.63†*	.13	.56†	3.77*	.42†	.04	**Between**
DCH + MVI	.85†*	.53	.82†*	.29†*	.67†	5.17*	.58†	.08	**Between(w)**

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCR + MIC) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department heads and managers at dyad level of analysis, based on matched-reports ($N = 154$, $J = 77$).
[b] DCH & DCR = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership; MPI, MVI, & MIC = manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head; MCH & MCR = manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

Table 36b.
Multivariate WABA Results for Cascading-Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: Group Level of Analysis with Single-Source Ratings (Manager – Manager – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICM and	.64	.77							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.74†*	.72†*	.04	.23	.34	.39	Neither
MCRMagg and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.35†	.63†*	-.32†	-1.50	.16	.35	Neither
DCRM + MICM	.70	.71	.38†	.61†*	-.28†	-1.25	.16	.34	Neither
Charismatic									
MPIM and	.66	.75							
DCHM	.62	.79	.72†*	.69†*	.05	.30	.30	.41	Neither
MCHMagg and	.64	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.62†*	.61†*	.01	.05	.24	.37	Neither
DCHM + MPIM	.62	.79	.62†*	.61†*	.00	.02	.24	.37	Neither
MVIM and	.55	.84†							
DCHM	.62	.79	.67†*	.75†*	-.11	-.62	.23	.49†	Neither
MCHMagg and	.64	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.62†*	.61†*	.01	.05	.24	.37	Neither
DCHM + MVIM	.57	.82†	.58†*	.75†*	-.23	-1.20	.21	.47†	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRM + MICM) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department heads and managers at group level of analysis, based on ratings of managers ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHM & DCRM = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPIM, MVIM, & MICM = manager's self-ratings about personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance with department head; MCHMagg & MCRMagg = aggregated manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

Table 36c.
Multivariate WABA Results for Cascading-Distant Charismatic and Contingent Reward Leadership: Group Level of Analysis with Multiple-Source Ratings (Manager – Department Head – Manager) [a]

Relationships and Variables [b]	Etas [c]		Correlations [d]		Difference [e]		Components [f]		Inference
	Between	Within	Between	Within	*A*	*Z*	Between	Within	
Contingent Reward									
MICD and	.78*	.62							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.21	.40†*	-.20	-.86	.11	.18	Neither
MCRMagg and	.63	.78							
DCRM	.71*	.71	.35†	.63†*	-.32†	-1.50	.16	.35	Neither
DCRM + MICD	.71*	.71	.35†	.63†*	-.32†	-1.45	.16	.35	Neither
Charismatic									
MPID and	.68	.74							
DCHM	.62	.79	.05	.54†*	-.52†	-2.22*	.02	.31†	**Within(w)**
MCHMagg and	.64	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.62†*	.61†*	.01	.05	.24	.37	Neither
DCHM + MPID	.58	.82†	.65†*	.64†*	.01	.08	.24	.40	Neither
MVID and	.64	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.11	.51†*	-.43†	-1.83*	.04	.31†	**Within(w)**
MCHMagg and	.64	.77							
DCHM	.62	.79	.62†*	.61†*	.01	.05	.24	.37	Neither
DCHM + MVID	.57	.82†	.71†*	.62†*	.12	.63	.26	.39	Neither

Note. The variables involving two (e.g., DCRM + MICD) terms are linear composite variables, developed using multivariate WABA procedures.
[a] Relationship between department heads and managers at group level of analysis, based on cross-ratings ($N = 77$, $J = 27$).
[b] DCHM & DCRM = department head's charismatic & contingent reward leadership rated by manager; MPID, MVID, & MICD = manager's personal identification, value internalization, & instrumental compliance rated by department head; MCHMagg & MCRMagg = aggregated manager's charismatic and contingent reward leadership toward each staff member.
[c] Significant *E*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated. [d] Significant *R*-test († at 15°) and *F*-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated.
[e] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) and Z-test (*, $p < .05$) values are indicated for differences between- and within-group correlation.
[f] Significant *A*-test († at 15°) of between- and within-group component differences are indicated.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current dissertation was to examine various differences between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Those differences were defined and investigated in terms of distinctive leader-influencing mechanisms and followers' leadership perceptions and multiple levels-of-analysis effects for close and distant leader-follower relationships. Hence, the key aspects of study here were two-fold focusing on differences in substantive relationships among variables of interest and levels of analysis between close and distant leadership situations.

First, by integrating the literature on dual-mode information processing of persuasion and attitude change with the literature on charismatic and contingent reward leadership addressing the issue of leader-follower distance, a conceptual model of close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership was developed. Two key points of that conceptualization of close and distant leadership are that: (a) two different attitude consequences in terms of strength emerge (strong attitude toward close leader and weak attitude toward distant leader); and (b) attitude strength moderates the attitude-mediating relationship between leadership and follower outcomes. It was, therefore, proposed that a strong attitude toward the leader in close leadership situations would fully mediate the relationships between leadership and follower outcomes; and that a weak attitude toward the leader in distant leadership contexts would not mediate the leadership-outcome relationships. To complement the non-mediating bypass-distant leadership model, a cascading model of distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership also was proposed and tested. Finally, an alternative explanation to the bypass and cascading models of

leadership was developed and tested to validate whether the proposed models were a cogent explanation of distant leadership.

Second, close and distant leadership situations involving multiple levels of management inherently raise the issue of multiple levels of analysis, because individual followers in close situations are embedded in groups/teams, and the groups of followers in distant contexts are embedded in collectives (Dansereau et al., 1984; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). Hence, the dynamics in the substantive relationships among variables for close and distant leadership should be viewed through a multiple levels-of-analysis lens and tested rigorously by incorporating a multiple levels-of-analysis technique. A multivariate Within- and Between-entities analysis based on the Varient Approach (Dansereau et al., 1984; Schriesheim, 1995; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000) was used to test for these multiple levels-of-analysis effects (i.e., level-specific, cross-level, and emergent properties).

In this chapter, the research findings from the study outlined above are reviewed and discussed, followed by a discussion of theoretical, methodological and practical implications. Several limitations of the current study are then discussed in conjunction with suggestions for future research.

Research Findings

Close charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Three issues were developed and tested for close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper and lower levels of management: (a) examination of followers' psychological processes whereby charismatic and contingent reward leadership are translated into followers' attitudes, behavior, and performance; (b) investigation of the type of mediating role of psychological process (bases of commitment to leader) in the leadership-outcomes relationships; and (c) drawing a comparison between close

charismatic and contingent reward leadership at upper levels (department head-manager) and the corresponding leadership at lower levels (manager-staff member).

First, drawing on charismatic/transformational and contingent reward leadership literature (Bass, 1985; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Kark Shamir, & Chen, 2003), it was hypothesized that followers' personal identification and value internalization with their leaders would mediate the relationships between charismatic leadership and the followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance; and that followers' instrumental compliance with their leaders would mediate the relationships between contingent reward leadership and those follower outcomes. As expected, the three bases of commitment to the leader either fully or partially mediated the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and follower outcomes in most cases at both upper and lower levels.

However, the mediating role of instrumental compliance for the relationship based on contingent reward leadership was not fully demonstrated through single and multiple ratings at both hierarchical levels. It is possible that instrumental compliance might not be sufficiently developed by followers in Korea where employees at the same hierarchical levels and with identical organizational tenures are often given the same amount of monetary rewards, regardless of their individual performance. This possibility seems to become even more likely, considering that only followers who had been involved in leader-follower relationships for more than 3 months were included in the current study.

Another plausible explanation for this result is related to a cultural orientation representing Korea– i.e., power distance. Power distance refers to the extent to which a society and individuals accept inequality in power distribution among members of that society (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1994). From this definition, people in a cultural domain characterized by high

power distance (e.g., Korea) are likely to accept power and status differences among people. Complying with the leader's request in Korea seems to be for normative rather than for instrumental purposes. Hence, Korean followers in this study might not have strong instrumental compliance with their contingent reward leaders, but rather they might normatively comply with the leadership, yielding the inconsistent mediating results for instrumental compliance. Related to the cultural issue, social desirability bias might operate especially when instrumental compliance was reported from self-ratings, in that the Korean culture is oriented from a deep root of Confucianism which values saving one's face and considers self-identity by relating it to socially-accepted norms.

Second, the three bases of commitment to the leader (personal identification, value internalization, and instrumental compliance) fully, or at least partially, mediated the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership and followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior and performance at both upper and lower levels, with a couple of exceptions for self-rated instrumental compliance. The close leadership context is characterized by high personal relevance, substantial amount of leader-related information, repeated observation of leader actual day-to-day behaviors, and direct interpersonal experience with the leader. In this context, immediate followers are more likely to engage in central/systematic information processing when they form an attitude toward the leader (here, commitment to leader). Consequently, charismatic and contingent reward leadership in this situation becomes a relational phenomenon and a strong follower attitude may be produced. Finally, a strong commitment to the leader (persistent over time, resistant to counterargument, and predictive of behaviors) may positively moderate the relationships between commitment to leader and follower outcomes. And the positive moderation would be great enough to drive a full mediating

role of commitment in the relationships between leadership and outcomes. Indeed, the three bases of commitment to leader in the current study fully, in most cases, and partially, in a couple of cases, mediated the relationships.

The third issue concerns the comparisons between close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at the upper level and the corresponding leadership at the lower level. Avolio and Bass (1988) suggested that transformational leadership is more observable at higher levels of management. However, at the same time, Bass and his colleagues have shown that more effective leaders are both transformational and transactional (Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993). In fact, recent meta-analytic reviews demonstrated that the effects of transformational leadership on leadership criteria were not significantly different from those of contingent reward leadership across hierarchical levels (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al., 1996).

The current study also yielded very similar results to those suggested by previous theoretical arguments and empirical evidence. Charismatic leadership was more prevalent for department heads at upper levels than managers at lower levels, but the magnitude of relationships between charismatic leadership and follower outcomes was not significantly greater at upper levels than the magnitude of relationships at lower levels. Instead, although the contingent reward leadership was not significantly practiced at the upper levels, the magnitude of relationships between contingent reward leadership and various leadership criteria was significantly greater at upper levels than at lower levels.

There are several possibilities to explain these findings. Although I adopted charismatic and contingent reward items separately from the MLQ-5X and did not produce a single score representing transformational leadership, which has been highly correlated to contingent reward

leadership score, there were significant correlations between charismatic and contingent reward leadership as rated by followers in the current study ($r = .71$, $p < .01$ at upper levels; $r = .61$ $p < .01$ at lower levels). While these correlations were somewhat lower than the corrected mean-correlation ($r = .80$) reported in a meta-analysis (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), they are statistically significant and might operate to mitigate the distinctiveness in the magnitude of relationships in leadership between upper and lower levels. It is also possible that followers in the current study might consider both charismatic and contingent reward leadership to be a necessary quality for being an effective leader, as Bass and his colleagues suggested (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Due to these reasons, the augmentation effects also were not found at any hierarchical levels and thus comparing the augmentation effects between upper and lower levels was not feasible.

Charismatic leadership was more prevalent at upper levels, but contingent reward leadership at the upper levels was more strongly related to follower outcomes than charismatic leadership. In addition to the theoretical underpinnings of the prevalence of charismatic leadership at upper levels as suggested in the chapter on hypothesis development, the manager's perception of department head's charismatic quality may have two different meanings. The manager's perception might reflect a realistic/relational meaning toward him/herself, but at the same time it might include a symbolic/attributional meaning toward distant followers, staff members. Hence, their ratings about charismatic quality of the department head might reflect these two meanings, yielding higher ratings on that variable; in contrast, staff members' ratings about manager's charismatic leadership might reflect only a realistic/relational meaning, resulting in relatively lower ratings than manager's ratings about charismatic leadership of department head.

Finally, since the Asian financial crisis in 1997, many Korean companies including most organizations in this study have been engaging in organizational restructuring by which they downsized the workforce of middle-level managers. Therefore, managers rather than staff members in the current study might more seriously consider their job security and performance that seem closely related to contingent reward leadership. This possibility may explain why contingent reward leadership of the department head was more strongly related to managers' outcomes at upper levels.

Distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership. Two models of distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership were proposed (bypass and cascading models), building on the previous literature addressing leadership at a distance (e.g., Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994).

First, the bypass-distant leadership context is characterized by low personal relevance, little leader-related information, occasional observation of leader symbolic impression management behaviors, and indirect experience with the leader. In this distant leadership context, distant followers may engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing when they form an attitude toward the leader (commitment to the leader). Accordingly, charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance may become a leadership phenomenon largely based on followers' attributions of the leader, and weak follower attitude toward the leader is engendered. Finally, weak commitment to the leader (temporary, susceptible to counterpersuasion, and less predictive of behaviors) may negatively moderate the relationships between commitment and followers' job satisfaction, helping behavior, and performance. In other words, due to the weak relationship between the commitment and leadership criteria, it was hypothesized that the

commitment to the leader would not mediate the relationships between distant leadership and followers' outcomes.

As proposed in the hypotheses, distant followers' three bases of commitment to their distant charismatic and contingent reward leaders did not mediate, or at best partially mediated, the relationships between charismatic and contingent reward leadership of the leaders and follower's attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcomes. These findings are considered very compelling for a couple of reasons.

First, as a leader-follower distance check, interaction frequency between the department head and staff members was significantly lower than both close leadership situations at upper and lower levels. Furthermore, strength in the three bases of commitment to the leader was significantly weaker in the bypass-distant context than in both close leadership situations at upper and lower levels. From these two findings, in addition to much empirical evidence showing a positive relationship between interaction frequency and attitude strength in the dual-mode information processing literature (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), it is likely obvious that followers distant from their leaders might engage in peripheral/heuristic information processing and close followers might follow central/systematic information processing route, as the conceptual model of current study proposed.

Second, all models in this study were tested through multiple- as well as single-rating sources. The findings of non-mediation in bypass-distant leadership situations become stronger, (a) considering that these results were found even in single-source data sets where the relationships between mediators and outcome variables might be inflated due to same-source effects; and (b) thinking that full mediation in close leadership situations was found even in

multiple-source data sets. In fact, only partial mediation for bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership was found in a single-source data set.

The second proposed model of distant leadership is the cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership. To address the gap in a previous study that found significant positive relationships between transformational and contingent reward leadership at higher and lower levels but did not explain the inner processes yielding positive correlations (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987), the three bases of commitment to the leader were proposed as the mediating variables and tested at upper-level leadership situations.

Overall, the key notion of a cascading effect was generally supported, in that there were significant positive relationships between the department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership and the corresponding leadership of managers. However, manager's personal identification and instrumental compliance did not mediate the cascading relationships in single-rating source and single- and multiple-rating source data, respectively. In contrast, managers' value internalization indeed partially mediates the cascading relationships.

These findings were somewhat unexpected in that mangers' strong commitment to their department heads at upper levels was supposed to fully mediate the cascading relationships. Several possibilities are conceivable. First, it is unlikely that personal identification and value internalization occur at the same time. Charismatic leadership first drives followers' personal identification, and then, over time value internalization (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Hence, it is likely that the value internalization may be a more developed basis of commitment to leader than personal identification with the leader, implying that value internalization is more likely to mediate the cascading relationship than personal identification. The results of current study also

confirmed this plausible explanation, since only value internalization mediated the cascading relationships in a single- and multiple-rating source data.

Second, instrumental compliance with contingent reward leader might not be developed sufficiently enough to mediate the cascading relationship because of the cultural values in Korea as addressed above. Lastly, other than the three bases of commitment, the similar behavioral patterns across two levels of management might be due to differential selection (i.e., department head promoted only the managers demonstrating similar personal characteristics) and the organizational subculture within which the department head and managers operated (Bass et al., 1987).

To rule out other plausible explanations about the bypass and cascading models of distant leadership (a mediated leadership framework), an alternative, interaction effects view of leadership between department heads and managers on staff members was also proposed and tested. Given the presence of cascading relationships (i.e., significant positive correlations) between the department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership and the corresponding leadership of managers, these interaction effects (department head's CH × manager's CH; department head's CR × manager's CR) were not found as expected. However, the results of moderated hierarchical regressions revealed that the other two interaction terms produced by different combinations of leadership (department head's CH × manager's CR; department head's CR × manager's CH) also did not contribute any additional variance in the staff members' outcomes. These findings further suggest that the combined, mediated model of distant leadership appears a valid distant leadership mechanism whereby distant leaders directly and indirectly influence their followers at a distance.

Multiple levels of analysis. Various multiple-level effects for charismatic and continent reward leadership phenomena were found, differing by levels of management and for different variables of interest involved in the leadership process. Regarding multiple levels of analysis for close charismatic leadership at upper and lower levels, whole dyads effects across two levels of management were found for the relationships between charismatic leadership and various follower outcomes. A noticeable difference in the multiple-level effects between the upper and lower levels of management was whether the between-dyads charismatic relationships were replicated at the group level of analysis for different outcome variables of interest (i.e., level-specific, emergent, or cross-level phenomenon).

Specifically, the relationships between the department head's charismatic leadership and managers' job satisfaction and helping behavior held only at the between-dyads level of analysis and were not replicated at the group level of analysis across single- and multiple-source ratings (level-specific whole dyads). In contrast, the relationship of the department head's charismatic leadership with managers' performance was found at both between-dyads level of analysis and within-groups level of analysis for multiple-rating sources (cross-level parts). For example, while the relationships of charismatic leadership with job satisfaction and helping behavior were solely based on one-to-one leader-follower relationships independent of group membership, the one-to-one dyadic relationship of charismatic leadership with performance developed into charismatic dyadic relationships within the groups. This finding suggests that mangers' job satisfaction and helping behavior depend on only the department head's charismatic leadership, but their performance co-varies with the department head's charismatic leadership and other group members as well.

This is a very interesting finding for a couple of reasons. First, a continuing criticism of the dyadic leadership approach is the issue of how differentiated dyadic relationships affect overall performance by the leader's work unit (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999; Yukl, 2001). However, the current finding may provide an answer to the problem. It implies that the dyadic charismatic relationship under charismatic leaders emphasizing collective identity and mission can develop into a group-level phenomenon where the unit members are motivated to collaborate and produce higher overall performance within the work units. Second, building on this finding, we may be able to reconcile or integrate the individualized leadership approach based on a dyadic view of leadership (Dansereau et al., 1995) with the charismatic leadership theories valuing collective orientation (Shamir et al, 1993; Kark et al., 2003).

Contrary to the findings in close charismatic leadership at upper levels of management, staff members' performance at lower levels of management neither co-varied with manager's charismatic leadership at the dyad level of analysis nor with other staff members' performance and manger's charismatic leadership at the group level of analysis. The relationship between manager's charismatic leadership and staff members' performance was solely based on individual differences. It seems possible that since staff members might be naïve entry-level employees with short tenure in organizations and their work, they could not form established relationships with their leader and coworkers and thus their performance did not co-vary with leadership and other staff members' performance.

For other variables of interest in close charismatic leadership at lower levels of management, the relationships between manager's charismatic leadership and staff members' job satisfaction held only at the whole group level of analysis (emergent wholes), and the relationships of the charismatic leadership with staff members' helping behavior was found only

at the whole dyads level of analysis, as also shown at upper levels of management (level-specific whole dyads). The measure used for job satisfaction in this study was designed to capture affective aspects of job satisfaction. Staff members, who appeared somewhat naïve in the organizational work settings, might be susceptible to emotional contagion processes that possibly yielded the between-groups whole effect (e.g., Halverson, 2004).

The close leader-follower context is conducive for a contingent reward leader to identify each immediate follower's unique needs and provide each follower with role clarification and rewards correspondent to his/her needs, contingent on each follower's performance. The leader controls rewards to a specific follower, whereas the follower also controls his/her performance to the focal leader. The two parties may form a unique independent dyadic relationship by exerting mutual control (Yammarino et al., 1998). This theoretical proposition was supported in the relationships between the department head's contingent reward leadership and managers' helping behavior and performance at upper levels of management.

For close contingent reward leadership at lower levels of management, the relationships of a manager's contingent reward leadership with staff members' three outcomes all held at the between-dyads level of analysis, as also found at the upper levels of management. However, the whole dyad effects were followed by whole effects at the group level of analysis when all relevant variables were assessed by a single source–i.e., manager. Despite the presence of cross-level whole group effects, this finding should be interpreted with caution because the whole group effects primarily reflect only a leader's perspective on his/her leadership practice and effectiveness. Social desirability bias might operate here. Again, the Korean culture tends to be based on Confucianism that values saving one's face and considers self-identity by relating it to socially-accepted norms, and the social norms are based on a collectivistic orientation. Treating

all followers equally and expecting them to work cooperatively toward a collective goal seem to be a norm which leaders in Korea follow. Relative to the department head, managers may not have a greater position power by which they could be allowed to deviate from the socially-accepted norm when they managed their teams.

For the bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership approach, it was suggested that bypass-distant leadership would be an attributional phenomena where peripheral/heuristic information processing may be a primary route for distant followers to evaluate leadership. A limited number of leader-related peripheral cues are passed and shared among the distant followers through social information processing in follower-follower relationships. Thus, I hypothesized that the attributional phenomena in bypass-distant leadership situations would be department-level properties. Contrary to this expectation, the results for the department level of analysis with single- and multiple-rating sources indicated that leadership phenomena involving all variables of interest were based on individual differences. Additional discussion about these equivocal effects seems warranted.

When followers work closely together, they are more likely to engage in social information processing (Meindl, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Frequent interaction appears a prerequisite for the social influence and the contagion process by which certain collective-level properties may be created. Unlike managers, entry-level staff members might not have enough opportunities to interact with other members outside their work units but within their department. Hence, the social information processing might mainly operate only inside their units within the department. In fact, the within-eta correlations for charismatic and contingent reward leadership assessed by staff members were significantly greater in a practical sense than the between-eta correlations for the variables.

It is possible to speculate why the within-department level views of charismatic and contingent reward leadership did not co-vary with staff members' outcomes, yielding these equivocal effects. Recall that the staff members' attitudes toward the department head were weak and the relationships between distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership and staff members' outcomes were weaker than those in close leadership situations. These results imply that followers' outcomes might not co-vary with the department-level leadership perceptions.

Lastly, for the cascading-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership approach, the between-dyads level of analysis was found using single- and multiple-rating sources. Interestingly, the between-dyads level of analysis for the cascading model of charismatic and contingent reward leadership is virtually identical with the level of analysis for close charismatic and contingent reward leadership at the upper levels of management. This indicates that charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomena at upper levels may be considered established, whole-dyads phenomenon where followers' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes and even their leadership co-vary with their leaders' leadership practices at the between-dyads level of analysis.

Implications

Theoretical and methodological implications. The proposed conceptual model and empirical evidence contribute to our current understandings of charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance in several ways. From the viewpoint of the follower, the current study identified how close and distant leaders influence their followers differently, by providing a theoretical underpinning and empirical evidence about the differences in followers' information processing, attitude toward the leader, attitude strength, and outcomes between close and distant leadership.

First, the current study provides empirical evidence for charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance using a multiple levels of analysis lens and by an application of a rigorous multiple levels of analysis testing technique with single- and multiple-rating sources. Building on the comparison of close leadership to distant leadership phenomena, the existence of bypass and cascading models of distant leadership were empirically supported by ruling out an alternative, interactive model of two types of leadership at different levels of management.

Second, the relationships of bypass-distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership with followers at a distance were not mediated by the followers' commitment to the leaders, in that strength in commitment to the leaders might not be strong enough to mediate the substantive relationships. This implies that attributed charisma and contingent reward leadership may not have greater impact than relational leadership on distant followers' individual outcomes for a particular job within the small boundary of their work unit. Given the significant positive relationships between the department head's charismatic and contingent reward leadership and staff members' individual outcomes, it was necessary to identify why the significant positive relationships were obtained, because the presence of direct effects implies that other mediators than those included might operate to yield the direct relationships. This reasoning suggests the presence of cascading model of distant leadership.

However, it should be noted that the effectiveness of bypass-distant leadership cannot be ignored. Although a distant charismatic and contingent reward leader may not influence distant followers' individual-level attitudes toward a particular job within their work unit (e.g., job satisfaction) and performance through their personal identification and value internalization, the leader may be able to develop positive organizational culture and intergroup cohesion manifested as group-wide and organizational-wide (Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

Third, the current study empirically identified many cross-level effects for charismatic and contingent reward leadership from both single- and multiple-rating data sources. Given the lack of empirical demonstration for this levels-based effect in prior organizational studies, this finding is potentially valuable. Furthermore, by demonstrating how dyadic one-to-one charismatic and contingent reward leadership develop into group-level phenomenon, this empirical evidence may resolve the criticism of how differentiated dyadic leader-follower relationships affect overall performance in the leader's work unit. Also, this finding may serve as a bridge between individualized leadership approach based on a dyadic view of leadership and charismatic leadership theories emphasizing collective values.

Fourth, the conceptualization and empirical evidence in the current study offer a way to reconcile the leader-centric approaches on charismatic and contingent reward leadership with the follower-centric approaches, and the two perspectives are incorporated into a balanced perspective in this study. In particular, the balanced perspective is demonstrated by integrating the current charismatic and contingent reward leadership literatures addressing the issue of distance (e.g., Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994) with a dual-mode information processing model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). By incorporating this information processing literature, the present study can provide more complete explanations of follower perceptions, perception formation processes, and attitude aspects that are differentially associated with close and distant leadership situations.

Howell and Shamir (2005) criticized recent charismatic leadership literature that mainly views charismatic leadership in terms of only leader personal characteristics and thus fails to recognize charismatic leadership based on a social relationship between the leader and follower. The leader-centric approaches implicitly assume that personal characteristics of the charismatic

leader are important enough to influence followers' attitudes and behaviors, and hence that certain positive changes in follower attitudes and behaviors may be associated with organizational outcomes. However, the leader-centric approaches have not allowed concern for the importance of follower perceptions and perception formation processes which may determine different consequences between close and distant leadership situations. When we acknowledge the important role of follower perceptions and attributions on leadership influence processes, we recognize that the effectiveness of charismatic leadership is significantly influenced by follower perceptions and attributions (Lord, 1985; Meindl, 1990; Shamir, 1995).

Fifth, by identifying specific differences in follower perceptions, perception formation processes, and subsequent attitude changes between close and distant leadership situations, the current dissertation can provide more elaborated explanations of why certain charismatic leader behaviors are more relevant to close or distant leadership situations. There have been several attempts to identify how close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leaders differentially influence their followers (Yammarino, 1994), and what differences in behaviors exist between close and distant charismatic leaders (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yagil, 1998). The identification of differences in leader influence processes and behaviors between close and distant leadership situations is complemented by the current study's theoretical underpinnings and empirical evidence showing why those processes and behaviors are relevant to close and distant leadership situations in terms of follower perceptions, perception formation processes, and attitudes.

In addition to the theoretical contributions to current understanding about charismatic and contingent reward leadership at a distance, several methodological implications can be derived from this study. First, using single- and multiple-rating data sources, the results for tested

substantive relationships among the variables of interest and the final inferences from the Within and Between Analysis yielded dramatically different conclusions depending on the rating sources. The use of multisource ratings in organizational research appears to be an almost required, normative practice now; nonetheless, the use of that practice in the current study is highlighted here.

Second, in this study, tests were conducted for measurement equivalence for all measures used for hypothesis testing. Invariance in measurement between leader and follower ratings is a critical issue that all investigators using a matched-report procedure should examine before testing hypothesized substantive research models. While leaders and followers with different characteristics such as organizational status and role requirements may evaluate the same object of research in different ways from their own perspectives, the measurement (assessment) of the target object should be equivalent across the two rating sources. Given the paucity of studies incorporating this procedure into hypothesis testing and the importance of this issue, future research adopting a matched-report procedure might test measurement equivalence.

Third, multivariate WABA has been used in conjunction with moderated hierarchical regression analysis to test various levels-of-analysis effects (e.g., Schriesheim, 1995; Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000; Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & De Church, 2006). However, multivariate WABA was not originally developed to test the types of multivariate relationships like the mediated models tested in the current study. Hence, for testing in future research involving multivariate relationships at multiple levels of analysis, this multivariate multi-level mediated approach is suggested for use.

Practical implications. In addition to theoretical and methodological considerations, a couple of practical implications should be mentioned. First, as an implication of the bypass-

distant model of leadership, distant charismatic leaders in upper echelons (e.g., CEO) should dedicate more efforts to building positive personal images. Because the information processing of distant organizational members is based on a peripheral route, and hence followers' attitudes toward the distant leader may be temporary over time and susceptible to change, distant followers are likely to be vulnerable to (manipulative) impression management. Impression management can be effective when distant followers attempt to make an attribution of charisma with only limited information (Bass, 1990). Salancik and Meindl (1984) also demonstrated how CEO's symbolic actions as a part of impression management can have a positive impact on organizational performance. Maintaining a positive charismatic leader image in distant leadership situations may depend on how strongly the leader's vision is delivered through effective image-building efforts (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Through speeches, sagas, storytelling, and symbols by utilizing information technology (e.g., e-mail), distant charismatic leaders can provide an ideological vision and value that can serve as a shared organizational value.

Second, it is also suggested that distant charismatic leaders need to allow middle- and first-line supervisors to meet and communicate with them as frequently as possible. By doing so, distant charismatic leaders can provide them with role-modeling opportunities which can serve as a cascading effect for leadership processes and practices (Bass et al., 1987; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999; Yammarino, 1994). In other words, charismatic top management may be able to influence distant organizational members' attitudes and behaviors through cascading effects as delivered by middle-level managers.

Limitations

Given the limitations of this study, several suggestions for future research are warranted. First, the control variable issue involved in the current study should be considered. In the current study, three levels of management were involved to test the hypotheses of interest, where staff members' outcomes might be influenced by the manager's close leadership as well as the department head's bypass-distant leadership. To identify the effects of the manager's close leadership on staff members' outcomes, the department head's leadership might need to be controlled. The manager's close leadership might likely need to be controlled to test the effects of the department head's distant leadership on staff members' outcomes. Furthermore, to identify the effects of charismatic leadership on followers' outcomes, contingent reward leadership might need to be controlled, and vice versa.

Due to the matched-report procedure for multiple levels of analysis across three levels of management, an unequal number of individual-level raw scores for each level of management occurred. To fully incorporate the control issue into hypothesis testing, the raw-scores had to be transformed, but these transformation make multiple levels of analysis issues not testable. Although using a structural equation model (e.g., PLS and LISREL) might be conceivable to simultaneously test all relevant variables and to address multicollinearity problems, this also would require the transformation of raw-score data in this study. Finally, due to the significant correlations between charismatic and contingent reward leadership (e.g., augmentation effects could not be assessed), controlling one leadership variable might result in an insignificant effect for the other leadership variable, and vice versa. Using individual-level, raw-score data was required to conduct multivariate WABA in conjunction with hierarchical multiple regression in this study. Nonetheless, the lack of controlling potential exogenous effects is an inherent

limitation of this study and future research involving multiple levels of management and analysis should address this issue.

Second, leadership processes develop over time, and this notion suggests another implication for multiple levels of analysis and future research (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Kohles, 1999). For example, individual-level phenomenon can become dyadic agreements, and between-dyads effects may become within-groups level effects over time. A cross-sectional study like the current dissertation cannot capture those longitudinal transformations. The data set examined in the current study included leaders and followers who had spent more than 3 months together, to ensure sufficient acquaintance of followers with their leaders and to allow for the development of the three bases of commitment. This sampling procedure seemed appropriate, in that many cross-level effects partly representing the longitudinal level-transformation were found. However, an actual longitudinal study involving leader-follower relationships of differing lengths of time and monitoring the development of those relationships over time would provide a more rigorous test of the ideas proposed here.

Third, to obtain matched-reports from a leader and immediate followers and to simultaneously ensure anonymity, the department heads and managers in the current study were asked to randomly select three followers for participation. Although they were instructed to randomly select their followers, department heads and managers may have selected only their better performers who might share many personal characteristics with the leaders, resulting in potential artifacts for the findings regarding multiple levels of analysis. The empirical evidence in the current study nevertheless showed many equivocal effects across dyad and group levels of analysis from single- and multiple-source ratings, implying that these potential artifacts might not be an issue. Nonetheless, future research adopting the matched-report procedure should

consider this issue and potentially address it by including all followers of a leader (not just a subset of followers).

Lastly, generalizability of the empirical evidence from this Korean sample should be validated across various work-settings in different national cultures. The effectiveness of charismatic and contingent reward leadership may vary depending on the cultural orientation of leader and followers (e.g., Jung & Avolio, 1999). Conceptualization and empirical testing for multiple levels of analysis also may be different from culture to culture (Yammarino & Jung, 1998). Various multiple-levels effects in charismatic and contingent reward leadership phenomenon could be found, differing by levels of management, for different variables included, and among various cultural orientations. As discussed above, many empirical findings in this study were interpreted in terms of the uniqueness of Korean culture. As such, future research should explore the replication of these findings in the USA and other cultural settings.

Conclusion

Recall the parable of the blind men and the elephant. As the fable implies, to the extent that we can make any contribution to the understanding of complex leadership phenomena in organizations, it will be through viewing an organization as an integrated system where the whole is not a simple aggregation of the parts. Since organizational leadership inherently involves multiple levels of analysis, I hope that the current dissertation might successfully initiate the multiple-levels-of-analysis lenses to understand close and distant leadership phenomena at multiple levels of management for other researchers.

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APPENDIX A: The Questionnaire for Department Head

LEADERSHIP STUDY

Leadership Questionnaire: **DEPARTMENT HEAD**

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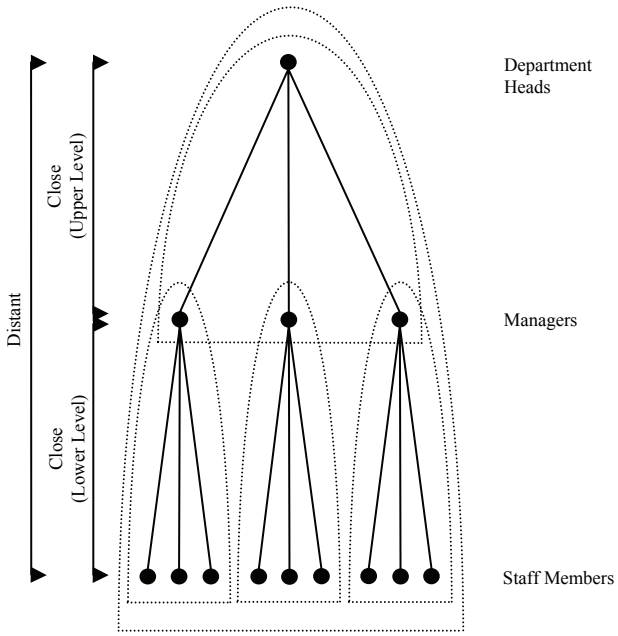
After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using an enclosed sealable envelope. Thank you for your participation

ID: _____

Leadership Questionnaire: **DEPARTMENT HEAD**

This questionnaire is designed to assist a leader in identifying the extent to which he/she engages in certain leadership behaviors and effectiveness. You, as a department head, are being asked to describe your current leadership practices toward each ***manager*** who directly reports to you (*see* FIGURE 1).

FIGURE 1
Departmental Structure and Close/Distant Leadership



INSTRUCTIONS

Step 1: If you have more than three managers directly reporting to you, please select only three of them (MANAGER A, B, & C). We recommend that you write down the name of each of three managers in the space on pages 3, 5, and 7, respectively.

Step 2: Before answering each part of the questionnaire, please carefully read the brief explanation about the part and select only one answer to each question.

Step 3: After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using the sealable envelope provided.

Step 4: Please hand out three envelopes marked MANAGER A, B, and C to the focal managers rated in this questionnaire.

NOTE: The personal information provided in this questionnaire will be confidential. Neither your followers nor your company will be able to access your individual responses. No data identifying an individual will be disseminated. Only researchers of this research project will have an access to your individual identification.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Your Leadership toward Manager A – Name: _____

Manager A is your immediate follower who reports to you directly. *To what extent would you say Manager A thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Manager A about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager A, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Manager A feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager A, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Manager A is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which Manager A does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:
    a. His/Her production is very low.
    b. It is fairly low.
    c. it is neither high nor low.
    d. It is fairly high.
    e. It is very high.

30. How good would you say is the quality of the performance of Manager A? Check one:
    a. His/Her quality is poor.
    b. His/Her quality is not good.
    c. Fair quality.
    d. Good quality.
    e. Excellent quality.

31. How efficiently does Manager A do his/her work? Check one:
    a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
    b. Not too efficient.
    c. Fairly efficient.
    d. He/She is very efficient.
    e. He/She is extremely efficient.

Your Leadership toward Manager B – Name: _____

Manager B is your immediate follower who reports to you directly. *To what extent would you say Manager B thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Manager B about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager B, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Manager B feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager B, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Manager B is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which Manager B does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:
    a. His/Her production is very low.
    b. It is fairly low.
    c. it is neither high nor low.
    d. It is fairly high.
    e. It is very high.

30. How good would you say is the quality of the performance of Manager B? Check one:
    a. His/Her quality is poor.
    b. His/Her quality is not good.
    c. Fair quality.
    d. Good quality.
    e. Excellent quality.

31. How efficiently does Manager B do his/her work? Check one:
    a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
    b. Not too efficient.
    c. Fairly efficient.
    d. He/She is very efficient.
    e. He/She is extremely efficient.

Your Leadership toward Manager C – Name: _____

	Manager C is your immediate follower who reports to you directly. *To what extent would you say Manager C thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Manager C about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

	Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager C, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Manager C feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about Manager C, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Manager C is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which Manager C does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:
    a. His/Her production is very low.
    b. It is fairly low.
    c. it is neither high nor low.
    d. It is fairly high.
    e. It is very high.

30. How good would you say is the quality of the performance of Manager C? Check one:
    a. His/Her quality is poor.
    b. His/Her quality is not good.
    c. Fair quality.
    d. Good quality.
    e. Excellent quality.

31. How efficiently does Manager C do his/her work? Check one:
    a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
    b. Not too efficient.
    c. Fairly efficient.
    d. He/She is very efficient.
    e. He/She is extremely efficient.

1. I am a: a. Male b. Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your department? _____
4. What is your position (rank)? _____
5. How long have you worked for your company? _____Years and _____ Months
6. How long have you been in your current position? _____ Years and _____ Months

APPENDIX B: The Questionnaire for Manager

LEADERSHIP STUDY

Leadership Questionnaire: **MANAGER A**

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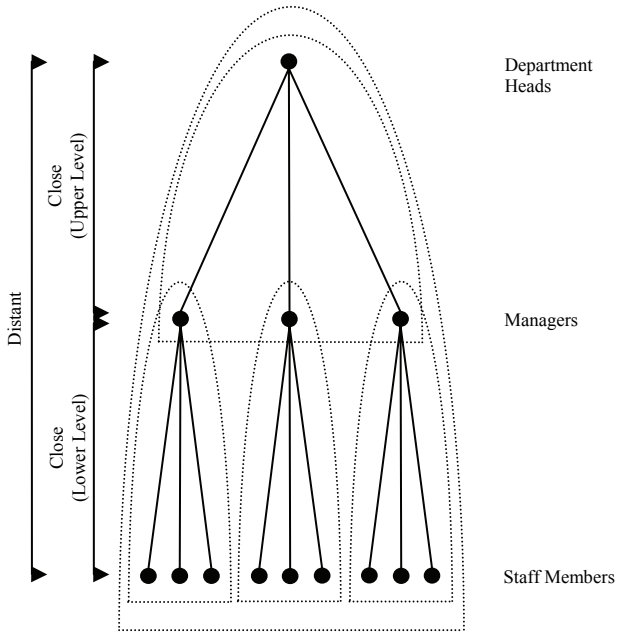
After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using an enclosed sealable envelope. Thank you for your participation

ID: _____

Leadership Questionnaire: MANAGER A

This questionnaire is designed to assist a leader in identifying the extent to which he/she engages in certain leadership behaviors and effectiveness. You, as a manager, are being asked to describe (***a***) the leadership of ***department head*** to whom you directly report and (***b***) your leadership toward each ***staff member*** who directly reports to you (*see* FIGURE 1).

FIGURE 1
Departmental Structure and Close/Distant Leadership



Your leadership and its effectiveness are assessed not only by yourself but also by your superior as well as your subordinates. ***Thus, please help us understand leadership processes in your organization by returning your own response and those of the others below you***.

INSTRUCTIONS

Step 1: If you have more than three staff members directly reporting to you, please select only three of them (STAFF A, B, & C). We recommend that you write down the name of department head as your direct superior and that of each of three staff members in the space on pages 3, 5, 7, and 9, respectively.

Step 2: Before answering each part of the questionnaire, please carefully read the brief explanation about the part and select only one answer to each question.

Step 3: After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using the sealable envelope provided.

Step 4: Please hand out three questionnaires marked STAFF A, B, and C to the focal staff members rated in this questionnaire.

NOTE: The personal information provided in this questionnaire will be confidential. Neither your followers nor your company will be able to access your individual responses. No data identifying an individual will be disseminated. Only researchers of this research project will have an access to your individual identification.

Thank you very much for your participation!

Department Head's Leadership toward You. Name of the leader: _____

	The department head is the leader to whom you directly report. *To what extent would you say the **department head** engages in the following leadership behaviors with you? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	He/She considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	He/She talks to me about his/her most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	He/She specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	He/She emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	He/She expresses confidence to me that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	He/She talks to me optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	He/She talks to me enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	He/She articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	He/She reward me when I do what I am supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	He/She makes clear exactly what I will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	He/She provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	He/She expresses satisfaction when I meet his/her expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

13. Looking back on the past 3 months, approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with the leader you describe above at work? Check one:

(A) less than 1 hour (B) 1 hour ~ less than 5 hours (C) 5 hours ~ less than 10 hours

(D) 10 hours ~ less than 15 hours (E) more than 15 hours

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14	When someone criticizes him/her, I feel like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
15	I view his/her success as my own success.	0	1	2	3	4
16	When someone praises him/her, I feel like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
17	I am proud to tell others that I am associated with him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
18	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (14-17)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19	It is necessary to express the right attitude to him/her in order for me to get rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
20	How hard I work for my job is directly linked to how much I am rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
21	Unless I am rewarded/recognized for it in some way, I see no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of him/her	0	1	2	3	4
22	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (19-21)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	I have a clear understanding of his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
24	I fully support his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
25	There is a great deal of agreement between my personal values and his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
26	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (23-25)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **yourself**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
27	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.	0	1	2	3	4
28	I frequently think of quitting my job.	0	1	2	3	4
29	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job	0	1	2	3	4
30	I help orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
31	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	0	1	2	3	4
32	I willingly give of my time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

33. Thinking of the various things which **you** do for your job, how much are you producing? Check one:
    a. My production is very low.
    b. It is fairly low.
    c. it is neither high nor low.
    d. It is fairly high.
    e. It is very high.

34. How good would you say is the quality of **your** performance? Check one:
    a. My quality is poor.
    b. My quality is not good.
    c. Fair quality.
    d. Good quality.
    e. Excellent quality.

35. How efficiently do **you** do your work? Check one:
    a. I do not work efficiently at all.
    b. Not too efficient.
    c. Fairly efficient.
    d. I am very efficient.
    e. I am extremely efficient.

Your Leadership toward Staff A – Name: _____

	Staff A is your immediate follower who reports directly to you. *To what extent would you say **Staff A** thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Staff A about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff A**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Staff A feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff A**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Staff A is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which **Staff A** does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:	30. How good would you say is the quality of **Staff A**'s performance? Check one:	31. How efficiently does **Staff A** do your work? Check one:
a. His/Her production is very low.	a. His/Her quality is poor.	a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
b. It is fairly low.	b. His/Her quality is not good.	b. Not too efficient.
c. It is neither high nor low.	c. Fair quality.	c. Fairly efficient.
d. It is fairly high.	d. Good quality.	d. He/She is very efficient.
e. It is very high.	e. Excellent quality.	e. He/She is extremely efficient.

Your Leadership toward Staff B – Name: _____

	Staff A is your immediate follower who reports directly to you. *To what extent would you say **Staff B** thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Staff B about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff B**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Staff B feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff B**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Staff B is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which **Staff B** does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:	30. How good would you say is the quality of **Staff B**'s performance? Check one:	31. How efficiently does **Staff B** do your work? Check one:
a. His/Her production is very low.	a. His/Her quality is poor.	a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
b. It is fairly low.	b. His/Her quality is not good.	b. Not too efficient.
c. It is neither high nor low.	c. Fair quality.	c. Fairly efficient.
d. It is fairly high.	d. Good quality.	d. He/She is very efficient.
e. It is very high.	e. Excellent quality.	e. He/She is extremely efficient.

Your Leadership toward Staff C – Name: _____

Staff A is your immediate follower who reports directly to you. *To what extent would you say **Staff C** thinks you engage in the following leadership behaviors with him/her? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I talk to Staff C about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I express confidence to him/her that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk to him/her optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I talk to him/her enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I reward him/her when he/she does what he/she is supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I make clear exactly what he/she will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	I provide him/her with assistance in exchange for his/her efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I express satisfaction when he/she meets my expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff C**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	When someone criticizes me, Staff C feels like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
14	He/She views my success as his/her own success.	0	1	2	3	4
15	When someone praises me, he/she feels like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
16	He/She is proud to tell others that he/she is associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
17	He/She thinks that it is necessary to express the right attitude to me in order for him/her to get rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
18	He/She thinks that how hard he/she work for his/her job is directly linked to how much he/she is rewarded/recognized by me.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Unless he/she is rewarded/recognized for it in some way, he/she sees no reason to expand extra effort on behalf of me.	0	1	2	3	4
20	He/She has a clear understanding of my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
21	He/She fully supports my core values.	0	1	2	3	4
22	There is a great deal of agreement between his/her personal values and my core values.	0	1	2	3	4

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **Staff C**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	Generally speaking, Staff C is very satisfied with his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
24	He/She frequently thinks of quitting his/her job.	0	1	2	3	4
25	He/She is generally satisfied with the kind of work he/she does in his/her job	0	1	2	3	4
26	He/She helps orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
27	He/She is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
28	He/She willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

29. Thinking of the various things which **Staff C** does for his/her job, how much is he/she producing? Check one:	30. How good would you say is the quality of **Staff C**'s performance? Check one:	31. How efficiently does **Staff C** do your work? Check one:
a. His/Her production is very low.	a. His/Her quality is poor.	a. He/She does not work efficiently at all.
b. It is fairly low.	b. His/Her quality is not good.	b. Not too efficient.
c. It is neither high nor low.	c. Fair quality.	c. Fairly efficient.
d. It is fairly high.	d. Good quality.	d. He/She is very efficient.
e. It is very high.	e. Excellent quality.	e. He/She is extremely efficient.

1. I am a: a. Male b. Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your department? _____
4. What is your position (rank)? _____
5. How long have you worked for your company? _____Years and _____ Months
6. How long have you been in your current position? _____ Years and _____ Months

APPENDIX C: The Questionnaire for Staff Member

LEADERSHIP STUDY

Leadership Questionnaire: **STAFF A**

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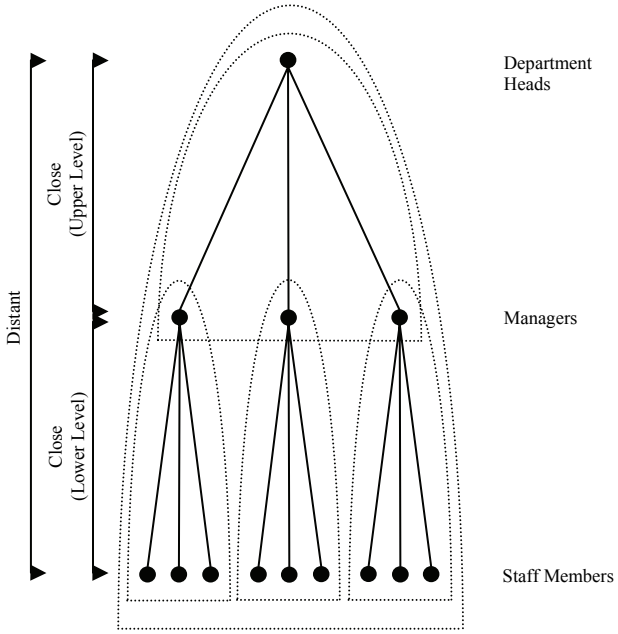
After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using an enclosed sealable envelope. Thank you for your participation

ID: _____

Leadership Questionnaire: STAFF A

This questionnaire is designed to assist a leader in identifying the extent to which he/she engages in certain leadership behaviors and effectiveness. You, as a staff member, are being asked to describe (***a***) the leadership of ***manager*** to whom you directly report and (***b***) the leadership of ***department head*** to whom you do not directly report (*see* FIGURE 1).

FIGURE 1
Departmental Structure and Close/Distant Leadership



Their leadership and its effectiveness are assessed not only by you but also by themselves. ***Thus, please help us understand leadership processes in your organization by returning your own response***.

INSTRUCTIONS

Step 1: We recommend that you write down the name of manager as your direct superior and that of department head in the space on pages 3 and 5, respectively.

Step 2: Before answering each part of the questionnaire, please carefully read the brief explanation about the part and select only one answer to each question.

Step 3: After completing this questionnaire, please return it to a manager in charge of collection by using the sealable envelope provided.

NOTE: The personal information provided in this questionnaire will be confidential. Neither your direct/indirect superiors nor your company will be able to access your individual responses. No data identifying an individual will be disseminated. Only researchers of this research project will have an access to your individual identification.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact us. Once again, thank you very much for your participation!

Manager's Leadership toward You. Name of the leader: _____

	The manager is the leader to whom you directly report. *To what extent would you say the **manager** engages in the following leadership behaviors with you? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	He/She considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	He/She talks to me about his/her most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	He/She specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	He/She emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	He/She expresses confidence to me that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	He/She talks to me optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	He/She talks to me enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	He/She articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	He/She reward me when I do what I am supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	He/She makes clear exactly what I will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	He/She provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	He/She expresses satisfaction when I meet his/her expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

13. Looking back on the past 3 months, approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with the leader you describe above at work? Check one:

(A) less than 1 hour (B) 1 hour ~ less than 5 hours (C) 5 hours ~ less than 10 hours

(D) 10 hours ~ less than 15 hours (E) more than 15 hours

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the manager** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14	When someone criticizes him/her, I feel like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
15	I view his/her success as my own success.	0	1	2	3	4
16	When someone praises him/her, I feel like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
17	I am proud to tell others that I am associated with him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
18	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (14-17)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the manager** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19	It is necessary to express the right attitude to him/her in order for me to get rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
20	How hard I work for my job is directly linked to how much I am rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
21	Unless I am rewarded/recognized in some way, I see no reason to expand extra efforts on behalf of him/her	0	1	2	3	4
22	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (19-21)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the manager** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	I have a clear understanding of his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
24	I fully support his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
25	There is a great deal of agreement between my personal values and his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
26	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (23-25)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **yourself**, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
27	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.	0	1	2	3	4
28	I frequently think of quitting my job.	0	1	2	3	4
29	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job	0	1	2	3	4
30	I help orient new members even though it is not required.	0	1	2	3	4
31	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	0	1	2	3	4
32	I willingly give of my time to help others.	0	1	2	3	4

36. Thinking of the various things which **you** do for your job, how much are you producing? Check one:
    a. My production is very low.
    b. It is fairly low.
    c. it is neither high nor low.
    d. It is fairly high.
    e. It is very high.

37. How good would you say is the quality of **your** performance? Check one:
    a. My quality is poor.
    b. My quality is not good.
    c. Fair quality.
    d. Good quality.
    e. Excellent quality.

38. How efficiently do **you** do your work? Check one:
    a. I do not work efficiently at all.
    b. Not too efficient.
    c. Fairly efficient.
    d. I am very efficient.
    e. I am extremely efficient.

Department Head's Leadership. Name of the leader: _____

	The department head is the leader at a distance in your department. *To what extent would you say the **department head** engages in the following leadership behaviors? Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	He/She considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
2	He/She talks to us about his/her most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
3	He/She specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4	He/She emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
5	He/She expresses confidence to us that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
6	He/She talks to us optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
7	He/She talks to us enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
8	He/She articulate a compelling vision of future.	0	1	2	3	4
9	He/She reward us when we do what we are supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4
10	He/She makes clear exactly what we will get if performance goals are met.	0	1	2	3	4
11	He/She provides us with assistance in exchange for our efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
12	He/She expresses satisfaction when we meet his/her expectations.	0	1	2	3	4

13. Looking back on the past 3 months, approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with the leader you describe above at work? Check one:

(A) less than 1 hour (B) 1 hour ~ less than 5 hours (C) 5 hours ~ less than 10 hours

(D) 10 hours ~ less than 15 hours (E) more than 15 hours

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14	When someone criticizes him/her, I feel like a personal insult.	0	1	2	3	4
15	I view his/her success as my own success.	0	1	2	3	4
16	When someone praises him/her, I feel like a personal compliment.	0	1	2	3	4
17	I am proud to tell others that I am associated with him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
18	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (14-17)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19	It is necessary to express the right attitude to him/her in order for me to get rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
20	How hard I work for my job is directly linked to how much I am rewarded/recognized by him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
21	Unless I am rewarded/recognized in some way, I see no reason to expand extra efforts on behalf of him/her	0	1	2	3	4
22	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (19-21)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

	*Indicate the degree to which you think the following statements are true or false about **your attitude toward the department head** you describe above, using the following five possible responses. Circle the number that applies to each statement.*	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	I have a clear understanding of his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
24	I fully support his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
25	There is a great deal of agreement between my personal values and his/her core values.	0	1	2	3	4
26	How certain do you feel about your ratings on the questions above (23-25)? Check one: (A) Very uncertain (B) Somewhat uncertain (C) Neither uncertain nor certain (D) Somewhat certain (E) Very certain					

1. I am a: a. Male b. Female
2. What is your age? _____
3. What is your department? _____
4. What is your position (rank)? _____
5. How long have you worked for your company? _____Years and _____ Months
6. How long have you been in your current position? _____ Years and _____ Months